

PostgreSQL 8.0.0 Documentation

The PostgreSQL Global Development Group

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by The PostgreSQL Global Development Group

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Preface

This book is the official documentation of PostgreSQL. It is being written by the PostgreSQL developers and other volunteers in parallel to the development of the PostgreSQL software. It describes all the functionality that the current version of PostgreSQL officially supports.

To make the large amount of information about PostgreSQL manageable, this book has been organized in several parts. Each part is targeted at a different class of users, or at users in different stages of their PostgreSQL experience:

- Part I is an informal introduction for new users.
- Part II documents the SQL query language environment, including data types and functions, as well as user-level performance tuning. Every PostgreSQL user should read this.
- Part III describes the installation and administration of the server. Everyone who runs a PostgreSQL server, be it for private use or for others, should read this part.
- Part IV describes the programming interfaces for PostgreSQL client programs.
- Part V contains information for advanced users about the extensibility capabilities of the server. Topics are, for instance, user-defined data types and functions.
- Part VI contains reference information about SQL commands, client and server programs. This part supports the other parts with structured information sorted by command or program.
- Part VII contains assorted information that may be of use to PostgreSQL developers.

1. What is PostgreSQL?

PostgreSQL is an object-relational database management system (ORDBMS) based on POSTGRES, Version 4.2¹, developed at the University of California at Berkeley Computer Science Department. POSTGRES pioneered many concepts that only became available in some commercial database systems much later.

PostgreSQL is an open-source descendant of this original Berkeley code. It supports a large part of the SQL:2003 standard and offers many modern features:

- complex queries
- foreign keys
- triggers
- views
- transactional integrity
- multiversion concurrency control

Also, PostgreSQL can be extended by the user in many ways, for example by adding new

- data types
- functions

1. <http://s2k-ftp.CS.Berkeley.EDU:8000/postgres/postgres.html>

- operators
- aggregate functions
- index methods
- procedural languages

And because of the liberal license, PostgreSQL can be used, modified, and distributed by everyone free of charge for any purpose, be it private, commercial, or academic.

2. A Brief History of PostgreSQL

The object-relational database management system now known as PostgreSQL is derived from the POSTGRES package written at the University of California at Berkeley. With over a decade of development behind it, PostgreSQL is now the most advanced open-source database available anywhere.

2.1. The Berkeley POSTGRES Project

The POSTGRES project, led by Professor Michael Stonebraker, was sponsored by the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), the Army Research Office (ARO), the National Science Foundation (NSF), and ESL, Inc. The implementation of POSTGRES began in 1986. The initial concepts for the system were presented in *The design of POSTGRES* and the definition of the initial data model appeared in *The POSTGRES data model*. The design of the rule system at that time was described in *The design of the POSTGRES rules system*. The rationale and architecture of the storage manager were detailed in *The design of the POSTGRES storage system*.

POSTGRES has undergone several major releases since then. The first “demoware” system became operational in 1987 and was shown at the 1988 ACM-SIGMOD Conference. Version 1, described in *The implementation of POSTGRES*, was released to a few external users in June 1989. In response to a critique of the first rule system (*A commentary on the POSTGRES rules system*), the rule system was redesigned (*On Rules, Procedures, Caching and Views in Database Systems*) and Version 2 was released in June 1990 with the new rule system. Version 3 appeared in 1991 and added support for multiple storage managers, an improved query executor, and a rewritten rule system. For the most part, subsequent releases until Postgres95 (see below) focused on portability and reliability.

POSTGRES has been used to implement many different research and production applications. These include: a financial data analysis system, a jet engine performance monitoring package, an asteroid tracking database, a medical information database, and several geographic information systems. POSTGRES has also been used as an educational tool at several universities. Finally, Illustra Information Technologies (later merged into Informix², which is now owned by IBM³.) picked up the code and commercialized it. In late 1992, POSTGRES became the primary data manager for the Sequoia 2000⁴ scientific computing project.

The size of the external user community nearly doubled during 1993. It became increasingly obvious that maintenance of the prototype code and support was taking up large amounts of time that should have been devoted to database research. In an effort to reduce this support burden, the Berkeley POSTGRES project officially ended with Version 4.2.

2. <http://www.informix.com/>

3. <http://www.ibm.com/>

4. http://meteora.ucsd.edu/s2k/s2k_home.html

2.2. Postgres95

In 1994, Andrew Yu and Jolly Chen added a SQL language interpreter to POSTGRES. Under a new name, Postgres95 was subsequently released to the web to find its own way in the world as an open-source descendant of the original POSTGRES Berkeley code.

Postgres95 code was completely ANSI C and trimmed in size by 25%. Many internal changes improved performance and maintainability. Postgres95 release 1.0.x ran about 30-50% faster on the Wisconsin Benchmark compared to POSTGRES, Version 4.2. Apart from bug fixes, the following were the major enhancements:

- The query language PostQUEL was replaced with SQL (implemented in the server). Subqueries were not supported until PostgreSQL (see below), but they could be imitated in Postgres95 with user-defined SQL functions. Aggregate functions were re-implemented. Support for the `GROUP BY` query clause was also added.
- A new program (`psql`) was provided for interactive SQL queries, which used GNU Readline. This largely superseded the old monitor program.
- A new front-end library, `libpgtcl`, supported Tcl-based clients. A sample shell, `pgtclsh`, provided new Tcl commands to interface Tcl programs with the Postgres95 server.
- The large-object interface was overhauled. The inversion large objects were the only mechanism for storing large objects. (The inversion file system was removed.)
- The instance-level rule system was removed. Rules were still available as rewrite rules.
- A short tutorial introducing regular SQL features as well as those of Postgres95 was distributed with the source code
- GNU make (instead of BSD make) was used for the build. Also, Postgres95 could be compiled with an unpatched GCC (data alignment of doubles was fixed).

2.3. PostgreSQL

By 1996, it became clear that the name “Postgres95” would not stand the test of time. We chose a new name, PostgreSQL, to reflect the relationship between the original POSTGRES and the more recent versions with SQL capability. At the same time, we set the version numbering to start at 6.0, putting the numbers back into the sequence originally begun by the Berkeley POSTGRES project.

The emphasis during development of Postgres95 was on identifying and understanding existing problems in the server code. With PostgreSQL, the emphasis has shifted to augmenting features and capabilities, although work continues in all areas.

Details about what has happened in PostgreSQL since then can be found in Appendix E.

3. Conventions

This book uses the following typographical conventions to mark certain portions of text: new terms, foreign phrases, and other important passages are emphasized in *italics*. Everything that represents in-

put or output of the computer, in particular commands, program code, and screen output, is shown in a monospaced font (`example`). Within such passages, italics (*example*) indicate placeholders; you must insert an actual value instead of the placeholder. On occasion, parts of program code are emphasized in bold face (**example**), if they have been added or changed since the preceding example.

The following conventions are used in the synopsis of a command: brackets ([and]) indicate optional parts. (In the synopsis of a Tcl command, question marks (?) are used instead, as is usual in Tcl.) Braces ({ and }) and vertical lines (|) indicate that you must choose one alternative. Dots (. . .) mean that the preceding element can be repeated.

Where it enhances the clarity, SQL commands are preceded by the prompt =>, and shell commands are preceded by the prompt \$. Normally, prompts are not shown, though.

An *administrator* is generally a person who is in charge of installing and running the server. A *user* could be anyone who is using, or wants to use, any part of the PostgreSQL system. These terms should not be interpreted too narrowly; this book does not have fixed presumptions about system administration procedures.

4. Further Information

Besides the documentation, that is, this book, there are other resources about PostgreSQL:

FAQs

The FAQ list contains continuously updated answers to frequently asked questions.

READMEs

README files are available for most contributed packages.

Web Site

The PostgreSQL web site⁵ carries details on the latest release and other information to make your work or play with PostgreSQL more productive.

Mailing Lists

The mailing lists are a good place to have your questions answered, to share experiences with other users, and to contact the developers. Consult the PostgreSQL web site for details.

Yourself!

PostgreSQL is an open-source project. As such, it depends on the user community for ongoing support. As you begin to use PostgreSQL, you will rely on others for help, either through the documentation or through the mailing lists. Consider contributing your knowledge back. Read the mailing lists and answer questions. If you learn something which is not in the documentation, write it up and contribute it. If you add features to the code, contribute them.

5. <http://www.postgresql.org>

5. Bug Reporting Guidelines

When you find a bug in PostgreSQL we want to hear about it. Your bug reports play an important part in making PostgreSQL more reliable because even the utmost care cannot guarantee that every part of PostgreSQL will work on every platform under every circumstance.

The following suggestions are intended to assist you in forming bug reports that can be handled in an effective fashion. No one is required to follow them but doing so tends to be to everyone's advantage.

We cannot promise to fix every bug right away. If the bug is obvious, critical, or affects a lot of users, chances are good that someone will look into it. It could also happen that we tell you to update to a newer version to see if the bug happens there. Or we might decide that the bug cannot be fixed before some major rewrite we might be planning is done. Or perhaps it is simply too hard and there are more important things on the agenda. If you need help immediately, consider obtaining a commercial support contract.

5.1. Identifying Bugs

Before you report a bug, please read and re-read the documentation to verify that you can really do whatever it is you are trying. If it is not clear from the documentation whether you can do something or not, please report that too; it is a bug in the documentation. If it turns out that a program does something different from what the documentation says, that is a bug. That might include, but is not limited to, the following circumstances:

- A program terminates with a fatal signal or an operating system error message that would point to a problem in the program. (A counterexample might be a “disk full” message, since you have to fix that yourself.)
- A program produces the wrong output for any given input.
- A program refuses to accept valid input (as defined in the documentation).
- A program accepts invalid input without a notice or error message. But keep in mind that your idea of invalid input might be our idea of an extension or compatibility with traditional practice.
- PostgreSQL fails to compile, build, or install according to the instructions on supported platforms.

Here “program” refers to any executable, not only the backend server.

Being slow or resource-hogging is not necessarily a bug. Read the documentation or ask on one of the mailing lists for help in tuning your applications. Failing to comply to the SQL standard is not necessarily a bug either, unless compliance for the specific feature is explicitly claimed.

Before you continue, check on the TODO list and in the FAQ to see if your bug is already known. If you cannot decode the information on the TODO list, report your problem. The least we can do is make the TODO list clearer.

5.2. What to report

The most important thing to remember about bug reporting is to state all the facts and only facts. Do not speculate what you think went wrong, what “it seemed to do”, or which part of the program has a fault. If you are not familiar with the implementation you would probably guess wrong and not help us a bit. And even if you are, educated explanations are a great supplement to but no substitute for facts. If we are going to fix the bug we still have to see it happen for ourselves first. Reporting the bare facts is relatively

straightforward (you can probably copy and paste them from the screen) but all too often important details are left out because someone thought it does not matter or the report would be understood anyway.

The following items should be contained in every bug report:

- The exact sequence of steps *from program start-up* necessary to reproduce the problem. This should be self-contained; it is not enough to send in a bare `SELECT` statement without the preceding `CREATE TABLE` and `INSERT` statements, if the output should depend on the data in the tables. We do not have the time to reverse-engineer your database schema, and if we are supposed to make up our own data we would probably miss the problem.

The best format for a test case for SQL-related problems is a file that can be run through the `psql` frontend that shows the problem. (Be sure to not have anything in your `~/.psqlrc` start-up file.) An easy start at this file is to use `pg_dump` to dump out the table declarations and data needed to set the scene, then add the problem query. You are encouraged to minimize the size of your example, but this is not absolutely necessary. If the bug is reproducible, we will find it either way.

If your application uses some other client interface, such as PHP, then please try to isolate the offending queries. We will probably not set up a web server to reproduce your problem. In any case remember to provide the exact input files; do not guess that the problem happens for “large files” or “midsize databases”, etc. since this information is too inexact to be of use.

- The output you got. Please do not say that it “didn’t work” or “crashed”. If there is an error message, show it, even if you do not understand it. If the program terminates with an operating system error, say which. If nothing at all happens, say so. Even if the result of your test case is a program crash or otherwise obvious it might not happen on our platform. The easiest thing is to copy the output from the terminal, if possible.

Note: If you are reporting an error message, please obtain the most verbose form of the message. In `psql`, say `\set VERBOSITY verbose` beforehand. If you are extracting the message from the server log, set the run-time parameter `log_error_verbosity` to `verbose` so that all details are logged.

Note: In case of fatal errors, the error message reported by the client might not contain all the information available. Please also look at the log output of the database server. If you do not keep your server’s log output, this would be a good time to start doing so.

- The output you expected is very important to state. If you just write “This command gives me that output.” or “This is not what I expected.”, we might run it ourselves, scan the output, and think it looks OK and is exactly what we expected. We should not have to spend the time to decode the exact semantics behind your commands. Especially refrain from merely saying that “This is not what SQL says/Oracle does.” Digging out the correct behavior from SQL is not a fun undertaking, nor do we all know how all the other relational databases out there behave. (If your problem is a program crash, you can obviously omit this item.)

- Any command line options and other start-up options, including any relevant environment variables or configuration files that you changed from the default. Again, please provide exact information. If you are using a prepackaged distribution that starts the database server at boot time, you should try to find out how that is done.
- Anything you did at all differently from the installation instructions.
- The PostgreSQL version. You can run the command `SELECT version();` to find out the version of the server you are connected to. Most executable programs also support a `--version` option; at least `postmaster --version` and `psql --version` should work. If the function or the options do not exist then your version is more than old enough to warrant an upgrade. If you run a prepackaged version, such as RPMs, say so, including any subversion the package may have. If you are talking about a CVS snapshot, mention that, including its date and time.

If your version is older than 8.0.0 we will almost certainly tell you to upgrade. There are many bug fixes and improvements in each new release, so it is quite possible that a bug you have encountered in an older release of PostgreSQL has already been fixed. We can only provide limited support for sites using older releases of PostgreSQL; if you require more than we can provide, consider acquiring a commercial support contract.

- Platform information. This includes the kernel name and version, C library, processor, memory information, and so on. In most cases it is sufficient to report the vendor and version, but do not assume everyone knows what exactly “Debian” contains or that everyone runs on Pentiums. If you have installation problems then information about the toolchain on your machine (compiler, make, and so on) is also necessary.

Do not be afraid if your bug report becomes rather lengthy. That is a fact of life. It is better to report everything the first time than us having to squeeze the facts out of you. On the other hand, if your input files are huge, it is fair to ask first whether somebody is interested in looking into it.

Do not spend all your time to figure out which changes in the input make the problem go away. This will probably not help solving it. If it turns out that the bug cannot be fixed right away, you will still have time to find and share your work-around. Also, once again, do not waste your time guessing why the bug exists. We will find that out soon enough.

When writing a bug report, please avoid confusing terminology. The software package in total is called “PostgreSQL”, sometimes “Postgres” for short. If you are specifically talking about the backend server, mention that, do not just say “PostgreSQL crashes”. A crash of a single backend server process is quite different from crash of the parent “postmaster” process; please don’t say “the postmaster crashed” when you mean a single backend process went down, nor vice versa. Also, client programs such as the interactive frontend “psql” are completely separate from the backend. Please try to be specific about whether the problem is on the client or server side.

5.3. Where to report bugs

In general, send bug reports to the bug report mailing list at [<pgsql-bugs@postgresql.org>](mailto:pgsql-bugs@postgresql.org). You are requested to use a descriptive subject for your email message, perhaps parts of the error message.

Another method is to fill in the bug report web-form available at the project’s web site <http://www.postgresql.org/>. Entering a bug report this way causes it to be mailed to the

<pgsql-bugs@postgresql.org> mailing list.

Do not send bug reports to any of the user mailing lists, such as <pgsql-sql@postgresql.org> or <pgsql-general@postgresql.org>. These mailing lists are for answering user questions, and their subscribers normally do not wish to receive bug reports. More importantly, they are unlikely to fix them.

Also, please do *not* send reports to the developers' mailing list <pgsql-hackers@postgresql.org>. This list is for discussing the development of PostgreSQL, and it would be nice if we could keep the bug reports separate. We might choose to take up a discussion about your bug report on `pgsql-hackers`, if the problem needs more review.

If you have a problem with the documentation, the best place to report it is the documentation mailing list <pgsql-docs@postgresql.org>. Please be specific about what part of the documentation you are unhappy with.

If your bug is a portability problem on a non-supported platform, send mail to <pgsql-ports@postgresql.org>, so we (and you) can work on porting PostgreSQL to your platform.

Note: Due to the unfortunate amount of spam going around, all of the above email addresses are closed mailing lists. That is, you need to be subscribed to a list to be allowed to post on it. (You need not be subscribed to use the bug-report web form, however.) If you would like to send mail but do not want to receive list traffic, you can subscribe and set your subscription option to `nomail`. For more information send mail to <majordomo@postgresql.org> with the single word `help` in the body of the message.

I. Tutorial

Welcome to the PostgreSQL Tutorial. The following few chapters are intended to give a simple introduction to PostgreSQL, relational database concepts, and the SQL language to those who are new to any one of these aspects. We only assume some general knowledge about how to use computers. No particular Unix or programming experience is required. This part is mainly intended to give you some hands-on experience with important aspects of the PostgreSQL system. It makes no attempt to be a complete or thorough treatment of the topics it covers.

After you have worked through this tutorial you might want to move on to reading Part II to gain a more formal knowledge of the SQL language, or Part IV for information about developing applications for PostgreSQL. Those who set up and manage their own server should also read Part III.

Chapter 1. Getting Started

1.1. Installation

Before you can use PostgreSQL you need to install it, of course. It is possible that PostgreSQL is already installed at your site, either because it was included in your operating system distribution or because the system administrator already installed it. If that is the case, you should obtain information from the operating system documentation or your system administrator about how to access PostgreSQL.

If you are not sure whether PostgreSQL is already available or whether you can use it for your experimentation then you can install it yourself. Doing so is not hard and it can be a good exercise. PostgreSQL can be installed by any unprivileged user; no superuser (root) access is required.

If you are installing PostgreSQL yourself, then refer to Chapter 14 for instructions on installation, and return to this guide when the installation is complete. Be sure to follow closely the section about setting up the appropriate environment variables.

If your site administrator has not set things up in the default way, you may have some more work to do. For example, if the database server machine is a remote machine, you will need to set the `PGHOST` environment variable to the name of the database server machine. The environment variable `PGPORT` may also have to be set. The bottom line is this: if you try to start an application program and it complains that it cannot connect to the database, you should consult your site administrator or, if that is you, the documentation to make sure that your environment is properly set up. If you did not understand the preceding paragraph then read the next section.

1.2. Architectural Fundamentals

Before we proceed, you should understand the basic PostgreSQL system architecture. Understanding how the parts of PostgreSQL interact will make this chapter somewhat clearer.

In database jargon, PostgreSQL uses a client/server model. A PostgreSQL session consists of the following cooperating processes (programs):

- A server process, which manages the database files, accepts connections to the database from client applications, and performs actions on the database on behalf of the clients. The database server program is called `postmaster`.
- The user's client (frontend) application that wants to perform database operations. Client applications can be very diverse in nature: a client could be a text-oriented tool, a graphical application, a web server that accesses the database to display web pages, or a specialized database maintenance tool. Some client applications are supplied with the PostgreSQL distribution; most are developed by users.

As is typical of client/server applications, the client and the server can be on different hosts. In that case they communicate over a TCP/IP network connection. You should keep this in mind, because the files that can be accessed on a client machine might not be accessible (or might only be accessible using a different file name) on the database server machine.

The PostgreSQL server can handle multiple concurrent connections from clients. For that purpose it starts (“forks”) a new process for each connection. From that point on, the client and the new server process communicate without intervention by the original `postmaster` process. Thus, the `postmaster` is always running, waiting for client connections, whereas client and associated server processes come and go. (All of this is of course invisible to the user. We only mention it here for completeness.)

1.3. Creating a Database

The first test to see whether you can access the database server is to try to create a database. A running PostgreSQL server can manage many databases. Typically, a separate database is used for each project or for each user.

Possibly, your site administrator has already created a database for your use. He should have told you what the name of your database is. In that case you can omit this step and skip ahead to the next section.

To create a new database, in this example named `mydb`, you use the following command:

```
$ createdb mydb
```

This should produce as response:

```
CREATE DATABASE
```

If so, this step was successful and you can skip over the remainder of this section.

If you see a message similar to

```
createdb: command not found
```

then PostgreSQL was not installed properly. Either it was not installed at all or the search path was not set correctly. Try calling the command with an absolute path instead:

```
$ /usr/local/pgsql/bin/createdb mydb
```

The path at your site might be different. Contact your site administrator or check back in the installation instructions to correct the situation.

Another response could be this:

```
createdb: could not connect to database template1: could not connect to server:
No such file or directory
Is the server running locally and accepting
connections on Unix domain socket "/tmp/.s.PGSQL.5432"?
```

This means that the server was not started, or it was not started where `createdb` expected it. Again, check the installation instructions or consult the administrator.

Another response could be this:

```
createdb: could not connect to database template1: FATAL: user "joe" does not
exist
```

where your own login name is mentioned. This will happen if the administrator has not created a PostgreSQL user account for you. (PostgreSQL user accounts are distinct from operating system user ac-

counts.) If you are the administrator, see Chapter 17 for help creating accounts. You will need to become the operating system user under which PostgreSQL was installed (usually `postgres`) to create the first user account. It could also be that you were assigned a PostgreSQL user name that is different from your operating system user name; in that case you need to use the `-U` switch or set the `PGUSER` environment variable to specify your PostgreSQL user name.

If you have a user account but it does not have the privileges required to create a database, you will see the following:

```
createdb: database creation failed: ERROR: permission denied to create database
```

Not every user has authorization to create new databases. If PostgreSQL refuses to create databases for you then the site administrator needs to grant you permission to create databases. Consult your site administrator if this occurs. If you installed PostgreSQL yourself then you should log in for the purposes of this tutorial under the user account that you started the server as.¹

You can also create databases with other names. PostgreSQL allows you to create any number of databases at a given site. Database names must have an alphabetic first character and are limited to 63 characters in length. A convenient choice is to create a database with the same name as your current user name. Many tools assume that database name as the default, so it can save you some typing. To create that database, simply type

```
$ createdb
```

If you do not want to use your database anymore you can remove it. For example, if you are the owner (creator) of the database `mydb`, you can destroy it using the following command:

```
$ dropdb mydb
```

(For this command, the database name does not default to the user account name. You always need to specify it.) This action physically removes all files associated with the database and cannot be undone, so this should only be done with a great deal of forethought.

More about `createdb` and `dropdb` may be found in `createdb` and `dropdb` respectively.

1.4. Accessing a Database

Once you have created a database, you can access it by:

- Running the PostgreSQL interactive terminal program, called *psql*, which allows you to interactively enter, edit, and execute SQL commands.
- Using an existing graphical frontend tool like PgAccess or an office suite with ODBC support to create and manipulate a database. These possibilities are not covered in this tutorial.

1. As an explanation for why this works: PostgreSQL user names are separate from operating system user accounts. If you connect to a database, you can choose what PostgreSQL user name to connect as; if you don't, it will default to the same name as your current operating system account. As it happens, there will always be a PostgreSQL user account that has the same name as the operating system user that started the server, and it also happens that that user always has permission to create databases. Instead of logging in as that user you can also specify the `-U` option everywhere to select a PostgreSQL user name to connect as.

- Writing a custom application, using one of the several available language bindings. These possibilities are discussed further in Part IV.

You probably want to start up `psql`, to try out the examples in this tutorial. It can be activated for the `mydb` database by typing the command:

```
$ psql mydb
```

If you leave off the database name then it will default to your user account name. You already discovered this scheme in the previous section.

In `psql`, you will be greeted with the following message:

```
Welcome to psql 8.0.0, the PostgreSQL interactive terminal.
```

```
Type:  \copyright for distribution terms
        \h for help with SQL commands
        \? for help with psql commands
        \g or terminate with semicolon to execute query
        \q to quit
```

```
mydb=>
```

The last line could also be

```
mydb=#
```

That would mean you are a database superuser, which is most likely the case if you installed PostgreSQL yourself. Being a superuser means that you are not subject to access controls. For the purpose of this tutorial this is not of importance.

If you encounter problems starting `psql` then go back to the previous section. The diagnostics of `createdb` and `psql` are similar, and if the former worked the latter should work as well.

The last line printed out by `psql` is the prompt, and it indicates that `psql` is listening to you and that you can type SQL queries into a work space maintained by `psql`. Try out these commands:

```
mydb=> SELECT version();
                version
-----
 PostgreSQL 8.0.0 on i586-pc-linux-gnu, compiled by GCC 2.96
(1 row)

mydb=> SELECT current_date;
        date
-----
 2002-08-31
(1 row)

mydb=> SELECT 2 + 2;
?column?
-----
         4
(1 row)
```

The `psql` program has a number of internal commands that are not SQL commands. They begin with the backslash character, “\”. Some of these commands were listed in the welcome message. For example, you can get help on the syntax of various PostgreSQL SQL commands by typing:

```
mydb=> \h
```

To get out of `psql`, type

```
mydb=> \q
```

and `psql` will quit and return you to your command shell. (For more internal commands, type `\?` at the `psql` prompt.) The full capabilities of `psql` are documented in `psql`. If PostgreSQL is installed correctly you can also type `man psql` at the operating system shell prompt to see the documentation. In this tutorial we will not use these features explicitly, but you can use them yourself when you see fit.

Chapter 2. The SQL Language

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of how to use SQL to perform simple operations. This tutorial is only intended to give you an introduction and is in no way a complete tutorial on SQL. Numerous books have been written on SQL, including *Understanding the New SQL* and *A Guide to the SQL Standard*. You should be aware that some PostgreSQL language features are extensions to the standard.

In the examples that follow, we assume that you have created a database named `mydb`, as described in the previous chapter, and have started `psql`.

Examples in this manual can also be found in the PostgreSQL source distribution in the directory `src/tutorial/`. To use those files, first change to that directory and run `make`:

```
$ cd ../src/tutorial
$ make
```

This creates the scripts and compiles the C files containing user-defined functions and types. (You must use GNU `make` for this — it may be named something different on your system, often `gmake`.) Then, to start the tutorial, do the following:

```
$ cd ../src/tutorial
$ psql -s mydb
...

mydb=> \i basics.sql
```

The `\i` command reads in commands from the specified file. The `-s` option puts you in single step mode which pauses before sending each statement to the server. The commands used in this section are in the file `basics.sql`.

2.2. Concepts

PostgreSQL is a *relational database management system* (RDBMS). That means it is a system for managing data stored in *relations*. Relation is essentially a mathematical term for *table*. The notion of storing data in tables is so commonplace today that it might seem inherently obvious, but there are a number of other ways of organizing databases. Files and directories on Unix-like operating systems form an example of a hierarchical database. A more modern development is the object-oriented database.

Each table is a named collection of *rows*. Each row of a given table has the same set of named *columns*, and each column is of a specific data type. Whereas columns have a fixed order in each row, it is important to remember that SQL does not guarantee the order of the rows within the table in any way (although they can be explicitly sorted for display).

Tables are grouped into databases, and a collection of databases managed by a single PostgreSQL server instance constitutes a database *cluster*.

2.3. Creating a New Table

You can create a new table by specifying the table name, along with all column names and their types:

```
CREATE TABLE weather (
    city          varchar(80),
    temp_lo      int,          -- low temperature
    temp_hi      int,          -- high temperature
    prcp         real,        -- precipitation
    date         date
);
```

You can enter this into `psql` with the line breaks. `psql` will recognize that the command is not terminated until the semicolon.

White space (i.e., spaces, tabs, and newlines) may be used freely in SQL commands. That means you can type the command aligned differently than above, or even all on one line. Two dashes (“--”) introduce comments. Whatever follows them is ignored up to the end of the line. SQL is case insensitive about key words and identifiers, except when identifiers are double-quoted to preserve the case (not done above).

`varchar(80)` specifies a data type that can store arbitrary character strings up to 80 characters in length. `int` is the normal integer type. `real` is a type for storing single precision floating-point numbers. `date` should be self-explanatory. (Yes, the column of type `date` is also named `date`. This may be convenient or confusing — you choose.)

PostgreSQL supports the standard SQL types `int`, `smallint`, `real`, `double precision`, `char(N)`, `varchar(N)`, `date`, `time`, `timestamp`, and `interval`, as well as other types of general utility and a rich set of geometric types. PostgreSQL can be customized with an arbitrary number of user-defined data types. Consequently, type names are not syntactical key words, except where required to support special cases in the SQL standard.

The second example will store cities and their associated geographical location:

```
CREATE TABLE cities (
    name          varchar(80),
    location      point
);
```

The `point` type is an example of a PostgreSQL-specific data type.

Finally, it should be mentioned that if you don’t need a table any longer or want to recreate it differently you can remove it using the following command:

```
DROP TABLE tablename;
```

2.4. Populating a Table With Rows

The `INSERT` statement is used to populate a table with rows:

```
INSERT INTO weather VALUES ('San Francisco', 46, 50, 0.25, '1994-11-27');
```

Note that all data types use rather obvious input formats. Constants that are not simple numeric values usually must be surrounded by single quotes (`'`), as in the example. The `date` type is actually quite flexible in what it accepts, but for this tutorial we will stick to the unambiguous format shown here.

The `point` type requires a coordinate pair as input, as shown here:

```
INSERT INTO cities VALUES ('San Francisco', '(-194.0, 53.0)');
```

The syntax used so far requires you to remember the order of the columns. An alternative syntax allows you to list the columns explicitly:

```
INSERT INTO weather (city, temp_lo, temp_hi, prcp, date)
VALUES ('San Francisco', 43, 57, 0.0, '1994-11-29');
```

You can list the columns in a different order if you wish or even omit some columns, e.g., if the precipitation is unknown:

```
INSERT INTO weather (date, city, temp_hi, temp_lo)
VALUES ('1994-11-29', 'Hayward', 54, 37);
```

Many developers consider explicitly listing the columns better style than relying on the order implicitly.

Please enter all the commands shown above so you have some data to work with in the following sections.

You could also have used `COPY` to load large amounts of data from flat-text files. This is usually faster because the `COPY` command is optimized for this application while allowing less flexibility than `INSERT`. An example would be:

```
COPY weather FROM '/home/user/weather.txt';
```

where the file name for the source file must be available to the backend server machine, not the client, since the backend server reads the file directly. You can read more about the `COPY` command in `COPY`.

2.5. Querying a Table

To retrieve data from a table, the table is *queried*. An SQL `SELECT` statement is used to do this. The statement is divided into a select list (the part that lists the columns to be returned), a table list (the part that lists the tables from which to retrieve the data), and an optional qualification (the part that specifies any restrictions). For example, to retrieve all the rows of table `weather`, type:

```
SELECT * FROM weather;
```

Here `*` is a shorthand for “all columns”.¹ So the same result would be had with:

```
SELECT city, temp_lo, temp_hi, prcp, date FROM weather;
```

The output should be:

```
city      | temp_lo | temp_hi | prcp | date
```

1. While `SELECT *` is useful for off-the-cuff queries, it is widely considered bad style in production code, since adding a column to the table would change the results.

```

-----+-----+-----+-----+-----
San Francisco |    46 |    50 | 0.25 | 1994-11-27
San Francisco |    43 |    57 |    0 | 1994-11-29
Hayward      |    37 |    54 |     | 1994-11-29
(3 rows)

```

You can write expressions, not just simple column references, in the select list. For example, you can do:

```
SELECT city, (temp_hi+temp_lo)/2 AS temp_avg, date FROM weather;
```

This should give:

```

      city      | temp_avg |    date
-----+-----+-----
San Francisco |    48 | 1994-11-27
San Francisco |    50 | 1994-11-29
Hayward      |    45 | 1994-11-29
(3 rows)

```

Notice how the `AS` clause is used to relabel the output column. (The `AS` clause is optional.)

A query can be “qualified” by adding a `WHERE` clause that specifies which rows are wanted. The `WHERE` clause contains a Boolean (truth value) expression, and only rows for which the Boolean expression is true are returned. The usual Boolean operators (`AND`, `OR`, and `NOT`) are allowed in the qualification. For example, the following retrieves the weather of San Francisco on rainy days:

```
SELECT * FROM weather
      WHERE city = 'San Francisco' AND prcp > 0.0;
```

Result:

```

      city      | temp_lo | temp_hi | prcp |    date
-----+-----+-----+-----+-----
San Francisco |    46 |    50 | 0.25 | 1994-11-27
(1 row)

```

You can request that the results of a query be returned in sorted order:

```
SELECT * FROM weather
      ORDER BY city;
```

```

      city      | temp_lo | temp_hi | prcp |    date
-----+-----+-----+-----+-----
Hayward      |    37 |    54 |     | 1994-11-29
San Francisco |    43 |    57 |    0 | 1994-11-29
San Francisco |    46 |    50 | 0.25 | 1994-11-27

```

In this example, the sort order isn’t fully specified, and so you might get the San Francisco rows in either order. But you’d always get the results shown above if you do

```
SELECT * FROM weather
```

```
ORDER BY city, temp_lo;
```

You can request that duplicate rows be removed from the result of a query:

```
SELECT DISTINCT city
FROM weather;

    city
-----
Hayward
San Francisco
(2 rows)
```

Here again, the result row ordering might vary. You can ensure consistent results by using `DISTINCT` and `ORDER BY` together:²

```
SELECT DISTINCT city
FROM weather
ORDER BY city;
```

2.6. Joins Between Tables

Thus far, our queries have only accessed one table at a time. Queries can access multiple tables at once, or access the same table in such a way that multiple rows of the table are being processed at the same time. A query that accesses multiple rows of the same or different tables at one time is called a *join* query. As an example, say you wish to list all the weather records together with the location of the associated city. To do that, we need to compare the city column of each row of the weather table with the name column of all rows in the cities table, and select the pairs of rows where these values match.

Note: This is only a conceptual model. The join is usually performed in a more efficient manner than actually comparing each possible pair of rows, but this is invisible to the user.

This would be accomplished by the following query:

```
SELECT *
FROM weather, cities
WHERE city = name;
```

city	temp_lo	temp_hi	prcp	date	name	location
San Francisco	46	50	0.25	1994-11-27	San Francisco	(-194,53)
San Francisco	43	57	0	1994-11-29	San Francisco	(-194,53)

(2 rows)

2. In some database systems, including older versions of PostgreSQL, the implementation of `DISTINCT` automatically orders the rows and so `ORDER BY` is redundant. But this is not required by the SQL standard, and current PostgreSQL doesn't guarantee that `DISTINCT` causes the rows to be ordered.

Observe two things about the result set:

- There is no result row for the city of Hayward. This is because there is no matching entry in the `cities` table for Hayward, so the join ignores the unmatched rows in the `weather` table. We will see shortly how this can be fixed.
- There are two columns containing the city name. This is correct because the lists of columns of the `weather` and the `cities` table are concatenated. In practice this is undesirable, though, so you will probably want to list the output columns explicitly rather than using `*`:

```
SELECT city, temp_lo, temp_hi, prcp, date, location
FROM weather, cities
WHERE city = name;
```

Exercise: Attempt to find out the semantics of this query when the `WHERE` clause is omitted.

Since the columns all had different names, the parser automatically found out which table they belong to, but it is good style to fully qualify column names in join queries:

```
SELECT weather.city, weather.temp_lo, weather.temp_hi,
       weather.prcp, weather.date, cities.location
FROM weather, cities
WHERE cities.name = weather.city;
```

Join queries of the kind seen thus far can also be written in this alternative form:

```
SELECT *
FROM weather INNER JOIN cities ON (weather.city = cities.name);
```

This syntax is not as commonly used as the one above, but we show it here to help you understand the following topics.

Now we will figure out how we can get the Hayward records back in. What we want the query to do is to scan the `weather` table and for each row to find the matching `cities` row. If no matching row is found we want some “empty values” to be substituted for the `cities` table’s columns. This kind of query is called an *outer join*. (The joins we have seen so far are inner joins.) The command looks like this:

```
SELECT *
FROM weather LEFT OUTER JOIN cities ON (weather.city = cities.name);
```

city	temp_lo	temp_hi	prcp	date	name	location
Hayward	37	54		1994-11-29		
San Francisco	46	50	0.25	1994-11-27	San Francisco	(-194,53)
San Francisco	43	57	0	1994-11-29	San Francisco	(-194,53)

(3 rows)

This query is called a *left outer join* because the table mentioned on the left of the join operator will have each of its rows in the output at least once, whereas the table on the right will only have those rows output that match some row of the left table. When outputting a left-table row for which there is no right-table match, empty (null) values are substituted for the right-table columns.

Exercise: There are also right outer joins and full outer joins. Try to find out what those do.

We can also join a table against itself. This is called a *self join*. As an example, suppose we wish to find all the weather records that are in the temperature range of other weather records. So we need to compare the `temp_lo` and `temp_hi` columns of each weather row to the `temp_lo` and `temp_hi` columns of all other weather rows. We can do this with the following query:

```
SELECT W1.city, W1.temp_lo AS low, W1.temp_hi AS high,
       W2.city, W2.temp_lo AS low, W2.temp_hi AS high
FROM weather W1, weather W2
WHERE W1.temp_lo < W2.temp_lo
AND W1.temp_hi > W2.temp_hi;
```

city	low	high	city	low	high
San Francisco	43	57	San Francisco	46	50
Hayward	37	54	San Francisco	46	50

(2 rows)

Here we have relabeled the weather table as `w1` and `w2` to be able to distinguish the left and right side of the join. You can also use these kinds of aliases in other queries to save some typing, e.g.:

```
SELECT *
FROM weather w, cities c
WHERE w.city = c.name;
```

You will encounter this style of abbreviating quite frequently.

2.7. Aggregate Functions

Like most other relational database products, PostgreSQL supports aggregate functions. An aggregate function computes a single result from multiple input rows. For example, there are aggregates to compute the `count`, `sum`, `avg` (average), `max` (maximum) and `min` (minimum) over a set of rows.

As an example, we can find the highest low-temperature reading anywhere with

```
SELECT max(temp_lo) FROM weather;
```

```
max
-----
 46
(1 row)
```

If we wanted to know what city (or cities) that reading occurred in, we might try

```
SELECT city FROM weather WHERE temp_lo = max(temp_lo);      WRONG
```

but this will not work since the aggregate `max` cannot be used in the `WHERE` clause. (This restriction exists because the `WHERE` clause determines the rows that will go into the aggregation stage; so it has to be evaluated before aggregate functions are computed.) However, as is often the case the query can be restated to accomplish the intended result, here by using a *subquery*:

```

SELECT city FROM weather
  WHERE temp_lo = (SELECT max(temp_lo) FROM weather);

  city
-----
San Francisco
(1 row)

```

This is OK because the subquery is an independent computation that computes its own aggregate separately from what is happening in the outer query.

Aggregates are also very useful in combination with `GROUP BY` clauses. For example, we can get the maximum low temperature observed in each city with

```

SELECT city, max(temp_lo)
  FROM weather
  GROUP BY city;

  city      | max
-----+-----
Hayward     |  37
San Francisco |  46
(2 rows)

```

which gives us one output row per city. Each aggregate result is computed over the table rows matching that city. We can filter these grouped rows using `HAVING`:

```

SELECT city, max(temp_lo)
  FROM weather
  GROUP BY city
  HAVING max(temp_lo) < 40;

  city  | max
-----+-----
Hayward |  37
(1 row)

```

which gives us the same results for only the cities that have all `temp_lo` values below 40. Finally, if we only care about cities whose names begin with “S”, we might do

```

SELECT city, max(temp_lo)
  FROM weather
  WHERE city LIKE 'S%'❶
  GROUP BY city
  HAVING max(temp_lo) < 40;

```

❶ The `LIKE` operator does pattern matching and is explained in Section 9.7.

It is important to understand the interaction between aggregates and SQL’s `WHERE` and `HAVING` clauses. The fundamental difference between `WHERE` and `HAVING` is this: `WHERE` selects input rows before groups and aggregates are computed (thus, it controls which rows go into the aggregate computation), whereas `HAVING` selects group rows after groups and aggregates are computed. Thus, the `WHERE` clause must not

contain aggregate functions; it makes no sense to try to use an aggregate to determine which rows will be inputs to the aggregates. On the other hand, the `HAVING` clause always contains aggregate functions. (Strictly speaking, you are allowed to write a `HAVING` clause that doesn't use aggregates, but it's wasteful. The same condition could be used more efficiently at the `WHERE` stage.)

In the previous example, we can apply the city name restriction in `WHERE`, since it needs no aggregate. This is more efficient than adding the restriction to `HAVING`, because we avoid doing the grouping and aggregate calculations for all rows that fail the `WHERE` check.

2.8. Updates

You can update existing rows using the `UPDATE` command. Suppose you discover the temperature readings are all off by 2 degrees as of November 28. You may update the data as follows:

```
UPDATE weather
  SET temp_hi = temp_hi - 2, temp_lo = temp_lo - 2
  WHERE date > '1994-11-28';
```

Look at the new state of the data:

```
SELECT * FROM weather;
```

city	temp_lo	temp_hi	prcp	date
San Francisco	46	50	0.25	1994-11-27
San Francisco	41	55	0	1994-11-29
Hayward	35	52		1994-11-29

(3 rows)

2.9. Deletions

Rows can be removed from a table using the `DELETE` command. Suppose you are no longer interested in the weather of Hayward. Then you can do the following to delete those rows from the table:

```
DELETE FROM weather WHERE city = 'Hayward';
```

All weather records belonging to Hayward are removed.

```
SELECT * FROM weather;
```

city	temp_lo	temp_hi	prcp	date
San Francisco	46	50	0.25	1994-11-27
San Francisco	41	55	0	1994-11-29

(2 rows)

One should be wary of statements of the form

```
DELETE FROM tablename ;
```

Without a qualification, DELETE will remove *all* rows from the given table, leaving it empty. The system will not request confirmation before doing this!

Chapter 3. Advanced Features

3.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter we have covered the basics of using SQL to store and access your data in PostgreSQL. We will now discuss some more advanced features of SQL that simplify management and prevent loss or corruption of your data. Finally, we will look at some PostgreSQL extensions.

This chapter will on occasion refer to examples found in Chapter 2 to change or improve them, so it will be of advantage if you have read that chapter. Some examples from this chapter can also be found in `advanced.sql` in the tutorial directory. This file also contains some example data to load, which is not repeated here. (Refer to Section 2.1 for how to use the file.)

3.2. Views

Refer back to the queries in Section 2.6. Suppose the combined listing of weather records and city location is of particular interest to your application, but you do not want to type the query each time you need it. You can create a *view* over the query, which gives a name to the query that you can refer to like an ordinary table.

```
CREATE VIEW myview AS
    SELECT city, temp_lo, temp_hi, prcp, date, location
        FROM weather, cities
        WHERE city = name;

SELECT * FROM myview;
```

Making liberal use of views is a key aspect of good SQL database design. Views allow you to encapsulate the details of the structure of your tables, which may change as your application evolves, behind consistent interfaces.

Views can be used in almost any place a real table can be used. Building views upon other views is not uncommon.

3.3. Foreign Keys

Recall the `weather` and `cities` tables from Chapter 2. Consider the following problem: You want to make sure that no one can insert rows in the `weather` table that do not have a matching entry in the `cities` table. This is called maintaining the *referential integrity* of your data. In simplistic database systems this would be implemented (if at all) by first looking at the `cities` table to check if a matching record exists, and then inserting or rejecting the new `weather` records. This approach has a number of problems and is very inconvenient, so PostgreSQL can do this for you.

The new declaration of the tables would look like this:

```
CREATE TABLE cities (
```

```

        city      varchar(80) primary key,
        location  point
    );

CREATE TABLE weather (
    city      varchar(80) references cities(city),
    temp_lo   int,
    temp_hi   int,
    prcp      real,
    date      date
);

```

Now try inserting an invalid record:

```

INSERT INTO weather VALUES ('Berkeley', 45, 53, 0.0, '1994-11-28');

ERROR:  insert or update on table "weather" violates foreign key constraint "weather_ci
DETAIL:  Key (city)=(Berkeley) is not present in table "cities".

```

The behavior of foreign keys can be finely tuned to your application. We will not go beyond this simple example in this tutorial, but just refer you to Chapter 5 for more information. Making correct use of foreign keys will definitely improve the quality of your database applications, so you are strongly encouraged to learn about them.

3.4. Transactions

Transactions are a fundamental concept of all database systems. The essential point of a transaction is that it bundles multiple steps into a single, all-or-nothing operation. The intermediate states between the steps are not visible to other concurrent transactions, and if some failure occurs that prevents the transaction from completing, then none of the steps affect the database at all.

For example, consider a bank database that contains balances for various customer accounts, as well as total deposit balances for branches. Suppose that we want to record a payment of \$100.00 from Alice's account to Bob's account. Simplifying outrageously, the SQL commands for this might look like

```

UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance - 100.00
    WHERE name = 'Alice';
UPDATE branches SET balance = balance - 100.00
    WHERE name = (SELECT branch_name FROM accounts WHERE name = 'Alice');
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100.00
    WHERE name = 'Bob';
UPDATE branches SET balance = balance + 100.00
    WHERE name = (SELECT branch_name FROM accounts WHERE name = 'Bob');

```

The details of these commands are not important here; the important point is that there are several separate updates involved to accomplish this rather simple operation. Our bank's officers will want to be assured that either all these updates happen, or none of them happen. It would certainly not do for a system failure to result in Bob receiving \$100.00 that was not debited from Alice. Nor would Alice long remain a happy

customer if she was debited without Bob being credited. We need a guarantee that if something goes wrong partway through the operation, none of the steps executed so far will take effect. Grouping the updates into a *transaction* gives us this guarantee. A transaction is said to be *atomic*: from the point of view of other transactions, it either happens completely or not at all.

We also want a guarantee that once a transaction is completed and acknowledged by the database system, it has indeed been permanently recorded and won't be lost even if a crash ensues shortly thereafter. For example, if we are recording a cash withdrawal by Bob, we do not want any chance that the debit to his account will disappear in a crash just after he walks out the bank door. A transactional database guarantees that all the updates made by a transaction are logged in permanent storage (i.e., on disk) before the transaction is reported complete.

Another important property of transactional databases is closely related to the notion of atomic updates: when multiple transactions are running concurrently, each one should not be able to see the incomplete changes made by others. For example, if one transaction is busy totalling all the branch balances, it would not do for it to include the debit from Alice's branch but not the credit to Bob's branch, nor vice versa. So transactions must be all-or-nothing not only in terms of their permanent effect on the database, but also in terms of their visibility as they happen. The updates made so far by an open transaction are invisible to other transactions until the transaction completes, whereupon all the updates become visible simultaneously.

In PostgreSQL, a transaction is set up by surrounding the SQL commands of the transaction with `BEGIN` and `COMMIT` commands. So our banking transaction would actually look like

```
BEGIN;
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance - 100.00
    WHERE name = 'Alice';
-- etc etc
COMMIT;
```

If, partway through the transaction, we decide we do not want to commit (perhaps we just noticed that Alice's balance went negative), we can issue the command `ROLLBACK` instead of `COMMIT`, and all our updates so far will be canceled.

PostgreSQL actually treats every SQL statement as being executed within a transaction. If you do not issue a `BEGIN` command, then each individual statement has an implicit `BEGIN` and (if successful) `COMMIT` wrapped around it. A group of statements surrounded by `BEGIN` and `COMMIT` is sometimes called a *transaction block*.

Note: Some client libraries issue `BEGIN` and `COMMIT` commands automatically, so that you may get the effect of transaction blocks without asking. Check the documentation for the interface you are using.

It's possible to control the statements in a transaction in a more granular fashion through the use of *savepoints*. Savepoints allow you to selectively discard parts of the transaction, while committing the rest. After defining a savepoint with `SAVEPOINT`, you can if needed roll back to the savepoint with `ROLLBACK TO`. All the transaction's database changes between defining the savepoint and rolling back to it are discarded, but changes earlier than the savepoint are kept.

After rolling back to a savepoint, it continues to be defined, so you can roll back to it several times. Conversely, if you are sure you won't need to roll back to a particular savepoint again, it can be released, so the system can free some resources. Keep in mind that either releasing or rolling back to a savepoint will automatically release all savepoints that were defined after it.

All this is happening within the transaction block, so none of it is visible to other database sessions. When and if you commit the transaction block, the committed actions become visible as a unit to other sessions, while the rolled-back actions never become visible at all.

Remembering the bank database, suppose we debit \$100.00 from Alice's account, and credit Bob's account, only to find later that we should have credited Wally's account. We could do it using savepoints like this:

```
BEGIN;
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance - 100.00
    WHERE name = 'Alice';
SAVEPOINT my_savepoint;
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100.00
    WHERE name = 'Bob';
-- oops ... forget that and use Wally's account
ROLLBACK TO my_savepoint;
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100.00
    WHERE name = 'Wally';
COMMIT;
```

This example is, of course, oversimplified, but there's a lot of control to be had over a transaction block through the use of savepoints. Moreover, `ROLLBACK TO` is the only way to regain control of a transaction block that was put in aborted state by the system due to an error, short of rolling it back completely and starting again.

3.5. Inheritance

Inheritance is a concept from object-oriented databases. It opens up interesting new possibilities of database design.

Let's create two tables: A table `cities` and a table `capitals`. Naturally, capitals are also cities, so you want some way to show the capitals implicitly when you list all cities. If you're really clever you might invent some scheme like this:

```
CREATE TABLE capitals (
    name      text,
    population real,
    altitude  int,    -- (in ft)
    state     char(2)
);

CREATE TABLE non_capitals (
    name      text,
    population real,
    altitude  int    -- (in ft)
```

```
);

CREATE VIEW cities AS
  SELECT name, population, altitude FROM capitals
  UNION
  SELECT name, population, altitude FROM non_capitals;
```

This works OK as far as querying goes, but it gets ugly when you need to update several rows, for one thing.

A better solution is this:

```
CREATE TABLE cities (
  name      text,
  population real,
  altitude  int    -- (in ft)
);

CREATE TABLE capitals (
  state     char(2)
) INHERITS (cities);
```

In this case, a row of capitals *inherits* all columns (name, population, and altitude) from its *parent*, cities. The type of the column name is `text`, a native PostgreSQL type for variable length character strings. State capitals have an extra column, `state`, that shows their state. In PostgreSQL, a table can inherit from zero or more other tables.

For example, the following query finds the names of all cities, including state capitals, that are located at an altitude over 500 ft.:

```
SELECT name, altitude
  FROM cities
 WHERE altitude > 500;
```

which returns:

```

name      | altitude
-----+-----
Las Vegas |      2174
Mariposa  |      1953
Madison   |       845
(3 rows)
```

On the other hand, the following query finds all the cities that are not state capitals and are situated at an altitude of 500 ft. or higher:

```
SELECT name, altitude
  FROM ONLY cities
 WHERE altitude > 500;

name      | altitude
```

```

-----+-----
Las Vegas |      2174
Mariposa  |      1953
(2 rows)

```

Here the `ONLY` before `cities` indicates that the query should be run over only the `cities` table, and not tables below `cities` in the inheritance hierarchy. Many of the commands that we have already discussed — `SELECT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` — support this `ONLY` notation.

Note: Although inheritance is frequently useful, it has not been integrated with unique constraints or foreign keys, which limits its usefulness. See Section 5.5 for more detail.

3.6. Conclusion

PostgreSQL has many features not touched upon in this tutorial introduction, which has been oriented toward newer users of SQL. These features are discussed in more detail in the remainder of this book.

If you feel you need more introductory material, please visit the PostgreSQL web site¹ for links to more resources.

1. <http://www.postgresql.org>

II. The SQL Language

This part describes the use of the SQL language in PostgreSQL. We start with describing the general syntax of SQL, then explain how to create the structures to hold data, how to populate the database, and how to query it. The middle part lists the available data types and functions for use in SQL commands. The rest treats several aspects that are important for tuning a database for optimal performance.

The information in this part is arranged so that a novice user can follow it start to end to gain a full understanding of the topics without having to refer forward too many times. The chapters are intended to be self-contained, so that advanced users can read the chapters individually as they choose. The information in this part is presented in a narrative fashion in topical units. Readers looking for a complete description of a particular command should look into Part VI.

Readers of this part should know how to connect to a PostgreSQL database and issue SQL commands. Readers that are unfamiliar with these issues are encouraged to read Part I first. SQL commands are typically entered using the PostgreSQL interactive terminal `psql`, but other programs that have similar functionality can be used as well.

Chapter 4. SQL Syntax

This chapter describes the syntax of SQL. It forms the foundation for understanding the following chapters which will go into detail about how the SQL commands are applied to define and modify data.

We also advise users who are already familiar with SQL to read this chapter carefully because there are several rules and concepts that are implemented inconsistently among SQL databases or that are specific to PostgreSQL.

4.1. Lexical Structure

SQL input consists of a sequence of *commands*. A command is composed of a sequence of *tokens*, terminated by a semicolon (“;”). The end of the input stream also terminates a command. Which tokens are valid depends on the syntax of the particular command.

A token can be a *key word*, an *identifier*, a *quoted identifier*, a *literal* (or constant), or a special character symbol. Tokens are normally separated by whitespace (space, tab, newline), but need not be if there is no ambiguity (which is generally only the case if a special character is adjacent to some other token type).

Additionally, *comments* can occur in SQL input. They are not tokens, they are effectively equivalent to whitespace.

For example, the following is (syntactically) valid SQL input:

```
SELECT * FROM MY_TABLE;  
UPDATE MY_TABLE SET A = 5;  
INSERT INTO MY_TABLE VALUES (3, 'hi there');
```

This is a sequence of three commands, one per line (although this is not required; more than one command can be on a line, and commands can usefully be split across lines).

The SQL syntax is not very consistent regarding what tokens identify commands and which are operands or parameters. The first few tokens are generally the command name, so in the above example we would usually speak of a “SELECT”, an “UPDATE”, and an “INSERT” command. But for instance the `UPDATE` command always requires a `SET` token to appear in a certain position, and this particular variation of `INSERT` also requires a `VALUES` in order to be complete. The precise syntax rules for each command are described in Part VI.

4.1.1. Identifiers and Key Words

Tokens such as `SELECT`, `UPDATE`, or `VALUES` in the example above are examples of *key words*, that is, words that have a fixed meaning in the SQL language. The tokens `MY_TABLE` and `A` are examples of *identifiers*. They identify names of tables, columns, or other database objects, depending on the command they are used in. Therefore they are sometimes simply called “names”. Key words and identifiers have the same lexical structure, meaning that one cannot know whether a token is an identifier or a key word without knowing the language. A complete list of key words can be found in Appendix C.

SQL identifiers and key words must begin with a letter (a-z, but also letters with diacritical marks and non-Latin letters) or an underscore (`_`). Subsequent characters in an identifier or key word can be letters, underscores, digits (0-9), or dollar signs (`$`). Note that dollar signs are not allowed in identifiers according to the letter of the SQL standard, so their use may render applications less portable. The SQL standard

will not define a key word that contains digits or starts or ends with an underscore, so identifiers of this form are safe against possible conflict with future extensions of the standard.

The system uses no more than `NAMEDATALEN-1` characters of an identifier; longer names can be written in commands, but they will be truncated. By default, `NAMEDATALEN` is 64 so the maximum identifier length is 63. If this limit is problematic, it can be raised by changing the `NAMEDATALEN` constant in `src/include/postgres_ext.h`.

Identifier and key word names are case insensitive. Therefore

```
UPDATE MY_TABLE SET A = 5;
```

can equivalently be written as

```
uPDaTE my_Table SeT a = 5;
```

A convention often used is to write key words in upper case and names in lower case, e.g.,

```
UPDATE my_table SET a = 5;
```

There is a second kind of identifier: the *delimited identifier* or *quoted identifier*. It is formed by enclosing an arbitrary sequence of characters in double-quotes (`"`). A delimited identifier is always an identifier, never a key word. So `"select"` could be used to refer to a column or table named “select”, whereas an unquoted `select` would be taken as a key word and would therefore provoke a parse error when used where a table or column name is expected. The example can be written with quoted identifiers like this:

```
UPDATE "my_table" SET "a" = 5;
```

Quoted identifiers can contain any character other than a double quote itself. (To include a double quote, write two double quotes.) This allows constructing table or column names that would otherwise not be possible, such as ones containing spaces or ampersands. The length limitation still applies.

Quoting an identifier also makes it case-sensitive, whereas unquoted names are always folded to lower case. For example, the identifiers `FOO`, `f00`, and `"f00"` are considered the same by PostgreSQL, but `"F00"` and `"FOO"` are different from these three and each other. (The folding of unquoted names to lower case in PostgreSQL is incompatible with the SQL standard, which says that unquoted names should be folded to upper case. Thus, `f00` should be equivalent to `"FOO"` not `"f00"` according to the standard. If you want to write portable applications you are advised to always quote a particular name or never quote it.)

4.1.2. Constants

There are three kinds of *implicitly-typed constants* in PostgreSQL: strings, bit strings, and numbers. Constants can also be specified with explicit types, which can enable more accurate representation and more efficient handling by the system. These alternatives are discussed in the following subsections.

4.1.2.1. String Constants

A string constant in SQL is an arbitrary sequence of characters bounded by single quotes (`'`), for example `'This is a string'`. The standard-compliant way of writing a single-quote character within a string constant is to write two adjacent single quotes, e.g. `'Dianne's horse'`. PostgreSQL also allows single quotes to be escaped with a backslash (`\`), so for example the same string could be written `'Dianne\'s horse'`.

Another PostgreSQL extension is that C-style backslash escapes are available: `\b` is a backspace, `\f` is a form feed, `\n` is a newline, `\r` is a carriage return, `\t` is a tab, and `\xxx`, where `xxx` is an octal number, is a byte with the corresponding code. (It is your responsibility that the byte sequences you create are valid characters in the server character set encoding.) Any other character following a backslash is taken literally. Thus, to include a backslash in a string constant, write two backslashes.

The character with the code zero cannot be in a string constant.

Two string constants that are only separated by whitespace *with at least one newline* are concatenated and effectively treated as if the string had been written in one constant. For example:

```
SELECT 'foo'
       'bar';
```

is equivalent to

```
SELECT 'foobar';
```

but

```
SELECT 'foo'      'bar';
```

is not valid syntax. (This slightly bizarre behavior is specified by SQL; PostgreSQL is following the standard.)

4.1.2.2. Dollar-Quoted String Constants

While the standard syntax for specifying string constants is usually convenient, it can be difficult to understand when the desired string contains many single quotes or backslashes, since each of those must be doubled. To allow more readable queries in such situations, PostgreSQL provides another way, called “dollar quoting”, to write string constants. A dollar-quoted string constant consists of a dollar sign (`$`), an optional “tag” of zero or more characters, another dollar sign, an arbitrary sequence of characters that makes up the string content, a dollar sign, the same tag that began this dollar quote, and a dollar sign. For example, here are two different ways to specify the string “Dianne’s horse” using dollar quoting:

```
$$Dianne's horse$$
$SomeTag$Dianne's horse$SomeTag$
```

Notice that inside the dollar-quoted string, single quotes can be used without needing to be escaped. Indeed, no characters inside a dollar-quoted string are ever escaped: the string content is always written literally. Backslashes are not special, and neither are dollar signs, unless they are part of a sequence matching the opening tag.

It is possible to nest dollar-quoted string constants by choosing different tags at each nesting level. This is most commonly used in writing function definitions. For example:

```

$function$
BEGIN
    RETURN ($1 ~ $q$[\t\r\n\v\\]$q$);
END;
$function$

```

Here, the sequence `q[\t\r\n\v\\]q` represents a dollar-quoted literal string `[\t\r\n\v\\]`, which will be recognized when the function body is executed by PostgreSQL. But since the sequence does not match the outer dollar quoting delimiter `$function$`, it is just some more characters within the constant so far as the outer string is concerned.

The tag, if any, of a dollar-quoted string follows the same rules as an unquoted identifier, except that it cannot contain a dollar sign. Tags are case sensitive, so `tagString contenttag` is correct, but `TAGString contenttag` is not.

A dollar-quoted string that follows a keyword or identifier must be separated from it by whitespace; otherwise the dollar quoting delimiter would be taken as part of the preceding identifier.

Dollar quoting is not part of the SQL standard, but it is often a more convenient way to write complicated string literals than the standard-compliant single quote syntax. It is particularly useful when representing string constants inside other constants, as is often needed in procedural function definitions. With single-quote syntax, each backslash in the above example would have to be written as four backslashes, which would be reduced to two backslashes in parsing the original string constant, and then to one when the inner string constant is re-parsed during function execution.

4.1.2.3. Bit-String Constants

Bit-string constants look like regular string constants with a `B` (upper or lower case) immediately before the opening quote (no intervening whitespace), e.g., `B'1001'`. The only characters allowed within bit-string constants are 0 and 1.

Alternatively, bit-string constants can be specified in hexadecimal notation, using a leading `x` (upper or lower case), e.g., `x'1FF'`. This notation is equivalent to a bit-string constant with four binary digits for each hexadecimal digit.

Both forms of bit-string constant can be continued across lines in the same way as regular string constants. Dollar quoting cannot be used in a bit-string constant.

4.1.2.4. Numeric Constants

Numeric constants are accepted in these general forms:

```

digits
digits.[digits][e[+-]digits]
[digits].digits[e[+-]digits]
digite[+-]digits

```

where *digits* is one or more decimal digits (0 through 9). At least one digit must be before or after the decimal point, if one is used. At least one digit must follow the exponent marker (e), if one is present. There may not be any spaces or other characters embedded in the constant. Note that any leading plus or minus sign is not actually considered part of the constant; it is an operator applied to the constant.

These are some examples of valid numeric constants:

```
42
3.5
4.
.001
5e2
1.925e-3
```

A numeric constant that contains neither a decimal point nor an exponent is initially presumed to be type `integer` if its value fits in type `integer` (32 bits); otherwise it is presumed to be type `bigint` if its value fits in type `bigint` (64 bits); otherwise it is taken to be type `numeric`. Constants that contain decimal points and/or exponents are always initially presumed to be type `numeric`.

The initially assigned data type of a numeric constant is just a starting point for the type resolution algorithms. In most cases the constant will be automatically coerced to the most appropriate type depending on context. When necessary, you can force a numeric value to be interpreted as a specific data type by casting it. For example, you can force a numeric value to be treated as type `real` (`float4`) by writing

```
REAL '1.23' -- string style
1.23::REAL -- PostgreSQL (historical) style
```

These are actually just special cases of the general casting notations discussed next.

4.1.2.5. Constants of Other Types

A constant of an *arbitrary* type can be entered using any one of the following notations:

```
type 'string'
'string'::type
CAST ( 'string' AS type )
```

The string constant's text is passed to the input conversion routine for the type called `type`. The result is a constant of the indicated type. The explicit type cast may be omitted if there is no ambiguity as to the type the constant must be (for example, when it is assigned directly to a table column), in which case it is automatically coerced.

The string constant can be written using either regular SQL notation or dollar-quoting.

It is also possible to specify a type coercion using a function-like syntax:

```
typename ( 'string' )
```

but not all type names may be used in this way; see Section 4.2.8 for details.

The `::`, `CAST()`, and function-call syntaxes can also be used to specify run-time type conversions of arbitrary expressions, as discussed in Section 4.2.8. But the form `type 'string'` can only be used to specify the type of a literal constant. Another restriction on `type 'string'` is that it does not work for array types; use `::` or `CAST()` to specify the type of an array constant.

4.1.3. Operators

An operator name is a sequence of up to `NAMEDATALEN-1` (63 by default) characters from the following list:

`+ - * / < > = ~ ! @ # % ^ & | ' ?`

There are a few restrictions on operator names, however:

- `--` and `/*` cannot appear anywhere in an operator name, since they will be taken as the start of a comment.
- A multiple-character operator name cannot end in `+` or `-`, unless the name also contains at least one of these characters:

`~ ! @ # % ^ & | ' ?`

For example, `@-` is an allowed operator name, but `*-` is not. This restriction allows PostgreSQL to parse SQL-compliant queries without requiring spaces between tokens.

When working with non-SQL-standard operator names, you will usually need to separate adjacent operators with spaces to avoid ambiguity. For example, if you have defined a left unary operator named `@`, you cannot write `x*@y`; you must write `x* @y` to ensure that PostgreSQL reads it as two operator names not one.

4.1.4. Special Characters

Some characters that are not alphanumeric have a special meaning that is different from being an operator. Details on the usage can be found at the location where the respective syntax element is described. This section only exists to advise the existence and summarize the purposes of these characters.

- A dollar sign (`$`) followed by digits is used to represent a positional parameter in the body of a function definition or a prepared statement. In other contexts the dollar sign may be part of an identifier or a dollar-quoted string constant.
- Parentheses (`()`) have their usual meaning to group expressions and enforce precedence. In some cases parentheses are required as part of the fixed syntax of a particular SQL command.
- Brackets (`[]`) are used to select the elements of an array. See Section 8.10 for more information on arrays.
- Commas (`,`) are used in some syntactical constructs to separate the elements of a list.
- The semicolon (`;`) terminates an SQL command. It cannot appear anywhere within a command, except within a string constant or quoted identifier.
- The colon (`:`) is used to select “slices” from arrays. (See Section 8.10.) In certain SQL dialects (such as Embedded SQL), the colon is used to prefix variable names.
- The asterisk (`*`) is used in some contexts to denote all the fields of a table row or composite value. It also has a special meaning when used as the argument of the `COUNT` aggregate function.

- The period (.) is used in numeric constants, and to separate schema, table, and column names.

4.1.5. Comments

A comment is an arbitrary sequence of characters beginning with double dashes and extending to the end of the line, e.g.:

```
-- This is a standard SQL comment
```

Alternatively, C-style block comments can be used:

```
/* multiline comment
 * with nesting: /* nested block comment */
 */
```

where the comment begins with `/*` and extends to the matching occurrence of `*/`. These block comments nest, as specified in the SQL standard but unlike C, so that one can comment out larger blocks of code that may contain existing block comments.

A comment is removed from the input stream before further syntax analysis and is effectively replaced by whitespace.

4.1.6. Lexical Precedence

Table 4-1 shows the precedence and associativity of the operators in PostgreSQL. Most operators have the same precedence and are left-associative. The precedence and associativity of the operators is hard-wired into the parser. This may lead to non-intuitive behavior; for example the Boolean operators `<` and `>` have a different precedence than the Boolean operators `<=` and `>=`. Also, you will sometimes need to add parentheses when using combinations of binary and unary operators. For instance

```
SELECT 5 ! - 6;
```

will be parsed as

```
SELECT 5 ! (- 6);
```

because the parser has no idea — until it is too late — that `!` is defined as a postfix operator, not an infix one. To get the desired behavior in this case, you must write

```
SELECT (5 !) - 6;
```

This is the price one pays for extensibility.

Table 4-1. Operator Precedence (decreasing)

Operator/Element	Associativity	Description
.	left	table/column name separator

Operator/Element	Associativity	Description
::	left	PostgreSQL-style typecast
[]	left	array element selection
-	right	unary minus
^	left	exponentiation
* / %	left	multiplication, division, modulo
+ -	left	addition, subtraction
IS		IS TRUE, IS FALSE, IS UNKNOWN, IS NULL
ISNULL		test for null
NOTNULL		test for not null
(any other)	left	all other native and user-defined operators
IN		set membership
BETWEEN		range containment
OVERLAPS		time interval overlap
LIKE ILIKE SIMILAR		string pattern matching
< >		less than, greater than
=	right	equality, assignment
NOT	right	logical negation
AND	left	logical conjunction
OR	left	logical disjunction

Note that the operator precedence rules also apply to user-defined operators that have the same names as the built-in operators mentioned above. For example, if you define a “+” operator for some custom data type it will have the same precedence as the built-in “+” operator, no matter what yours does.

When a schema-qualified operator name is used in the `OPERATOR` syntax, as for example in

```
SELECT 3 OPERATOR(pg_catalog.+) 4;
```

the `OPERATOR` construct is taken to have the default precedence shown in Table 4-1 for “any other” operator. This is true no matter which specific operator name appears inside `OPERATOR()`.

4.2. Value Expressions

Value expressions are used in a variety of contexts, such as in the target list of the `SELECT` command, as new column values in `INSERT` or `UPDATE`, or in search conditions in a number of commands. The result of a value expression is sometimes called a *scalar*, to distinguish it from the result of a table expression (which is a table). Value expressions are therefore also called *scalar expressions* (or even simply *expressions*). The expression syntax allows the calculation of values from primitive parts using arithmetic, logical, set, and other operations.

A value expression is one of the following:

- A constant or literal value.
- A column reference.
- A positional parameter reference, in the body of a function definition or prepared statement.
- A subscripted expression.
- A field selection expression.
- An operator invocation.
- A function call.
- An aggregate expression.
- A type cast.
- A scalar subquery.
- An array constructor.
- A row constructor.
- Another value expression in parentheses, useful to group subexpressions and override precedence.

In addition to this list, there are a number of constructs that can be classified as an expression but do not follow any general syntax rules. These generally have the semantics of a function or operator and are explained in the appropriate location in Chapter 9. An example is the `IS NULL` clause.

We have already discussed constants in Section 4.1.2. The following sections discuss the remaining options.

4.2.1. Column References

A column can be referenced in the form

correlation.columnname

correlation is the name of a table (possibly qualified with a schema name), or an alias for a table defined by means of a `FROM` clause, or one of the key words `NEW` or `OLD`. (`NEW` and `OLD` can only appear in rewrite rules, while other correlation names can be used in any SQL statement.) The correlation name and separating dot may be omitted if the column name is unique across all the tables being used in the current query. (See also Chapter 7.)

4.2.2. Positional Parameters

A positional parameter reference is used to indicate a value that is supplied externally to an SQL statement. Parameters are used in SQL function definitions and in prepared queries. Some client libraries also support specifying data values separately from the SQL command string, in which case parameters are used to refer to the out-of-line data values. The form of a parameter reference is:

\$number

For example, consider the definition of a function, `dept`, as

```
CREATE FUNCTION dept(text) RETURNS dept
  AS $$ SELECT * FROM dept WHERE name = $1 $$
LANGUAGE SQL;
```

Here the `$1` will be replaced by the first function argument when the function is invoked.

4.2.3. Subscripts

If an expression yields a value of an array type, then a specific element of the array value can be extracted by writing

```
expression[subscript]
```

or multiple adjacent elements (an “array slice”) can be extracted by writing

```
expression[lower_subscript:upper_subscript]
```

(Here, the brackets `[]` are meant to appear literally.) Each *subscript* is itself an expression, which must yield an integer value.

In general the array *expression* must be parenthesized, but the parentheses may be omitted when the expression to be subscripted is just a column reference or positional parameter. Also, multiple subscripts can be concatenated when the original array is multi-dimensional. For example,

```
mytable.arraycolumn[4]
mytable.two_d_column[17][34]
$1[10:42]
(arrayfunction(a,b))[42]
```

The parentheses in the last example are required. See Section 8.10 for more about arrays.

4.2.4. Field Selection

If an expression yields a value of a composite type (row type), then a specific field of the row can be extracted by writing

```
expression.fieldname
```

In general the row *expression* must be parenthesized, but the parentheses may be omitted when the expression to be selected from is just a table reference or positional parameter. For example,

```
mytable.mycolumn
$1.somecolumn
(rowfunction(a,b)).col3
```

(Thus, a qualified column reference is actually just a special case of the field selection syntax.)

4.2.5. Operator Invocations

There are three possible syntaxes for an operator invocation:

```
expression operator expression (binary infix operator)
operator expression (unary prefix operator)
expression operator (unary postfix operator)
```

where the *operator* token follows the syntax rules of Section 4.1.3, or is one of the key words AND, OR, and NOT, or is a qualified operator name in the form

```
OPERATOR(schema.operatorname)
```

Which particular operators exist and whether they are unary or binary depends on what operators have been defined by the system or the user. Chapter 9 describes the built-in operators.

4.2.6. Function Calls

The syntax for a function call is the name of a function (possibly qualified with a schema name), followed by its argument list enclosed in parentheses:

```
function ([expression [, expression ... ] ] )
```

For example, the following computes the square root of 2:

```
sqrt(2)
```

The list of built-in functions is in Chapter 9. Other functions may be added by the user.

4.2.7. Aggregate Expressions

An *aggregate expression* represents the application of an aggregate function across the rows selected by a query. An aggregate function reduces multiple inputs to a single output value, such as the sum or average of the inputs. The syntax of an aggregate expression is one of the following:

```
aggregate_name (expression)
aggregate_name (ALL expression)
aggregate_name (DISTINCT expression)
aggregate_name ( * )
```

where *aggregate_name* is a previously defined aggregate (possibly qualified with a schema name), and *expression* is any value expression that does not itself contain an aggregate expression.

The first form of aggregate expression invokes the aggregate across all input rows for which the given expression yields a non-null value. (Actually, it is up to the aggregate function whether to ignore null values or not — but all the standard ones do.) The second form is the same as the first, since ALL is the default. The third form invokes the aggregate for all distinct non-null values of the expression found in the input rows. The last form invokes the aggregate once for each input row regardless of null or non-null

values; since no particular input value is specified, it is generally only useful for the `count()` aggregate function.

For example, `count(*)` yields the total number of input rows; `count(f1)` yields the number of input rows in which `f1` is non-null; `count(distinct f1)` yields the number of distinct non-null values of `f1`.

The predefined aggregate functions are described in Section 9.15. Other aggregate functions may be added by the user.

An aggregate expression may only appear in the result list or `HAVING` clause of a `SELECT` command. It is forbidden in other clauses, such as `WHERE`, because those clauses are logically evaluated before the results of aggregates are formed.

When an aggregate expression appears in a subquery (see Section 4.2.9 and Section 9.16), the aggregate is normally evaluated over the rows of the subquery. But an exception occurs if the aggregate's argument contains only outer-level variables: the aggregate then belongs to the nearest such outer level, and is evaluated over the rows of that query. The aggregate expression as a whole is then an outer reference for the subquery it appears in, and acts as a constant over any one evaluation of that subquery. The restriction about appearing only in the result list or `HAVING` clause applies with respect to the query level that the aggregate belongs to.

4.2.8. Type Casts

A type cast specifies a conversion from one data type to another. PostgreSQL accepts two equivalent syntaxes for type casts:

```
CAST ( expression AS type )
expression::type
```

The `CAST` syntax conforms to SQL; the syntax with `::` is historical PostgreSQL usage.

When a cast is applied to a value expression of a known type, it represents a run-time type conversion. The cast will succeed only if a suitable type conversion operation has been defined. Notice that this is subtly different from the use of casts with constants, as shown in Section 4.1.2.5. A cast applied to an unadorned string literal represents the initial assignment of a type to a literal constant value, and so it will succeed for any type (if the contents of the string literal are acceptable input syntax for the data type).

An explicit type cast may usually be omitted if there is no ambiguity as to the type that a value expression must produce (for example, when it is assigned to a table column); the system will automatically apply a type cast in such cases. However, automatic casting is only done for casts that are marked “OK to apply implicitly” in the system catalogs. Other casts must be invoked with explicit casting syntax. This restriction is intended to prevent surprising conversions from being applied silently.

It is also possible to specify a type cast using a function-like syntax:

```
typename ( expression )
```

However, this only works for types whose names are also valid as function names. For example, `double precision` can't be used this way, but the equivalent `float8` can. Also, the names `interval`, `time`, and `timestamp` can only be used in this fashion if they are double-quoted, because of syntactic conflicts. Therefore, the use of the function-like cast syntax leads to inconsistencies and should probably be avoided in new applications. (The function-like syntax is in fact just a function call. When one of the two standard

cast syntaxes is used to do a run-time conversion, it will internally invoke a registered function to perform the conversion. By convention, these conversion functions have the same name as their output type, and thus the “function-like syntax” is nothing more than a direct invocation of the underlying conversion function. Obviously, this is not something that a portable application should rely on.)

4.2.9. Scalar Subqueries

A scalar subquery is an ordinary `SELECT` query in parentheses that returns exactly one row with one column. (See Chapter 7 for information about writing queries.) The `SELECT` query is executed and the single returned value is used in the surrounding value expression. It is an error to use a query that returns more than one row or more than one column as a scalar subquery. (But if, during a particular execution, the subquery returns no rows, there is no error; the scalar result is taken to be null.) The subquery can refer to variables from the surrounding query, which will act as constants during any one evaluation of the subquery. See also Section 9.16 for other expressions involving subqueries.

For example, the following finds the largest city population in each state:

```
SELECT name, (SELECT max(pop) FROM cities WHERE cities.state = states.name)
      FROM states;
```

4.2.10. Array Constructors

An array constructor is an expression that builds an array value from values for its member elements. A simple array constructor consists of the key word `ARRAY`, a left square bracket `[`, one or more expressions (separated by commas) for the array element values, and finally a right square bracket `]`. For example,

```
SELECT ARRAY[1,2,3+4];
      array
-----
      {1,2,7}
(1 row)
```

The array element type is the common type of the member expressions, determined using the same rules as for `UNION` or `CASE` constructs (see Section 10.5).

Multidimensional array values can be built by nesting array constructors. In the inner constructors, the key word `ARRAY` may be omitted. For example, these produce the same result:

```
SELECT ARRAY[ARRAY[1,2], ARRAY[3,4]];
      array
-----
      {{1,2},{3,4}}
(1 row)

SELECT ARRAY[[1,2],[3,4]];
      array
-----
      {{1,2},{3,4}}
(1 row)
```

Since multidimensional arrays must be rectangular, inner constructors at the same level must produce sub-arrays of identical dimensions.

Multidimensional array constructor elements can be anything yielding an array of the proper kind, not only a sub-ARRAY construct. For example:

```
CREATE TABLE arr(f1 int[], f2 int[]);

INSERT INTO arr VALUES (ARRAY[[1,2],[3,4]], ARRAY[[5,6],[7,8]]);

SELECT ARRAY[f1, f2, '{{9,10},{11,12}}'::int[]] FROM arr;
          array
-----
{{{1,2},{3,4}},{5,6},{7,8}},{9,10},{11,12}}
(1 row)
```

It is also possible to construct an array from the results of a subquery. In this form, the array constructor is written with the key word ARRAY followed by a parenthesized (not bracketed) subquery. For example:

```
SELECT ARRAY(SELECT oid FROM pg_proc WHERE proname LIKE 'bytea%');
          ?column?
-----
{2011,1954,1948,1952,1951,1244,1950,2005,1949,1953,2006,31}
(1 row)
```

The subquery must return a single column. The resulting one-dimensional array will have an element for each row in the subquery result, with an element type matching that of the subquery's output column.

The subscripts of an array value built with ARRAY always begin with one. For more information about arrays, see Section 8.10.

4.2.11. Row Constructors

A row constructor is an expression that builds a row value (also called a composite value) from values for its member fields. A row constructor consists of the key word ROW, a left parenthesis, zero or more expressions (separated by commas) for the row field values, and finally a right parenthesis. For example,

```
SELECT ROW(1,2.5,'this is a test');
```

The key word ROW is optional when there is more than one expression in the list.

By default, the value created by a ROW expression is of an anonymous record type. If necessary, it can be cast to a named composite type — either the row type of a table, or a composite type created with CREATE TYPE AS. An explicit cast may be needed to avoid ambiguity. For example:

```
CREATE TABLE mytable(f1 int, f2 float, f3 text);

CREATE FUNCTION getf1(mytable) RETURNS int AS 'SELECT $1.f1' LANGUAGE SQL;

-- No cast needed since only one getf1() exists
SELECT getf1(ROW(1,2.5,'this is a test'));
```

```

    getf1
    -----
           1
    (1 row)

CREATE TYPE myrowtype AS (f1 int, f2 text, f3 numeric);

CREATE FUNCTION getf1(myrowtype) RETURNS int AS 'SELECT $1.f1' LANGUAGE SQL;

-- Now we need a cast to indicate which function to call:
SELECT getf1(ROW(1,2.5,'this is a test'));
ERROR:  function getf1(record) is not unique

SELECT getf1(ROW(1,2.5,'this is a test')::mytable);
    getf1
    -----
           1
    (1 row)

SELECT getf1(CAST(ROW(11,'this is a test',2.5) AS myrowtype));
    getf1
    -----
          11
    (1 row)

```

Row constructors can be used to build composite values to be stored in a composite-type table column, or to be passed to a function that accepts a composite parameter. Also, it is possible to compare two row values or test a row with `IS NULL` or `IS NOT NULL`, for example

```

SELECT ROW(1,2.5,'this is a test') = ROW(1, 3, 'not the same');

SELECT ROW(a, b, c) IS NOT NULL FROM table;

```

For more detail see Section 9.17. Row constructors can also be used in connection with subqueries, as discussed in Section 9.16.

4.2.12. Expression Evaluation Rules

The order of evaluation of subexpressions is not defined. In particular, the inputs of an operator or function are not necessarily evaluated left-to-right or in any other fixed order.

Furthermore, if the result of an expression can be determined by evaluating only some parts of it, then other subexpressions might not be evaluated at all. For instance, if one wrote

```
SELECT true OR somefunc();
```

then `somefunc()` would (probably) not be called at all. The same would be the case if one wrote

```
SELECT somefunc() OR true;
```

Note that this is not the same as the left-to-right “short-circuiting” of Boolean operators that is found in some programming languages.

As a consequence, it is unwise to use functions with side effects as part of complex expressions. It is particularly dangerous to rely on side effects or evaluation order in `WHERE` and `HAVING` clauses, since those clauses are extensively reprocessed as part of developing an execution plan. Boolean expressions (`AND/OR/NOT` combinations) in those clauses may be reorganized in any manner allowed by the laws of Boolean algebra.

When it is essential to force evaluation order, a `CASE` construct (see Section 9.13) may be used. For example, this is an untrustworthy way of trying to avoid division by zero in a `WHERE` clause:

```
SELECT ... WHERE x <> 0 AND y/x > 1.5;
```

But this is safe:

```
SELECT ... WHERE CASE WHEN x <> 0 THEN y/x > 1.5 ELSE false END;
```

A `CASE` construct used in this fashion will defeat optimization attempts, so it should only be done when necessary. (In this particular example, it would doubtless be best to sidestep the problem by writing `y > 1.5*x` instead.)

Chapter 5. Data Definition

This chapter covers how one creates the database structures that will hold one's data. In a relational database, the raw data is stored in tables, so the majority of this chapter is devoted to explaining how tables are created and modified and what features are available to control what data is stored in the tables. Subsequently, we discuss how tables can be organized into schemas, and how privileges can be assigned to tables. Finally, we will briefly look at other features that affect the data storage, such as views, functions, and triggers.

5.1. Table Basics

A table in a relational database is much like a table on paper: It consists of rows and columns. The number and order of the columns is fixed, and each column has a name. The number of rows is variable -- it reflects how much data is stored at a given moment. SQL does not make any guarantees about the order of the rows in a table. When a table is read, the rows will appear in random order, unless sorting is explicitly requested. This is covered in Chapter 7. Furthermore, SQL does not assign unique identifiers to rows, so it is possible to have several completely identical rows in a table. This is a consequence of the mathematical model that underlies SQL but is usually not desirable. Later in this chapter we will see how to deal with this issue.

Each column has a data type. The data type constrains the set of possible values that can be assigned to a column and assigns semantics to the data stored in the column so that it can be used for computations. For instance, a column declared to be of a numerical type will not accept arbitrary text strings, and the data stored in such a column can be used for mathematical computations. By contrast, a column declared to be of a character string type will accept almost any kind of data but it does not lend itself to mathematical calculations, although other operations such as string concatenation are available.

PostgreSQL includes a sizable set of built-in data types that fit many applications. Users can also define their own data types. Most built-in data types have obvious names and semantics, so we defer a detailed explanation to Chapter 8. Some of the frequently used data types are `integer` for whole numbers, `numeric` for possibly fractional numbers, `text` for character strings, `date` for dates, `time` for time-of-day values, and `timestamp` for values containing both date and time.

To create a table, you use the aptly named `CREATE TABLE` command. In this command you specify at least a name for the new table, the names of the columns and the data type of each column. For example:

```
CREATE TABLE my_first_table (  
    first_column text,  
    second_column integer  
);
```

This creates a table named `my_first_table` with two columns. The first column is named `first_column` and has a data type of `text`; the second column has the name `second_column` and the type `integer`. The table and column names follow the identifier syntax explained in Section 4.1.1. The type names are usually also identifiers, but there are some exceptions. Note that the column list is comma-separated and surrounded by parentheses.

Of course, the previous example was heavily contrived. Normally, you would give names to your tables and columns that convey what kind of data they store. So let's look at a more realistic example:

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer,
    name text,
    price numeric
);
```

(The `numeric` type can store fractional components, as would be typical of monetary amounts.)

Tip: When you create many interrelated tables it is wise to choose a consistent naming pattern for the tables and columns. For instance, there is a choice of using singular or plural nouns for table names, both of which are favored by some theorist or other.

There is a limit on how many columns a table can contain. Depending on the column types, it is between 250 and 1600. However, defining a table with anywhere near this many columns is highly unusual and often a questionable design.

If you no longer need a table, you can remove it using the `DROP TABLE` command. For example:

```
DROP TABLE my_first_table;
DROP TABLE products;
```

Attempting to drop a table that does not exist is an error. Nevertheless, it is common in SQL script files to unconditionally try to drop each table before creating it, ignoring the error messages.

If you need to modify a table that already exists look into Section 5.6 later in this chapter.

With the tools discussed so far you can create fully functional tables. The remainder of this chapter is concerned with adding features to the table definition to ensure data integrity, security, or convenience. If you are eager to fill your tables with data now you can skip ahead to Chapter 6 and read the rest of this chapter later.

5.2. Default Values

A column can be assigned a default value. When a new row is created and no values are specified for some of the columns, the columns will be filled with their respective default values. A data manipulation command can also request explicitly that a column be set to its default value, without having to know what that value is. (Details about data manipulation commands are in Chapter 6.)

If no default value is declared explicitly, the default value is the null value. This usually makes sense because a null value can be considered to represent unknown data.

In a table definition, default values are listed after the column data type. For example:

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer,
    name text,
    price numeric DEFAULT 9.99
);
```

The default value may be an expression, which will be evaluated whenever the default value is inserted (*not* when the table is created). A common example is that a timestamp column may have a default of `now()`, so that it gets set to the time of row insertion. Another common example is generating a “serial number” for each row. In PostgreSQL this is typically done by something like

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer DEFAULT nextval('products_product_no_seq'),
    ...
);
```

where the `nextval()` function supplies successive values from a *sequence object* (see Section 9.12). This arrangement is sufficiently common that there’s a special shorthand for it:

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no SERIAL,
    ...
);
```

The `SERIAL` shorthand is discussed further in Section 8.1.4.

5.3. Constraints

Data types are a way to limit the kind of data that can be stored in a table. For many applications, however, the constraint they provide is too coarse. For example, a column containing a product price should probably only accept positive values. But there is no data type that accepts only positive numbers. Another issue is that you might want to constrain column data with respect to other columns or rows. For example, in a table containing product information, there should only be one row for each product number.

To that end, SQL allows you to define constraints on columns and tables. Constraints give you as much control over the data in your tables as you wish. If a user attempts to store data in a column that would violate a constraint, an error is raised. This applies even if the value came from the default value definition.

5.3.1. Check Constraints

A check constraint is the most generic constraint type. It allows you to specify that the value in a certain column must satisfy a Boolean (truth-value) expression. For instance, to require positive product prices, you could use:

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer,
    name text,
    price numeric CHECK (price > 0)
);
```

As you see, the constraint definition comes after the data type, just like default value definitions. Default values and constraints can be listed in any order. A check constraint consists of the key word `CHECK` followed by an expression in parentheses. The check constraint expression should involve the column thus constrained, otherwise the constraint would not make too much sense.

You can also give the constraint a separate name. This clarifies error messages and allows you to refer to the constraint when you need to change it. The syntax is:

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer,
    name text,
    price numeric CONSTRAINT positive_price CHECK (price > 0)
);
```

So, to specify a named constraint, use the key word `CONSTRAINT` followed by an identifier followed by the constraint definition. (If you don't specify a constraint name in this way, the system chooses a name for you.)

A check constraint can also refer to several columns. Say you store a regular price and a discounted price, and you want to ensure that the discounted price is lower than the regular price.

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer,
    name text,
    price numeric CHECK (price > 0),
    discounted_price numeric CHECK (discounted_price > 0),
    CHECK (price > discounted_price)
);
```

The first two constraints should look familiar. The third one uses a new syntax. It is not attached to a particular column, instead it appears as a separate item in the comma-separated column list. Column definitions and these constraint definitions can be listed in mixed order.

We say that the first two constraints are column constraints, whereas the third one is a table constraint because it is written separately from any one column definition. Column constraints can also be written as table constraints, while the reverse is not necessarily possible, since a column constraint is supposed to refer to only the column it is attached to. (PostgreSQL doesn't enforce that rule, but you should follow it if you want your table definitions to work with other database systems.) The above example could also be written as

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer,
    name text,
    price numeric,
    CHECK (price > 0),
    discounted_price numeric,
    CHECK (discounted_price > 0),
    CHECK (price > discounted_price)
);
```

or even

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer,
    name text,
    price numeric CHECK (price > 0),
    discounted_price numeric,
```

```

        CHECK (discounted_price > 0 AND price > discounted_price)
    );

```

It's a matter of taste.

Names can be assigned to table constraints in just the same way as for column constraints:

```

CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer,
    name text,
    price numeric,
    CHECK (price > 0),
    discounted_price numeric,
    CHECK (discounted_price > 0),
    CONSTRAINT valid_discount CHECK (price > discounted_price)
);

```

It should be noted that a check constraint is satisfied if the check expression evaluates to true or the null value. Since most expressions will evaluate to the null value if any operand is null, they will not prevent null values in the constrained columns. To ensure that a column does not contain null values, the not-null constraint described in the next section can be used.

5.3.2. Not-Null Constraints

A not-null constraint simply specifies that a column must not assume the null value. A syntax example:

```

CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer NOT NULL,
    name text NOT NULL,
    price numeric
);

```

A not-null constraint is always written as a column constraint. A not-null constraint is functionally equivalent to creating a check constraint `CHECK (column_name IS NOT NULL)`, but in PostgreSQL creating an explicit not-null constraint is more efficient. The drawback is that you cannot give explicit names to not-null constraints created that way.

Of course, a column can have more than one constraint. Just write the constraints one after another:

```

CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer NOT NULL,
    name text NOT NULL,
    price numeric NOT NULL CHECK (price > 0)
);

```

The order doesn't matter. It does not necessarily determine in which order the constraints are checked.

The `NOT NULL` constraint has an inverse: the `NULL` constraint. This does not mean that the column must be null, which would surely be useless. Instead, this simply selects the default behavior that the column may be null. The `NULL` constraint is not defined in the SQL standard and should not be used in portable

applications. (It was only added to PostgreSQL to be compatible with some other database systems.) Some users, however, like it because it makes it easy to toggle the constraint in a script file. For example, you could start with

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer NULL,
    name text NULL,
    price numeric NULL
);
```

and then insert the `NOT` key word where desired.

Tip: In most database designs the majority of columns should be marked not null.

5.3.3. Unique Constraints

Unique constraints ensure that the data contained in a column or a group of columns is unique with respect to all the rows in the table. The syntax is

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer UNIQUE,
    name text,
    price numeric
);
```

when written as a column constraint, and

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer,
    name text,
    price numeric,
    UNIQUE (product_no)
);
```

when written as a table constraint.

If a unique constraint refers to a group of columns, the columns are listed separated by commas:

```
CREATE TABLE example (
    a integer,
    b integer,
    c integer,
    UNIQUE (a, c)
);
```

This specifies that the combination of values in the indicated columns is unique across the whole table, though any one of the columns need not be (and ordinarily isn't) unique.

You can assign your own name for a unique constraint, in the usual way:

```
CREATE TABLE products (
```

```

    product_no integer CONSTRAINT must_be_different UNIQUE,
    name text,
    price numeric
);

```

In general, a unique constraint is violated when there are two or more rows in the table where the values of all of the columns included in the constraint are equal. However, null values are not considered equal in this comparison. That means even in the presence of a unique constraint it is possible to store an unlimited number of rows that contain a null value in at least one of the constrained columns. This behavior conforms to the SQL standard, but we have heard that other SQL databases may not follow this rule. So be careful when developing applications that are intended to be portable.

5.3.4. Primary Keys

Technically, a primary key constraint is simply a combination of a unique constraint and a not-null constraint. So, the following two table definitions accept the same data:

```

CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer UNIQUE NOT NULL,
    name text,
    price numeric
);

CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer PRIMARY KEY,
    name text,
    price numeric
);

```

Primary keys can also constrain more than one column; the syntax is similar to unique constraints:

```

CREATE TABLE example (
    a integer,
    b integer,
    c integer,
    PRIMARY KEY (a, c)
);

```

A primary key indicates that a column or group of columns can be used as a unique identifier for rows in the table. (This is a direct consequence of the definition of a primary key. Note that a unique constraint does not, by itself, provide a unique identifier because it does not exclude null values.) This is useful both for documentation purposes and for client applications. For example, a GUI application that allows modifying row values probably needs to know the primary key of a table to be able to identify rows uniquely.

A table can have at most one primary key (while it can have many unique and not-null constraints). Relational database theory dictates that every table must have a primary key. This rule is not enforced by PostgreSQL, but it is usually best to follow it.

5.3.5. Foreign Keys

A foreign key constraint specifies that the values in a column (or a group of columns) must match the values appearing in some row of another table. We say this maintains the *referential integrity* between two related tables.

Say you have the product table that we have used several times already:

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer PRIMARY KEY,
    name text,
    price numeric
);
```

Let's also assume you have a table storing orders of those products. We want to ensure that the orders table only contains orders of products that actually exist. So we define a foreign key constraint in the orders table that references the products table:

```
CREATE TABLE orders (
    order_id integer PRIMARY KEY,
    product_no integer REFERENCES products (product_no),
    quantity integer
);
```

Now it is impossible to create orders with `product_no` entries that do not appear in the products table.

We say that in this situation the orders table is the *referencing* table and the products table is the *referenced* table. Similarly, there are referencing and referenced columns.

You can also shorten the above command to

```
CREATE TABLE orders (
    order_id integer PRIMARY KEY,
    product_no integer REFERENCES products,
    quantity integer
);
```

because in absence of a column list the primary key of the referenced table is used as the referenced column(s).

A foreign key can also constrain and reference a group of columns. As usual, it then needs to be written in table constraint form. Here is a contrived syntax example:

```
CREATE TABLE t1 (
    a integer PRIMARY KEY,
    b integer,
    c integer,
    FOREIGN KEY (b, c) REFERENCES other_table (c1, c2)
);
```

Of course, the number and type of the constrained columns need to match the number and type of the referenced columns.

You can assign your own name for a foreign key constraint, in the usual way.

A table can contain more than one foreign key constraint. This is used to implement many-to-many relationships between tables. Say you have tables about products and orders, but now you want to allow one order to contain possibly many products (which the structure above did not allow). You could use this table structure:

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer PRIMARY KEY,
    name text,
    price numeric
);

CREATE TABLE orders (
    order_id integer PRIMARY KEY,
    shipping_address text,
    ...
);

CREATE TABLE order_items (
    product_no integer REFERENCES products,
    order_id integer REFERENCES orders,
    quantity integer,
    PRIMARY KEY (product_no, order_id)
);
```

Notice that the primary key overlaps with the foreign keys in the last table.

We know that the foreign keys disallow creation of orders that do not relate to any products. But what if a product is removed after an order is created that references it? SQL allows you to handle that as well. Intuitively, we have a few options:

- Disallow deleting a referenced product
- Delete the orders as well
- Something else?

To illustrate this, let's implement the following policy on the many-to-many relationship example above: when someone wants to remove a product that is still referenced by an order (via `order_items`), we disallow it. If someone removes an order, the order items are removed as well.

```
CREATE TABLE products (
    product_no integer PRIMARY KEY,
    name text,
    price numeric
);

CREATE TABLE orders (
    order_id integer PRIMARY KEY,
    shipping_address text,
```

```

    ...
);

CREATE TABLE order_items (
    product_no integer REFERENCES products ON DELETE RESTRICT,
    order_id integer REFERENCES orders ON DELETE CASCADE,
    quantity integer,
    PRIMARY KEY (product_no, order_id)
);

```

Restricting and cascading deletes are the two most common options. `RESTRICT` prevents deletion of a referenced row. `NO ACTION` means that if any referencing rows still exist when the constraint is checked, an error is raised; this is the default behavior if you do not specify anything. (The essential difference between these two choices is that `NO ACTION` allows the check to be deferred until later in the transaction, whereas `RESTRICT` does not.) `CASCADE` specifies that when a referenced row is deleted, row(s) referencing it should be automatically deleted as well. There are two other options: `SET NULL` and `SET DEFAULT`. These cause the referencing columns to be set to nulls or default values, respectively, when the referenced row is deleted. Note that these do not excuse you from observing any constraints. For example, if an action specifies `SET DEFAULT` but the default value would not satisfy the foreign key, the operation will fail.

Analogous to `ON DELETE` there is also `ON UPDATE` which is invoked when a referenced column is changed (updated). The possible actions are the same.

More information about updating and deleting data is in Chapter 6.

Finally, we should mention that a foreign key must reference columns that either are a primary key or form a unique constraint. If the foreign key references a unique constraint, there are some additional possibilities regarding how null values are matched. These are explained in the reference documentation for `CREATE TABLE`.

5.4. System Columns

Every table has several *system columns* that are implicitly defined by the system. Therefore, these names cannot be used as names of user-defined columns. (Note that these restrictions are separate from whether the name is a key word or not; quoting a name will not allow you to escape these restrictions.) You do not really need to be concerned about these columns, just know they exist.

`oid`

The object identifier (object ID) of a row. This is a serial number that is automatically added by PostgreSQL to all table rows (unless the table was created using `WITHOUT OIDS`, in which case this column is not present). This column is of type `oid` (same name as the column); see Section 8.12 for more information about the type.

`tableoid`

The OID of the table containing this row. This column is particularly handy for queries that select from inheritance hierarchies, since without it, it's difficult to tell which individual table a row came from. The `tableoid` can be joined against the `oid` column of `pg_class` to obtain the table name.

`xmin`

The identity (transaction ID) of the inserting transaction for this row version. (A row version is an individual state of a row; each update of a row creates a new row version for the same logical row.)

`cmin`

The command identifier (starting at zero) within the inserting transaction.

`xmax`

The identity (transaction ID) of the deleting transaction, or zero for an undeleted row version. It is possible for this column to be nonzero in a visible row version. That usually indicates that the deleting transaction hasn't committed yet, or that an attempted deletion was rolled back.

`cmax`

The command identifier within the deleting transaction, or zero.

`ctid`

The physical location of the row version within its table. Note that although the `ctid` can be used to locate the row version very quickly, a row's `ctid` will change each time it is updated or moved by `VACUUM FULL`. Therefore `ctid` is useless as a long-term row identifier. The OID, or even better a user-defined serial number, should be used to identify logical rows.

OIDs are 32-bit quantities and are assigned from a single cluster-wide counter. In a large or long-lived database, it is possible for the counter to wrap around. Hence, it is bad practice to assume that OIDs are unique, unless you take steps to ensure that this is the case. If you need to identify the rows in a table, using a sequence generator is strongly recommended. However, OIDs can be used as well, provided that a few additional precautions are taken:

- A unique constraint should be created on the OID column of each table for which the OID will be used to identify rows.
- OIDs should never be assumed to be unique across tables; use the combination of `tableoid` and row OID if you need a database-wide identifier.
- The tables in question should be created using `WITH OIDS` to ensure forward compatibility with future releases of PostgreSQL. It is planned that `WITHOUT OIDS` will become the default.

Transaction identifiers are also 32-bit quantities. In a long-lived database it is possible for transaction IDs to wrap around. This is not a fatal problem given appropriate maintenance procedures; see Chapter 21 for details. It is unwise, however, to depend on the uniqueness of transaction IDs over the long term (more than one billion transactions).

Command identifiers are also 32-bit quantities. This creates a hard limit of 2^{32} (4 billion) SQL commands within a single transaction. In practice this limit is not a problem — note that the limit is on number of SQL commands, not number of rows processed.

5.5. Inheritance

Let's create two tables. The capitals table contains state capitals which are also cities. Naturally, the capitals table should inherit from cities.

```
CREATE TABLE cities (
    name          text,
    population    float,
    altitude      int    -- (in ft)
);

CREATE TABLE capitals (
    state         char(2)
) INHERITS (cities);
```

In this case, a row of capitals *inherits* all attributes (name, population, and altitude) from its parent, cities. State capitals have an extra attribute, state, that shows their state. In PostgreSQL, a table can inherit from zero or more other tables, and a query can reference either all rows of a table or all rows of a table plus all of its descendants.

Note: The inheritance hierarchy is actually a directed acyclic graph.

For example, the following query finds the names of all cities, including state capitals, that are located at an altitude over 500ft:

```
SELECT name, altitude
FROM cities
WHERE altitude > 500;
```

which returns:

name	altitude
Las Vegas	2174
Mariposa	1953
Madison	845

On the other hand, the following query finds all the cities that are not state capitals and are situated at an altitude over 500ft:

```
SELECT name, altitude
FROM ONLY cities
WHERE altitude > 500;
```

name	altitude
Las Vegas	2174
Mariposa	1953

Here the “ONLY” before cities indicates that the query should be run over only cities and not tables below cities in the inheritance hierarchy. Many of the commands that we have already discussed -- SELECT, UPDATE and DELETE -- support this “ONLY” notation.

Deprecated: In previous versions of PostgreSQL, the default behavior was not to include child tables in queries. This was found to be error prone and is also in violation of the SQL:1999 standard. Under the old syntax, to get the sub-tables you append * to the table name. For example

```
SELECT * from cities*;
```

You can still explicitly specify scanning child tables by appending *, as well as explicitly specify not scanning child tables by writing “ONLY”. But beginning in version 7.1, the default behavior for an undecorated table name is to scan its child tables too, whereas before the default was not to do so. To get the old default behavior, set the configuration option `SQL_Inheritance` to off, e.g.,

```
SET SQL_Inheritance TO OFF;
```

or add a line in your `postgresql.conf` file.

In some cases you may wish to know which table a particular row originated from. There is a system column called `tableoid` in each table which can tell you the originating table:

```
SELECT c.tableoid, c.name, c.altitude
FROM cities c
WHERE c.altitude > 500;
```

which returns:

tableoid	name	altitude
139793	Las Vegas	2174
139793	Mariposa	1953
139798	Madison	845

(If you try to reproduce this example, you will probably get different numeric OIDs.) By doing a join with `pg_class` you can see the actual table names:

```
SELECT p.relname, c.name, c.altitude
FROM cities c, pg_class p
WHERE c.altitude > 500 and c.tableoid = p.oid;
```

which returns:

relname	name	altitude
cities	Las Vegas	2174
cities	Mariposa	1953
capitals	Madison	845

A table can inherit from more than one parent table, in which case it has the union of the columns defined by the parent tables (plus any columns declared specifically for the child table).

A serious limitation of the inheritance feature is that indexes (including unique constraints) and foreign key constraints only apply to single tables, not to their inheritance children. This is true on both the referencing and referenced sides of a foreign key constraint. Thus, in the terms of the above example:

- If we declared `cities.name` to be `UNIQUE` or a `PRIMARY KEY`, this would not stop the `capitals` table from having rows with names duplicating rows in `cities`. And those duplicate rows would by default show up in queries from `cities`. In fact, by default `capitals` would have no unique constraint at all, and so could contain multiple rows with the same name. You could add a unique constraint to `capitals`, but this would not prevent duplication compared to `cities`.
- Similarly, if we were to specify that `cities.name` `REFERENCES` some other table, this constraint would not automatically propagate to `capitals`. In this case you could work around it by manually adding the same `REFERENCES` constraint to `capitals`.
- Specifying that another table's column `REFERENCES cities(name)` would allow the other table to contain city names, but not capital names. There is no good workaround for this case.

These deficiencies will probably be fixed in some future release, but in the meantime considerable care is needed in deciding whether inheritance is useful for your problem.

5.6. Modifying Tables

When you create a table and you realize that you made a mistake, or the requirements of the application change, then you can drop the table and create it again. But this is not a convenient option if the table is already filled with data, or if the table is referenced by other database objects (for instance a foreign key constraint). Therefore PostgreSQL provides a family of commands to make modifications to existing tables. Note that this is conceptually distinct from altering the data contained in the table: here we are interested in altering the definition, or structure, of the table.

You can

- Add columns,
- Remove columns,
- Add constraints,
- Remove constraints,
- Change default values,
- Change column data types,
- Rename columns,
- Rename tables.

All these actions are performed using the `ALTER TABLE` command.

5.6.1. Adding a Column

To add a column, use a command like this:

```
ALTER TABLE products ADD COLUMN description text;
```

The new column is initially filled with whatever default value is given (null if you don't specify a `DEFAULT` clause).

You can also define constraints on the column at the same time, using the usual syntax:

```
ALTER TABLE products ADD COLUMN description text CHECK (description <> "");
```

In fact all the options that can be applied to a column description in `CREATE TABLE` can be used here. Keep in mind however that the default value must satisfy the given constraints, or the `ADD` will fail. Alternatively, you can add constraints later (see below) after you've filled in the new column correctly.

5.6.2. Removing a Column

To remove a column, use a command like this:

```
ALTER TABLE products DROP COLUMN description;
```

Whatever data was in the column disappears. Table constraints involving the column are dropped, too. However, if the column is referenced by a foreign key constraint of another table, PostgreSQL will not silently drop that constraint. You can authorize dropping everything that depends on the column by adding `CASCADE`:

```
ALTER TABLE products DROP COLUMN description CASCADE;
```

See Section 5.10 for a description of the general mechanism behind this.

5.6.3. Adding a Constraint

To add a constraint, the table constraint syntax is used. For example:

```
ALTER TABLE products ADD CHECK (name <> "");
ALTER TABLE products ADD CONSTRAINT some_name UNIQUE (product_no);
ALTER TABLE products ADD FOREIGN KEY (product_group_id) REFERENCES product_groups;
```

To add a not-null constraint, which cannot be written as a table constraint, use this syntax:

```
ALTER TABLE products ALTER COLUMN product_no SET NOT NULL;
```

The constraint will be checked immediately, so the table data must satisfy the constraint before it can be added.

5.6.4. Removing a Constraint

To remove a constraint you need to know its name. If you gave it a name then that's easy. Otherwise the system assigned a generated name, which you need to find out. The `psql` command `\d tablename` can be helpful here; other interfaces might also provide a way to inspect table details. Then the command is:

```
ALTER TABLE products DROP CONSTRAINT some_name;
```

(If you are dealing with a generated constraint name like \$2, don't forget that you'll need to double-quote it to make it a valid identifier.)

As with dropping a column, you need to add `CASCADE` if you want to drop a constraint that something else depends on. An example is that a foreign key constraint depends on a unique or primary key constraint on the referenced column(s).

This works the same for all constraint types except not-null constraints. To drop a not null constraint use

```
ALTER TABLE products ALTER COLUMN product_no DROP NOT NULL;
```

(Recall that not-null constraints do not have names.)

5.6.5. Changing a Column's Default Value

To set a new default for a column, use a command like this:

```
ALTER TABLE products ALTER COLUMN price SET DEFAULT 7.77;
```

Note that this doesn't affect any existing rows in the table, it just changes the default for future `INSERT` commands.

To remove any default value, use

```
ALTER TABLE products ALTER COLUMN price DROP DEFAULT;
```

This is effectively the same as setting the default to null. As a consequence, it is not an error to drop a default where one hadn't been defined, because the default is implicitly the null value.

5.6.6. Changing a Column's Data Type

To convert a column to a different data type, use a command like this:

```
ALTER TABLE products ALTER COLUMN price TYPE numeric(10,2);
```

This will succeed only if each existing entry in the column can be converted to the new type by an implicit cast. If a more complex conversion is needed, you can add a `USING` clause that specifies how to compute the new values from the old.

PostgreSQL will attempt to convert the column's default value (if any) to the new type, as well as any constraints that involve the column. But these conversions may fail, or may produce surprising results. It's often best to drop any constraints on the column before altering its type, and then add back suitably modified constraints afterwards.

5.6.7. Renaming a Column

To rename a column:

```
ALTER TABLE products RENAME COLUMN product_no TO product_number;
```

5.6.8. Renaming a Table

To rename a table:

```
ALTER TABLE products RENAME TO items;
```

5.7. Privileges

When you create a database object, you become its owner. By default, only the owner of an object can do anything with the object. In order to allow other users to use it, *privileges* must be granted. (However, users that have the superuser attribute can always access any object.)

There are several different privileges: `SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, `RULE`, `REFERENCES`, `TRIGGER`, `CREATE`, `TEMPORARY`, `EXECUTE`, and `USAGE`. The privileges applicable to a particular object vary depending on the object's type (table, function, etc). For complete information on the different types of privileges supported by PostgreSQL, refer to the `GRANT` reference page. The following sections and chapters will also show you how those privileges are used.

The right to modify or destroy an object is always the privilege of the owner only.

Note: To change the owner of a table, index, sequence, or view, use the `ALTER TABLE` command. There are corresponding `ALTER` commands for other object types.

To assign privileges, the `GRANT` command is used. For example, if `joe` is an existing user, and `accounts` is an existing table, the privilege to update the table can be granted with

```
GRANT UPDATE ON accounts TO joe;
```

To grant a privilege to a group, use this syntax:

```
GRANT SELECT ON accounts TO GROUP staff;
```

The special “user” name `PUBLIC` can be used to grant a privilege to every user on the system. Writing `ALL` in place of a specific privilege grants all privileges that are relevant for the object type.

To revoke a privilege, use the fittingly named `REVOKE` command:

```
REVOKE ALL ON accounts FROM PUBLIC;
```

The special privileges of the object owner (i.e., the right to do `DROP`, `GRANT`, `REVOKE`, etc.) are always implicit in being the owner, and cannot be granted or revoked. But the object owner can choose to revoke his own ordinary privileges, for example to make a table read-only for himself as well as others.

Ordinarily, only the object's owner (or a superuser) can grant or revoke privileges on an object. However, it is possible to grant a privilege “with grant option”, which gives the recipient the right to grant it in turn to others. If the grant option is subsequently revoked then all who received the privilege from that recipient (directly or through a chain of grants) will lose the privilege. For details see the `GRANT` and `REVOKE` reference pages.

5.8. Schemas

A PostgreSQL database cluster contains one or more named databases. Users and groups of users are shared across the entire cluster, but no other data is shared across databases. Any given client connection to the server can access only the data in a single database, the one specified in the connection request.

Note: Users of a cluster do not necessarily have the privilege to access every database in the cluster. Sharing of user names means that there cannot be different users named, say, `joe` in two databases in the same cluster; but the system can be configured to allow `joe` access to only some of the databases.

A database contains one or more named *schemas*, which in turn contain tables. Schemas also contain other kinds of named objects, including data types, functions, and operators. The same object name can be used in different schemas without conflict; for example, both `schema1` and `myschema` may contain tables named `mytable`. Unlike databases, schemas are not rigidly separated: a user may access objects in any of the schemas in the database he is connected to, if he has privileges to do so.

There are several reasons why one might want to use schemas:

- To allow many users to use one database without interfering with each other.
- To organize database objects into logical groups to make them more manageable.
- Third-party applications can be put into separate schemas so they cannot collide with the names of other objects.

Schemas are analogous to directories at the operating system level, except that schemas cannot be nested.

5.8.1. Creating a Schema

To create a schema, use the command `CREATE SCHEMA`. Give the schema a name of your choice. For example:

```
CREATE SCHEMA myschema;
```

To create or access objects in a schema, write a *qualified name* consisting of the schema name and table name separated by a dot:

```
schema.table
```

This works anywhere a table name is expected, including the table modification commands and the data access commands discussed in the following chapters. (For brevity we will speak of tables only, but the same ideas apply to other kinds of named objects, such as types and functions.)

Actually, the even more general syntax

```
database.schema.table
```

can be used too, but at present this is just for *pro forma* compliance with the SQL standard. If you write a database name, it must be the same as the database you are connected to.

To create a table in the new schema, use

```
CREATE TABLE myschema.mytable (
    ...
);
```

To drop a schema if it's empty (all objects in it have been dropped), use

```
DROP SCHEMA myschema;
```

To drop a schema including all contained objects, use

```
DROP SCHEMA myschema CASCADE;
```

See Section 5.10 for a description of the general mechanism behind this.

Often you will want to create a schema owned by someone else (since this is one of the ways to restrict the activities of your users to well-defined namespaces). The syntax for that is:

```
CREATE SCHEMA schemaname AUTHORIZATION username;
```

You can even omit the schema name, in which case the schema name will be the same as the user name. See Section 5.8.6 for how this can be useful.

Schema names beginning with `pg_` are reserved for system purposes and may not be created by users.

5.8.2. The Public Schema

In the previous sections we created tables without specifying any schema names. By default, such tables (and other objects) are automatically put into a schema named “public”. Every new database contains such a schema. Thus, the following are equivalent:

```
CREATE TABLE products ( ... );
```

and

```
CREATE TABLE public.products ( ... );
```

5.8.3. The Schema Search Path

Qualified names are tedious to write, and it's often best not to wire a particular schema name into applications anyway. Therefore tables are often referred to by *unqualified names*, which consist of just the table name. The system determines which table is meant by following a *search path*, which is a list of schemas to look in. The first matching table in the search path is taken to be the one wanted. If there is no match in the search path, an error is reported, even if matching table names exist in other schemas in the database.

The first schema named in the search path is called the current schema. Aside from being the first schema searched, it is also the schema in which new tables will be created if the `CREATE TABLE` command does not specify a schema name.

To show the current search path, use the following command:

```
SHOW search_path;
```

In the default setup this returns:

```
search_path
-----
$user,public
```

The first element specifies that a schema with the same name as the current user is to be searched. If no such schema exists, the entry is ignored. The second element refers to the public schema that we have seen already.

The first schema in the search path that exists is the default location for creating new objects. That is the reason that by default objects are created in the public schema. When objects are referenced in any other context without schema qualification (table modification, data modification, or query commands) the search path is traversed until a matching object is found. Therefore, in the default configuration, any unqualified access again can only refer to the public schema.

To put our new schema in the path, we use

```
SET search_path TO myschema,public;
```

(We omit the `$user` here because we have no immediate need for it.) And then we can access the table without schema qualification:

```
DROP TABLE mytable;
```

Also, since `myschema` is the first element in the path, new objects would by default be created in it.

We could also have written

```
SET search_path TO myschema;
```

Then we no longer have access to the public schema without explicit qualification. There is nothing special about the public schema except that it exists by default. It can be dropped, too.

See also Section 9.19 for other ways to manipulate the schema search path.

The search path works in the same way for data type names, function names, and operator names as it does for table names. Data type and function names can be qualified in exactly the same way as table names. If you need to write a qualified operator name in an expression, there is a special provision: you must write

```
OPERATOR(schema.operator)
```

This is needed to avoid syntactic ambiguity. An example is

```
SELECT 3 OPERATOR(pg_catalog.+) 4;
```

In practice one usually relies on the search path for operators, so as not to have to write anything so ugly as that.

5.8.4. Schemas and Privileges

By default, users cannot access any objects in schemas they do not own. To allow that, the owner of the schema needs to grant the `USAGE` privilege on the schema. To allow users to make use of the objects in the schema, additional privileges may need to be granted, as appropriate for the object.

A user can also be allowed to create objects in someone else's schema. To allow that, the `CREATE` privilege on the schema needs to be granted. Note that by default, everyone has `CREATE` and `USAGE` privileges on the schema `public`. This allows all users that are able to connect to a given database to create objects in its `public` schema. If you do not want to allow that, you can revoke that privilege:

```
REVOKE CREATE ON SCHEMA public FROM PUBLIC;
```

(The first “public” is the schema, the second “public” means “every user”. In the first sense it is an identifier, in the second sense it is a key word, hence the different capitalization; recall the guidelines from Section 4.1.1.)

5.8.5. The System Catalog Schema

In addition to `public` and user-created schemas, each database contains a `pg_catalog` schema, which contains the system tables and all the built-in data types, functions, and operators. `pg_catalog` is always effectively part of the search path. If it is not named explicitly in the path then it is implicitly searched *before* searching the path's schemas. This ensures that built-in names will always be findable. However, you may explicitly place `pg_catalog` at the end of your search path if you prefer to have user-defined names override built-in names.

In PostgreSQL versions before 7.3, table names beginning with `pg_` were reserved. This is no longer true: you may create such a table name if you wish, in any non-system schema. However, it's best to continue to avoid such names, to ensure that you won't suffer a conflict if some future version defines a system table named the same as your table. (With the default search path, an unqualified reference to your table name would be resolved as the system table instead.) System tables will continue to follow the convention of having names beginning with `pg_`, so that they will not conflict with unqualified user-table names so long as users avoid the `pg_` prefix.

5.8.6. Usage Patterns

Schemas can be used to organize your data in many ways. There are a few usage patterns that are recommended and are easily supported by the default configuration:

- If you do not create any schemas then all users access the `public` schema implicitly. This simulates the situation where schemas are not available at all. This setup is mainly recommended when there is only a single user or a few cooperating users in a database. This setup also allows smooth transition from the non-schema-aware world.
- You can create a schema for each user with the same name as that user. Recall that the default search path starts with `$user`, which resolves to the user name. Therefore, if each user has a separate schema, they access their own schemas by default.

If you use this setup then you might also want to revoke access to the `public` schema (or drop it altogether), so users are truly constrained to their own schemas.

- To install shared applications (tables to be used by everyone, additional functions provided by third parties, etc.), put them into separate schemas. Remember to grant appropriate privileges to allow the other users to access them. Users can then refer to these additional objects by qualifying the names with a schema name, or they can put the additional schemas into their search path, as they choose.

5.8.7. Portability

In the SQL standard, the notion of objects in the same schema being owned by different users does not exist. Moreover, some implementations do not allow you to create schemas that have a different name than their owner. In fact, the concepts of schema and user are nearly equivalent in a database system that implements only the basic schema support specified in the standard. Therefore, many users consider qualified names to really consist of *username.tablename*. This is how PostgreSQL will effectively behave if you create a per-user schema for every user.

Also, there is no concept of a `public` schema in the SQL standard. For maximum conformance to the standard, you should not use (perhaps even remove) the `public` schema.

Of course, some SQL database systems might not implement schemas at all, or provide namespace support by allowing (possibly limited) cross-database access. If you need to work with those systems, then maximum portability would be achieved by not using schemas at all.

5.9. Other Database Objects

Tables are the central objects in a relational database structure, because they hold your data. But they are not the only objects that exist in a database. Many other kinds of objects can be created to make the use and management of the data more efficient or convenient. They are not discussed in this chapter, but we give you a list here so that you are aware of what is possible.

- Views
- Functions and operators
- Data types and domains
- Triggers and rewrite rules

Detailed information on these topics appears in Part V.

5.10. Dependency Tracking

When you create complex database structures involving many tables with foreign key constraints, views, triggers, functions, etc. you will implicitly create a net of dependencies between the objects. For instance, a table with a foreign key constraint depends on the table it references.

To ensure the integrity of the entire database structure, PostgreSQL makes sure that you cannot drop objects that other objects still depend on. For example, attempting to drop the `products` table we had

considered in Section 5.3.5, with the orders table depending on it, would result in an error message such as this:

```
DROP TABLE products;
```

```
NOTICE: constraint orders_product_no_fkey on table orders depends on table products
ERROR: cannot drop table products because other objects depend on it
HINT: Use DROP ... CASCADE to drop the dependent objects too.
```

The error message contains a useful hint: if you do not want to bother deleting all the dependent objects individually, you can run

```
DROP TABLE products CASCADE;
```

and all the dependent objects will be removed. In this case, it doesn't remove the orders table, it only removes the foreign key constraint. (If you want to check what `DROP ... CASCADE` will do, run `DROP` without `CASCADE` and read the `NOTICE` messages.)

All drop commands in PostgreSQL support specifying `CASCADE`. Of course, the nature of the possible dependencies varies with the type of the object. You can also write `RESTRICT` instead of `CASCADE` to get the default behavior, which is to prevent drops of objects that other objects depend on.

Note: According to the SQL standard, specifying either `RESTRICT` or `CASCADE` is required. No database system actually enforces that rule, but whether the default behavior is `RESTRICT` or `CASCADE` varies across systems.

Note: Foreign key constraint dependencies and serial column dependencies from PostgreSQL versions prior to 7.3 are *not* maintained or created during the upgrade process. All other dependency types will be properly created during an upgrade from a pre-7.3 database.

Chapter 6. Data Manipulation

The previous chapter discussed how to create tables and other structures to hold your data. Now it is time to fill the tables with data. This chapter covers how to insert, update, and delete table data. We also introduce ways to effect automatic data changes when certain events occur: triggers and rewrite rules. The chapter after this will finally explain how to extract your long-lost data back out of the database.

6.1. Inserting Data

When a table is created, it contains no data. The first thing to do before a database can be of much use is to insert data. Data is conceptually inserted one row at a time. Of course you can also insert more than one row, but there is no way to insert less than one row at a time. Even if you know only some column values, a complete row must be created.

To create a new row, use the `INSERT` command. The command requires the table name and a value for each of the columns of the table. For example, consider the products table from Chapter 5:

```
CREATE TABLE products (  
    product_no integer,  
    name text,  
    price numeric  
);
```

An example command to insert a row would be:

```
INSERT INTO products VALUES (1, 'Cheese', 9.99);
```

The data values are listed in the order in which the columns appear in the table, separated by commas. Usually, the data values will be literals (constants), but scalar expressions are also allowed.

The above syntax has the drawback that you need to know the order of the columns in the table. To avoid that you can also list the columns explicitly. For example, both of the following commands have the same effect as the one above:

```
INSERT INTO products (product_no, name, price) VALUES (1, 'Cheese', 9.99);  
INSERT INTO products (name, price, product_no) VALUES ('Cheese', 9.99, 1);
```

Many users consider it good practice to always list the column names.

If you don't have values for all the columns, you can omit some of them. In that case, the columns will be filled with their default values. For example,

```
INSERT INTO products (product_no, name) VALUES (1, 'Cheese');  
INSERT INTO products VALUES (1, 'Cheese');
```

The second form is a PostgreSQL extension. It fills the columns from the left with as many values as are given, and the rest will be defaulted.

For clarity, you can also request default values explicitly, for individual columns or for the entire row:

```
INSERT INTO products (product_no, name, price) VALUES (1, 'Cheese', DEFAULT);  
INSERT INTO products DEFAULT VALUES;
```

Tip: To do “bulk loads”, that is, inserting a lot of data, take a look at the *COPY* command. It is not as flexible as the *INSERT* command, but is more efficient.

6.2. Updating Data

The modification of data that is already in the database is referred to as updating. You can update individual rows, all the rows in a table, or a subset of all rows. Each column can be updated separately; the other columns are not affected.

To perform an update, you need three pieces of information:

1. The name of the table and column to update,
2. The new value of the column,
3. Which row(s) to update.

Recall from Chapter 5 that SQL does not, in general, provide a unique identifier for rows. Therefore it is not necessarily possible to directly specify which row to update. Instead, you specify which conditions a row must meet in order to be updated. Only if you have a primary key in the table (no matter whether you declared it or not) can you reliably address individual rows, by choosing a condition that matches the primary key. Graphical database access tools rely on this fact to allow you to update rows individually.

For example, this command updates all products that have a price of 5 to have a price of 10:

```
UPDATE products SET price = 10 WHERE price = 5;
```

This may cause zero, one, or many rows to be updated. It is not an error to attempt an update that does not match any rows.

Let’s look at that command in detail. First is the key word *UPDATE* followed by the table name. As usual, the table name may be schema-qualified, otherwise it is looked up in the path. Next is the key word *SET* followed by the column name, an equals sign and the new column value. The new column value can be any scalar expression, not just a constant. For example, if you want to raise the price of all products by 10% you could use:

```
UPDATE products SET price = price * 1.10;
```

As you see, the expression for the new value can refer to the existing value(s) in the row. We also left out the *WHERE* clause. If it is omitted, it means that all rows in the table are updated. If it is present, only those rows that match the *WHERE* condition are updated. Note that the equals sign in the *SET* clause is an assignment while the one in the *WHERE* clause is a comparison, but this does not create any ambiguity. Of course, the *WHERE* condition does not have to be an equality test. Many other operators are available (see Chapter 9). But the expression needs to evaluate to a Boolean result.

You can update more than one column in an *UPDATE* command by listing more than one assignment in the *SET* clause. For example:

```
UPDATE mytable SET a = 5, b = 3, c = 1 WHERE a > 0;
```

6.3. Deleting Data

So far we have explained how to add data to tables and how to change data. What remains is to discuss how to remove data that is no longer needed. Just as adding data is only possible in whole rows, you can only remove entire rows from a table. In the previous section we explained that SQL does not provide a way to directly address individual rows. Therefore, removing rows can only be done by specifying conditions that the rows to be removed have to match. If you have a primary key in the table then you can specify the exact row. But you can also remove groups of rows matching a condition, or you can remove all rows in the table at once.

You use the `DELETE` command to remove rows; the syntax is very similar to the `UPDATE` command. For instance, to remove all rows from the `products` table that have a price of 10, use

```
DELETE FROM products WHERE price = 10;
```

If you simply write

```
DELETE FROM products;
```

then all rows in the table will be deleted! *Caveat programmer.*

Chapter 7. Queries

The previous chapters explained how to create tables, how to fill them with data, and how to manipulate that data. Now we finally discuss how to retrieve the data out of the database.

7.1. Overview

The process of retrieving or the command to retrieve data from a database is called a *query*. In SQL the `SELECT` command is used to specify queries. The general syntax of the `SELECT` command is

```
SELECT select_list FROM table_expression [sort_specification]
```

The following sections describe the details of the select list, the table expression, and the sort specification.

The simplest kind of query has the form

```
SELECT * FROM table1;
```

Assuming that there is a table called `table1`, this command would retrieve all rows and all columns from `table1`. (The method of retrieval depends on the client application. For example, the `psql` program will display an ASCII-art table on the screen, while client libraries will offer functions to extract individual values from the query result.) The select list specification `*` means all columns that the table expression happens to provide. A select list can also select a subset of the available columns or make calculations using the columns. For example, if `table1` has columns named `a`, `b`, and `c` (and perhaps others) you can make the following query:

```
SELECT a, b + c FROM table1;
```

(assuming that `b` and `c` are of a numerical data type). See Section 7.3 for more details.

`FROM table1` is a particularly simple kind of table expression: it reads just one table. In general, table expressions can be complex constructs of base tables, joins, and subqueries. But you can also omit the table expression entirely and use the `SELECT` command as a calculator:

```
SELECT 3 * 4;
```

This is more useful if the expressions in the select list return varying results. For example, you could call a function this way:

```
SELECT random();
```

7.2. Table Expressions

A *table expression* computes a table. The table expression contains a `FROM` clause that is optionally followed by `WHERE`, `GROUP BY`, and `HAVING` clauses. Trivial table expressions simply refer to a table on disk, a so-called base table, but more complex expressions can be used to modify or combine base tables in various ways.

The optional `WHERE`, `GROUP BY`, and `HAVING` clauses in the table expression specify a pipeline of successive transformations performed on the table derived in the `FROM` clause. All these transformations produce a virtual table that provides the rows that are passed to the select list to compute the output rows of the query.

7.2.1. The `FROM` Clause

The *FROM Clause* derives a table from one or more other tables given in a comma-separated table reference list.

```
FROM table_reference [, table_reference [, ...]]
```

A table reference may be a table name (possibly schema-qualified), or a derived table such as a subquery, a table join, or complex combinations of these. If more than one table reference is listed in the `FROM` clause they are cross-joined (see below) to form the intermediate virtual table that may then be subject to transformations by the `WHERE`, `GROUP BY`, and `HAVING` clauses and is finally the result of the overall table expression.

When a table reference names a table that is the supertable of a table inheritance hierarchy, the table reference produces rows of not only that table but all of its subtable successors, unless the key word `ONLY` precedes the table name. However, the reference produces only the columns that appear in the named table — any columns added in subtables are ignored.

7.2.1.1. Joined Tables

A joined table is a table derived from two other (real or derived) tables according to the rules of the particular join type. Inner, outer, and cross-joins are available.

Join Types

Cross join

```
T1 CROSS JOIN T2
```

For each combination of rows from *T1* and *T2*, the derived table will contain a row consisting of all columns in *T1* followed by all columns in *T2*. If the tables have *N* and *M* rows respectively, the joined table will have *N * M* rows.

`FROM T1 CROSS JOIN T2` is equivalent to `FROM T1, T2`. It is also equivalent to `FROM T1 INNER JOIN T2 ON TRUE` (see below).

Qualified joins

```
T1 { [INNER] | { LEFT | RIGHT | FULL } [OUTER] } JOIN T2 ON boolean_expression
T1 { [INNER] | { LEFT | RIGHT | FULL } [OUTER] } JOIN T2 USING ( join column list )
T1 NATURAL { [INNER] | { LEFT | RIGHT | FULL } [OUTER] } JOIN T2
```

The words `INNER` and `OUTER` are optional in all forms. `INNER` is the default; `LEFT`, `RIGHT`, and `FULL` imply an outer join.

The *join condition* is specified in the `ON` or `USING` clause, or implicitly by the word `NATURAL`. The join condition determines which rows from the two source tables are considered to “match”, as explained in detail below.

The `ON` clause is the most general kind of join condition: it takes a Boolean value expression of the same kind as is used in a `WHERE` clause. A pair of rows from $T1$ and $T2$ match if the `ON` expression evaluates to true for them.

`USING` is a shorthand notation: it takes a comma-separated list of column names, which the joined tables must have in common, and forms a join condition specifying equality of each of these pairs of columns. Furthermore, the output of a `JOIN USING` has one column for each of the equated pairs of input columns, followed by all of the other columns from each table. Thus, `USING (a, b, c)` is equivalent to `ON (t1.a = t2.a AND t1.b = t2.b AND t1.c = t2.c)` with the exception that if `ON` is used there will be two columns `a`, `b`, and `c` in the result, whereas with `USING` there will be only one of each.

Finally, `NATURAL` is a shorthand form of `USING`: it forms a `USING` list consisting of exactly those column names that appear in both input tables. As with `USING`, these columns appear only once in the output table.

The possible types of qualified join are:

INNER JOIN

For each row $R1$ of $T1$, the joined table has a row for each row in $T2$ that satisfies the join condition with $R1$.

LEFT OUTER JOIN

First, an inner join is performed. Then, for each row in $T1$ that does not satisfy the join condition with any row in $T2$, a joined row is added with null values in columns of $T2$. Thus, the joined table unconditionally has at least one row for each row in $T1$.

RIGHT OUTER JOIN

First, an inner join is performed. Then, for each row in $T2$ that does not satisfy the join condition with any row in $T1$, a joined row is added with null values in columns of $T1$. This is the converse of a left join: the result table will unconditionally have a row for each row in $T2$.

FULL OUTER JOIN

First, an inner join is performed. Then, for each row in $T1$ that does not satisfy the join condition with any row in $T2$, a joined row is added with null values in columns of $T2$. Also, for each row of $T2$ that does not satisfy the join condition with any row in $T1$, a joined row with null values in the columns of $T1$ is added.

Joins of all types can be chained together or nested: either or both of $T1$ and $T2$ may be joined tables. Parentheses may be used around `JOIN` clauses to control the join order. In the absence of parentheses, `JOIN` clauses nest left-to-right.

To put this together, assume we have tables `t1`

```

num | name
-----+-----
  1 | a
  2 | b

```

```
3 | c
```

and t2

```
num | value
-----+-----
1 | xxx
3 | YY
5 | zzz
```

then we get the following results for the various joins:

```
=> SELECT * FROM t1 CROSS JOIN t2;
```

```
num | name | num | value
-----+-----+-----
1 | a    | 1 | xxx
1 | a    | 3 | YY
1 | a    | 5 | zzz
2 | b    | 1 | xxx
2 | b    | 3 | YY
2 | b    | 5 | zzz
3 | c    | 1 | xxx
3 | c    | 3 | YY
3 | c    | 5 | zzz
```

(9 rows)

```
=> SELECT * FROM t1 INNER JOIN t2 ON t1.num = t2.num;
```

```
num | name | num | value
-----+-----+-----
1 | a    | 1 | xxx
3 | c    | 3 | YY
```

(2 rows)

```
=> SELECT * FROM t1 INNER JOIN t2 USING (num);
```

```
num | name | value
-----+-----
1 | a    | xxx
3 | c    | YY
```

(2 rows)

```
=> SELECT * FROM t1 NATURAL INNER JOIN t2;
```

```
num | name | value
-----+-----
1 | a    | xxx
3 | c    | YY
```

(2 rows)

```
=> SELECT * FROM t1 LEFT JOIN t2 ON t1.num = t2.num;
```

```
num | name | num | value
-----+-----+-----
1 | a    | 1 | xxx
2 | b    |   | 
3 | c    | 3 | YY
```

(3 rows)

```
=> SELECT * FROM t1 LEFT JOIN t2 USING (num);
```

num	name	value
1	a	xxx
2	b	
3	c	YYY

(3 rows)

```
=> SELECT * FROM t1 RIGHT JOIN t2 ON t1.num = t2.num;
```

num	name	num	value
1	a	1	xxx
3	c	3	YYY
		5	zzz

(3 rows)

```
=> SELECT * FROM t1 FULL JOIN t2 ON t1.num = t2.num;
```

num	name	num	value
1	a	1	xxx
2	b		
3	c	3	YYY
		5	zzz

(4 rows)

The join condition specified with `ON` can also contain conditions that do not relate directly to the join. This can prove useful for some queries but needs to be thought out carefully. For example:

```
=> SELECT * FROM t1 LEFT JOIN t2 ON t1.num = t2.num AND t2.value = 'xxx';
```

num	name	num	value
1	a	1	xxx
2	b		
3	c		

(3 rows)

7.2.1.2. Table and Column Aliases

A temporary name can be given to tables and complex table references to be used for references to the derived table in the rest of the query. This is called a *table alias*.

To create a table alias, write

```
FROM table_reference AS alias
```

or

```
FROM table_reference alias
```

The AS key word is noise. *alias* can be any identifier.

A typical application of table aliases is to assign short identifiers to long table names to keep the join clauses readable. For example:

```
SELECT * FROM some_very_long_table_name s JOIN another_fairly_long_name a ON s.id = a.n
```

The alias becomes the new name of the table reference for the current query — it is no longer possible to refer to the table by the original name. Thus

```
SELECT * FROM my_table AS m WHERE my_table.a > 5;
```

is not valid SQL syntax. What will actually happen (this is a PostgreSQL extension to the standard) is that an implicit table reference is added to the FROM clause, so the query is processed as if it were written as

```
SELECT * FROM my_table AS m, my_table AS my_table WHERE my_table.a > 5;
```

which will result in a cross join, which is usually not what you want.

Table aliases are mainly for notational convenience, but it is necessary to use them when joining a table to itself, e.g.,

```
SELECT * FROM my_table AS a CROSS JOIN my_table AS b ...
```

Additionally, an alias is required if the table reference is a subquery (see Section 7.2.1.3).

Parentheses are used to resolve ambiguities. The following statement will assign the alias *b* to the result of the join, unlike the previous example:

```
SELECT * FROM (my_table AS a CROSS JOIN my_table) AS b ...
```

Another form of table aliasing gives temporary names to the columns of the table, as well as the table itself:

```
FROM table_reference [AS] alias ( column1 [, column2 [, ...]] )
```

If fewer column aliases are specified than the actual table has columns, the remaining columns are not renamed. This syntax is especially useful for self-joins or subqueries.

When an alias is applied to the output of a JOIN clause, using any of these forms, the alias hides the original names within the JOIN. For example,

```
SELECT a.* FROM my_table AS a JOIN your_table AS b ON ...
```

is valid SQL, but

```
SELECT a.* FROM (my_table AS a JOIN your_table AS b ON ...) AS c
```

is not valid: the table alias *a* is not visible outside the alias *c*.

7.2.1.3. Subqueries

Subqueries specifying a derived table must be enclosed in parentheses and *must* be assigned a table alias name. (See Section 7.2.1.2.) For example:

```
FROM (SELECT * FROM table1) AS alias_name
```

This example is equivalent to `FROM table1 AS alias_name`. More interesting cases, which can't be reduced to a plain join, arise when the subquery involves grouping or aggregation.

7.2.1.4. Table Functions

Table functions are functions that produce a set of rows, made up of either base data types (scalar types) or composite data types (table rows). They are used like a table, view, or subquery in the `FROM` clause of a query. Columns returned by table functions may be included in `SELECT`, `JOIN`, or `WHERE` clauses in the same manner as a table, view, or subquery column.

If a table function returns a base data type, the single result column is named like the function. If the function returns a composite type, the result columns get the same names as the individual attributes of the type.

A table function may be aliased in the `FROM` clause, but it also may be left unaliased. If a function is used in the `FROM` clause with no alias, the function name is used as the resulting table name.

Some examples:

```
CREATE TABLE foo (fooid int, foosubid int, fooname text);

CREATE FUNCTION getfoo(int) RETURNS SETOF foo AS $$
    SELECT * FROM foo WHERE fooid = $1;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT * FROM getfoo(1) AS t1;

SELECT * FROM foo
    WHERE foosubid IN (select foosubid from getfoo(foo.fooid) z
                      where z.fooid = foo.fooid);

CREATE VIEW vw_getfoo AS SELECT * FROM getfoo(1);

SELECT * FROM vw_getfoo;
```

In some cases it is useful to define table functions that can return different column sets depending on how they are invoked. To support this, the table function can be declared as returning the pseudotype `record`. When such a function is used in a query, the expected row structure must be specified in the query itself, so that the system can know how to parse and plan the query. Consider this example:

```
SELECT *
    FROM dblink('dbname=mydb', 'select proname, prosrc from pg_proc')
    AS t1(proname name, prosrc text)
```

```
WHERE pronaame LIKE 'bytea%';
```

The `dblink` function executes a remote query (see `contrib/dblink`). It is declared to return `record` since it might be used for any kind of query. The actual column set must be specified in the calling query so that the parser knows, for example, what `*` should expand to.

7.2.2. The `WHERE` Clause

The syntax of the *WHERE Clause* is

```
WHERE search_condition
```

where *search_condition* is any value expression (see Section 4.2) that returns a value of type `boolean`.

After the processing of the `FROM` clause is done, each row of the derived virtual table is checked against the search condition. If the result of the condition is true, the row is kept in the output table, otherwise (that is, if the result is false or null) it is discarded. The search condition typically references at least some column of the table generated in the `FROM` clause; this is not required, but otherwise the `WHERE` clause will be fairly useless.

Note: The join condition of an inner join can be written either in the `WHERE` clause or in the `JOIN` clause. For example, these table expressions are equivalent:

```
FROM a, b WHERE a.id = b.id AND b.val > 5
```

and

```
FROM a INNER JOIN b ON (a.id = b.id) WHERE b.val > 5
```

or perhaps even

```
FROM a NATURAL JOIN b WHERE b.val > 5
```

Which one of these you use is mainly a matter of style. The `JOIN` syntax in the `FROM` clause is probably not as portable to other SQL database management systems. For outer joins there is no choice in any case: they must be done in the `FROM` clause. An `ON/USING` clause of an outer join is *not* equivalent to a `WHERE` condition, because it determines the addition of rows (for unmatched input rows) as well as the removal of rows from the final result.

Here are some examples of `WHERE` clauses:

```
SELECT ... FROM fdt WHERE c1 > 5
```

```
SELECT ... FROM fdt WHERE c1 IN (1, 2, 3)
```

```
SELECT ... FROM fdt WHERE c1 IN (SELECT c1 FROM t2)
```

```
SELECT ... FROM fdt WHERE c1 IN (SELECT c3 FROM t2 WHERE c2 = fdt.c1 + 10)
```

```

SELECT ... FROM fdt WHERE c1 BETWEEN (SELECT c3 FROM t2 WHERE c2 = fdt.c1 + 10) AND 100

SELECT ... FROM fdt WHERE EXISTS (SELECT c1 FROM t2 WHERE c2 > fdt.c1)

```

`fdt` is the table derived in the `FROM` clause. Rows that do not meet the search condition of the `WHERE` clause are eliminated from `fdt`. Notice the use of scalar subqueries as value expressions. Just like any other query, the subqueries can employ complex table expressions. Notice also how `fdt` is referenced in the subqueries. Qualifying `c1` as `fdt.c1` is only necessary if `c1` is also the name of a column in the derived input table of the subquery. But qualifying the column name adds clarity even when it is not needed. This example shows how the column naming scope of an outer query extends into its inner queries.

7.2.3. The `GROUP BY` and `HAVING` Clauses

After passing the `WHERE` filter, the derived input table may be subject to grouping, using the `GROUP BY` clause, and elimination of group rows using the `HAVING` clause.

```

SELECT select_list
  FROM ...
  [WHERE ...]
  GROUP BY grouping_column_reference [, grouping_column_reference]...

```

The *GROUP BY Clause* is used to group together those rows in a table that share the same values in all the columns listed. The order in which the columns are listed does not matter. The effect is to combine each set of rows sharing common values into one group row that is representative of all rows in the group. This is done to eliminate redundancy in the output and/or compute aggregates that apply to these groups. For instance:

```

=> SELECT * FROM test1;
 x | y
---+---
 a | 3
 c | 2
 b | 5
 a | 1
(4 rows)

=> SELECT x FROM test1 GROUP BY x;
 x
---
 a
 b
 c
(3 rows)

```

In the second query, we could not have written `SELECT * FROM test1 GROUP BY x`, because there is no single value for the column `y` that could be associated with each group. The grouped-by columns can be referenced in the select list since they have a single value in each group.

In general, if a table is grouped, columns that are not used in the grouping cannot be referenced except in aggregate expressions. An example with aggregate expressions is:

```
=> SELECT x, sum(y) FROM test1 GROUP BY x;
 x | sum
---+-----
 a |  4
 b |  5
 c |  2
(3 rows)
```

Here `sum` is an aggregate function that computes a single value over the entire group. More information about the available aggregate functions can be found in Section 9.15.

Tip: Grouping without aggregate expressions effectively calculates the set of distinct values in a column. This can also be achieved using the `DISTINCT` clause (see Section 7.3.3).

Here is another example: it calculates the total sales for each product (rather than the total sales on all products).

```
SELECT product_id, p.name, (sum(s.units) * p.price) AS sales
   FROM products p LEFT JOIN sales s USING (product_id)
   GROUP BY product_id, p.name, p.price;
```

In this example, the columns `product_id`, `p.name`, and `p.price` must be in the `GROUP BY` clause since they are referenced in the query select list. (Depending on how exactly the products table is set up, name and price may be fully dependent on the product ID, so the additional groupings could theoretically be unnecessary, but this is not implemented yet.) The column `s.units` does not have to be in the `GROUP BY` list since it is only used in an aggregate expression (`sum(...)`), which represents the sales of a product. For each product, the query returns a summary row about all sales of the product.

In strict SQL, `GROUP BY` can only group by columns of the source table but PostgreSQL extends this to also allow `GROUP BY` to group by columns in the select list. Grouping by value expressions instead of simple column names is also allowed.

If a table has been grouped using a `GROUP BY` clause, but then only certain groups are of interest, the `HAVING` clause can be used, much like a `WHERE` clause, to eliminate groups from a grouped table. The syntax is:

```
SELECT select_list FROM ... [WHERE ...] GROUP BY ... HAVING boolean_expression
```

Expressions in the `HAVING` clause can refer both to grouped expressions and to ungrouped expressions (which necessarily involve an aggregate function).

Example:

```
=> SELECT x, sum(y) FROM test1 GROUP BY x HAVING sum(y) > 3;
 x | sum
---+-----
 a |  4
 b |  5
(2 rows)

=> SELECT x, sum(y) FROM test1 GROUP BY x HAVING x < 'c';
 x | sum
```

```

----+-----
a |      4
b |      5
(2 rows)

```

Again, a more realistic example:

```

SELECT product_id, p.name, (sum(s.units) * (p.price - p.cost)) AS profit
FROM products p LEFT JOIN sales s USING (product_id)
WHERE s.date > CURRENT_DATE - INTERVAL '4 weeks'
GROUP BY product_id, p.name, p.price, p.cost
HAVING sum(p.price * s.units) > 5000;

```

In the example above, the `WHERE` clause is selecting rows by a column that is not grouped (the expression is only true for sales during the last four weeks), while the `HAVING` clause restricts the output to groups with total gross sales over 5000. Note that the aggregate expressions do not necessarily need to be the same in all parts of the query.

7.3. Select Lists

As shown in the previous section, the table expression in the `SELECT` command constructs an intermediate virtual table by possibly combining tables, views, eliminating rows, grouping, etc. This table is finally passed on to processing by the *select list*. The select list determines which *columns* of the intermediate table are actually output.

7.3.1. Select-List Items

The simplest kind of select list is `*` which emits all columns that the table expression produces. Otherwise, a select list is a comma-separated list of value expressions (as defined in Section 4.2). For instance, it could be a list of column names:

```
SELECT a, b, c FROM ...
```

The columns names `a`, `b`, and `c` are either the actual names of the columns of tables referenced in the `FROM` clause, or the aliases given to them as explained in Section 7.2.1.2. The name space available in the select list is the same as in the `WHERE` clause, unless grouping is used, in which case it is the same as in the `HAVING` clause.

If more than one table has a column of the same name, the table name must also be given, as in

```
SELECT tbl1.a, tbl2.a, tbl1.b FROM ...
```

When working with multiple tables, it can also be useful to ask for all the columns of a particular table:

```
SELECT tbl1.*, tbl2.a FROM ...
```

(See also Section 7.2.2.)

If an arbitrary value expression is used in the select list, it conceptually adds a new virtual column to the returned table. The value expression is evaluated once for each result row, with the row's values substituted for any column references. But the expressions in the select list do not have to reference any columns in the table expression of the `FROM` clause; they could be constant arithmetic expressions as well, for instance.

7.3.2. Column Labels

The entries in the select list can be assigned names for further processing. The “further processing” in this case is an optional sort specification and the client application (e.g., column headers for display). For example:

```
SELECT a AS value, b + c AS sum FROM ...
```

If no output column name is specified using `AS`, the system assigns a default name. For simple column references, this is the name of the referenced column. For function calls, this is the name of the function. For complex expressions, the system will generate a generic name.

Note: The naming of output columns here is different from that done in the `FROM` clause (see Section 7.2.1.2). This pipeline will in fact allow you to rename the same column twice, but the name chosen in the select list is the one that will be passed on.

7.3.3. DISTINCT

After the select list has been processed, the result table may optionally be subject to the elimination of duplicate rows. The `DISTINCT` key word is written directly after `SELECT` to specify this:

```
SELECT DISTINCT select_list ...
```

(Instead of `DISTINCT` the key word `ALL` can be used to specify the default behavior of retaining all rows.)

Obviously, two rows are considered distinct if they differ in at least one column value. Null values are considered equal in this comparison.

Alternatively, an arbitrary expression can determine what rows are to be considered distinct:

```
SELECT DISTINCT ON (expression [, expression ...]) select_list ...
```

Here *expression* is an arbitrary value expression that is evaluated for all rows. A set of rows for which all the expressions are equal are considered duplicates, and only the first row of the set is kept in the output. Note that the “first row” of a set is unpredictable unless the query is sorted on enough columns to guarantee a unique ordering of the rows arriving at the `DISTINCT` filter. (`DISTINCT ON` processing occurs after `ORDER BY` sorting.)

The `DISTINCT ON` clause is not part of the SQL standard and is sometimes considered bad style because of the potentially indeterminate nature of its results. With judicious use of `GROUP BY` and subqueries in `FROM` the construct can be avoided, but it is often the most convenient alternative.

7.4. Combining Queries

The results of two queries can be combined using the set operations union, intersection, and difference. The syntax is

```
query1 UNION [ALL] query2
query1 INTERSECT [ALL] query2
query1 EXCEPT [ALL] query2
```

query1 and *query2* are queries that can use any of the features discussed up to this point. Set operations can also be nested and chained, for example

```
query1 UNION query2 UNION query3
```

which really says

```
(query1 UNION query2) UNION query3
```

UNION effectively appends the result of *query2* to the result of *query1* (although there is no guarantee that this is the order in which the rows are actually returned). Furthermore, it eliminates duplicate rows from its result, in the same way as DISTINCT, unless UNION ALL is used.

INTERSECT returns all rows that are both in the result of *query1* and in the result of *query2*. Duplicate rows are eliminated unless INTERSECT ALL is used.

EXCEPT returns all rows that are in the result of *query1* but not in the result of *query2*. (This is sometimes called the *difference* between two queries.) Again, duplicates are eliminated unless EXCEPT ALL is used.

In order to calculate the union, intersection, or difference of two queries, the two queries must be “union compatible”, which means that they return the same number of columns and the corresponding columns have compatible data types, as described in Section 10.5.

7.5. Sorting Rows

After a query has produced an output table (after the select list has been processed) it can optionally be sorted. If sorting is not chosen, the rows will be returned in an unspecified order. The actual order in that case will depend on the scan and join plan types and the order on disk, but it must not be relied on. A particular output ordering can only be guaranteed if the sort step is explicitly chosen.

The ORDER BY clause specifies the sort order:

```
SELECT select_list
FROM table_expression
ORDER BY column1 [ASC | DESC] [, column2 [ASC | DESC] ...]
```

column1, etc., refer to select list columns. These can be either the output name of a column (see Section 7.3.2) or the number of a column. Some examples:

```
SELECT a, b FROM table1 ORDER BY a;
SELECT a + b AS sum, c FROM table1 ORDER BY sum;
```

```
SELECT a, sum(b) FROM table1 GROUP BY a ORDER BY 1;
```

As an extension to the SQL standard, PostgreSQL also allows ordering by arbitrary expressions:

```
SELECT a, b FROM table1 ORDER BY a + b;
```

References to column names of the FROM clause that are not present in the select list are also allowed:

```
SELECT a FROM table1 ORDER BY b;
```

But these extensions do not work in queries involving UNION, INTERSECT, or EXCEPT, and are not portable to other SQL databases.

Each column specification may be followed by an optional ASC or DESC to set the sort direction to ascending or descending. ASC order is the default. Ascending order puts smaller values first, where “smaller” is defined in terms of the < operator. Similarly, descending order is determined with the > operator.¹

If more than one sort column is specified, the later entries are used to sort rows that are equal under the order imposed by the earlier sort columns.

7.6. LIMIT and OFFSET

LIMIT and OFFSET allow you to retrieve just a portion of the rows that are generated by the rest of the query:

```
SELECT select_list
   FROM table_expression
   [LIMIT { number | ALL }] [OFFSET number]
```

If a limit count is given, no more than that many rows will be returned (but possibly less, if the query itself yields less rows). LIMIT ALL is the same as omitting the LIMIT clause.

OFFSET says to skip that many rows before beginning to return rows. OFFSET 0 is the same as omitting the OFFSET clause. If both OFFSET and LIMIT appear, then OFFSET rows are skipped before starting to count the LIMIT rows that are returned.

When using LIMIT, it is important to use an ORDER BY clause that constrains the result rows into a unique order. Otherwise you will get an unpredictable subset of the query’s rows. You may be asking for the tenth through twentieth rows, but tenth through twentieth in what ordering? The ordering is unknown, unless you specified ORDER BY.

The query optimizer takes LIMIT into account when generating a query plan, so you are very likely to get different plans (yielding different row orders) depending on what you give for LIMIT and OFFSET. Thus, using different LIMIT/OFFSET values to select different subsets of a query result *will give inconsistent results* unless you enforce a predictable result ordering with ORDER BY. This is not a bug; it is an inherent

1. Actually, PostgreSQL uses the *default B-tree operator class* for the column’s data type to determine the sort ordering for ASC and DESC. Conventionally, data types will be set up so that the < and > operators correspond to this sort ordering, but a user-defined data type’s designer could choose to do something different.

consequence of the fact that SQL does not promise to deliver the results of a query in any particular order unless `ORDER BY` is used to constrain the order.

The rows skipped by an `OFFSET` clause still have to be computed inside the server; therefore a large `OFFSET` can be inefficient.

Chapter 8. Data Types

PostgreSQL has a rich set of native data types available to users. Users may add new types to PostgreSQL using the `CREATE TYPE` command.

Table 8-1 shows all the built-in general-purpose data types. Most of the alternative names listed in the “Aliases” column are the names used internally by PostgreSQL for historical reasons. In addition, some internally used or deprecated types are available, but they are not listed here.

Table 8-1. Data Types

Name	Aliases	Description
<code>bigint</code>	<code>int8</code>	signed eight-byte integer
<code>bigserial</code>	<code>serial8</code>	autoincrementing eight-byte integer
<code>bit [(n)]</code>		fixed-length bit string
<code>bit varying [(n)]</code>	<code>varbit</code>	variable-length bit string
<code>boolean</code>	<code>bool</code>	logical Boolean (true/false)
<code>box</code>		rectangular box in the plane
<code>bytea</code>		binary data (“byte array”)
<code>character varying [(n)]</code>	<code>varchar [(n)]</code>	variable-length character string
<code>character [(n)]</code>	<code>char [(n)]</code>	fixed-length character string
<code>cidr</code>		IPv4 or IPv6 network address
<code>circle</code>		circle in the plane
<code>date</code>		calendar date (year, month, day)
<code>double precision</code>	<code>float8</code>	double precision floating-point number
<code>inet</code>		IPv4 or IPv6 host address
<code>integer</code>	<code>int, int4</code>	signed four-byte integer
<code>interval [(p)]</code>		time span
<code>line</code>		infinite line in the plane
<code>lseg</code>		line segment in the plane
<code>macaddr</code>		MAC address
<code>money</code>		currency amount
<code>numeric [(p, s)]</code>	<code>decimal [(p, s)]</code>	exact numeric of selectable precision
<code>path</code>		geometric path in the plane
<code>point</code>		geometric point in the plane
<code>polygon</code>		closed geometric path in the plane
<code>real</code>	<code>float4</code>	single precision floating-point number
<code>smallint</code>	<code>int2</code>	signed two-byte integer

Name	Aliases	Description
serial	serial4	autoincrementing four-byte integer
text		variable-length character string
time [(p)] [without time zone]		time of day
time [(p)] with time zone	timetz	time of day, including time zone
timestamp [(p)] [without time zone]		date and time
timestamp [(p)] with time zone	timestampz	date and time, including time zone

Compatibility: The following types (or spellings thereof) are specified by SQL: bit, bit varying, boolean, char, character varying, character, varchar, date, double precision, integer, interval, numeric, decimal, real, smallint, time (with or without time zone), timestamp (with or without time zone).

Each data type has an external representation determined by its input and output functions. Many of the built-in types have obvious external formats. However, several types are either unique to PostgreSQL, such as geometric paths, or have several possibilities for formats, such as the date and time types. Some of the input and output functions are not invertible. That is, the result of an output function may lose accuracy when compared to the original input.

8.1. Numeric Types

Numeric types consist of two-, four-, and eight-byte integers, four- and eight-byte floating-point numbers, and selectable-precision decimals. Table 8-2 lists the available types.

Table 8-2. Numeric Types

Name	Storage Size	Description	Range
smallint	2 bytes	small-range integer	-32768 to +32767
integer	4 bytes	usual choice for integer	-2147483648 to +2147483647
bigint	8 bytes	large-range integer	-9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807
decimal	variable	user-specified precision, exact	no limit
numeric	variable	user-specified precision, exact	no limit

Name	Storage Size	Description	Range
real	4 bytes	variable-precision, inexact	6 decimal digits precision
double precision	8 bytes	variable-precision, inexact	15 decimal digits precision
serial	4 bytes	autoincrementing integer	1 to 2147483647
bigserial	8 bytes	large autoincrementing integer	1 to 9223372036854775807

The syntax of constants for the numeric types is described in Section 4.1.2. The numeric types have a full set of corresponding arithmetic operators and functions. Refer to Chapter 9 for more information. The following sections describe the types in detail.

8.1.1. Integer Types

The types `smallint`, `integer`, and `bigint` store whole numbers, that is, numbers without fractional components, of various ranges. Attempts to store values outside of the allowed range will result in an error.

The type `integer` is the usual choice, as it offers the best balance between range, storage size, and performance. The `smallint` type is generally only used if disk space is at a premium. The `bigint` type should only be used if the `integer` range is not sufficient, because the latter is definitely faster.

The `bigint` type may not function correctly on all platforms, since it relies on compiler support for eight-byte integers. On a machine without such support, `bigint` acts the same as `integer` (but still takes up eight bytes of storage). However, we are not aware of any reasonable platform where this is actually the case.

SQL only specifies the integer types `integer` (or `int`) and `smallint`. The type `bigint`, and the type names `int2`, `int4`, and `int8` are extensions, which are shared with various other SQL database systems.

8.1.2. Arbitrary Precision Numbers

The type `numeric` can store numbers with up to 1000 digits of precision and perform calculations exactly. It is especially recommended for storing monetary amounts and other quantities where exactness is required. However, arithmetic on `numeric` values is very slow compared to the integer types, or to the floating-point types described in the next section.

In what follows we use these terms: The *scale* of a `numeric` is the count of decimal digits in the fractional part, to the right of the decimal point. The *precision* of a `numeric` is the total count of significant digits in the whole number, that is, the number of digits to both sides of the decimal point. So the number 23.5141 has a precision of 6 and a scale of 4. Integers can be considered to have a scale of zero.

Both the maximum precision and the maximum scale of a `numeric` column can be configured. To declare a column of type `numeric` use the syntax

```
NUMERIC(precision, scale)
```

The precision must be positive, the scale zero or positive. Alternatively,

`NUMERIC(precision)`

selects a scale of 0. Specifying

`NUMERIC`

without any precision or scale creates a column in which numeric values of any precision and scale can be stored, up to the implementation limit on precision. A column of this kind will not coerce input values to any particular scale, whereas `numeric` columns with a declared scale will coerce input values to that scale. (The SQL standard requires a default scale of 0, i.e., coercion to integer precision. We find this a bit useless. If you're concerned about portability, always specify the precision and scale explicitly.)

If the scale of a value to be stored is greater than the declared scale of the column, the system will round the value to the specified number of fractional digits. Then, if the number of digits to the left of the decimal point exceeds the declared precision minus the declared scale, an error is raised.

Numeric values are physically stored without any extra leading or trailing zeroes. Thus, the declared precision and scale of a column are maximums, not fixed allocations. (In this sense the `numeric` type is more akin to `varchar(n)` than to `char(n)`.)

In addition to ordinary numeric values, the `numeric` type allows the special value `NaN`, meaning “not-a-number”. Any operation on `NaN` yields another `NaN`. When writing this value as a constant in a SQL command, you must put quotes around it, for example `UPDATE table SET x = 'NaN'`. On input, the string `NaN` is recognized in a case-insensitive manner.

The types `decimal` and `numeric` are equivalent. Both types are part of the SQL standard.

8.1.3. Floating-Point Types

The data types `real` and `double precision` are inexact, variable-precision numeric types. In practice, these types are usually implementations of IEEE Standard 754 for Binary Floating-Point Arithmetic (single and double precision, respectively), to the extent that the underlying processor, operating system, and compiler support it.

Inexact means that some values cannot be converted exactly to the internal format and are stored as approximations, so that storing and printing back out a value may show slight discrepancies. Managing these errors and how they propagate through calculations is the subject of an entire branch of mathematics and computer science and will not be discussed further here, except for the following points:

- If you require exact storage and calculations (such as for monetary amounts), use the `numeric` type instead.
- If you want to do complicated calculations with these types for anything important, especially if you rely on certain behavior in boundary cases (infinity, underflow), you should evaluate the implementation carefully.
- Comparing two floating-point values for equality may or may not work as expected.

On most platforms, the `real` type has a range of at least $1E-37$ to $1E+37$ with a precision of at least 6 decimal digits. The `double precision` type typically has a range of around $1E-307$ to $1E+308$ with a precision of at least 15 digits. Values that are too large or too small will cause an error. Rounding may take

place if the precision of an input number is too high. Numbers too close to zero that are not representable as distinct from zero will cause an underflow error.

In addition to ordinary numeric values, the floating-point types have several special values:

```
Infinity
-Infinity
NaN
```

These represent the IEEE 754 special values “infinity”, “negative infinity”, and “not-a-number”, respectively. (On a machine whose floating-point arithmetic does not follow IEEE 754, these values will probably not work as expected.) When writing these values as constants in a SQL command, you must put quotes around them, for example `UPDATE table SET x = 'Infinity'`. On input, these strings are recognized in a case-insensitive manner.

PostgreSQL also supports the SQL-standard notations `float` and `float(p)` for specifying inexact numeric types. Here, *p* specifies the minimum acceptable precision in binary digits. PostgreSQL accepts `float(1)` to `float(24)` as selecting the real type, while `float(25)` to `float(53)` select double precision. Values of *p* outside the allowed range draw an error. `float` with no precision specified is taken to mean double precision.

Note: Prior to PostgreSQL 7.4, the precision in `float(p)` was taken to mean so many decimal digits. This has been corrected to match the SQL standard, which specifies that the precision is measured in binary digits. The assumption that `real` and `double precision` have exactly 24 and 53 bits in the mantissa respectively is correct for IEEE-standard floating point implementations. On non-IEEE platforms it may be off a little, but for simplicity the same ranges of *p* are used on all platforms.

8.1.4. Serial Types

The data types `serial` and `bigserial` are not true types, but merely a notational convenience for setting up unique identifier columns (similar to the `AUTO_INCREMENT` property supported by some other databases). In the current implementation, specifying

```
CREATE TABLE tablename (
    colname SERIAL
);
```

is equivalent to specifying:

```
CREATE SEQUENCE tablename_colname_seq;
CREATE TABLE tablename (
    colname integer DEFAULT nextval('tablename_colname_seq') NOT NULL
);
```

Thus, we have created an integer column and arranged for its default values to be assigned from a sequence generator. A `NOT NULL` constraint is applied to ensure that a null value cannot be explicitly inserted, either. In most cases you would also want to attach a `UNIQUE` or `PRIMARY KEY` constraint to prevent duplicate values from being inserted by accident, but this is not automatic.

Note: Prior to PostgreSQL 7.3, `serial` implied `UNIQUE`. This is no longer automatic. If you wish a serial column to be in a unique constraint or a primary key, it must now be specified, same as with any other data type.

To insert the next value of the sequence into the `serial` column, specify that the `serial` column should be assigned its default value. This can be done either by excluding the column from the list of columns in the `INSERT` statement, or through the use of the `DEFAULT` key word.

The type names `serial` and `serial4` are equivalent: both create `integer` columns. The type names `bigserial` and `serial8` work just the same way, except that they create a `bigint` column. `bigserial` should be used if you anticipate the use of more than 2^{31} identifiers over the lifetime of the table.

The sequence created for a `serial` column is automatically dropped when the owning column is dropped, and cannot be dropped otherwise. (This was not true in PostgreSQL releases before 7.3. Note that this automatic drop linkage will not occur for a sequence created by reloading a dump from a pre-7.3 database; the dump file does not contain the information needed to establish the dependency link.) Furthermore, this dependency between sequence and column is made only for the `serial` column itself. If any other columns reference the sequence (perhaps by manually calling the `nextval` function), they will be broken if the sequence is removed. Using a `serial` column's sequence in such a fashion is considered bad form; if you wish to feed several columns from the same sequence generator, create the sequence as an independent object.

8.2. Monetary Types

Note: The `money` type is deprecated. Use `numeric` or `decimal` instead, in combination with the `to_char` function.

The `money` type stores a currency amount with a fixed fractional precision; see Table 8-3. Input is accepted in a variety of formats, including integer and floating-point literals, as well as “typical” currency formatting, such as ‘\$1,000.00’. Output is generally in the latter form but depends on the locale.

Table 8-3. Monetary Types

Name	Storage Size	Description	Range
money	4 bytes	currency amount	-21474836.48 to +21474836.47

8.3. Character Types

Table 8-4. Character Types

Name	Description
------	-------------

Name	Description
<code>character varying(n)</code> , <code>varchar(n)</code>	variable-length with limit
<code>character(n)</code> , <code>char(n)</code>	fixed-length, blank padded
<code>text</code>	variable unlimited length

Table 8-4 shows the general-purpose character types available in PostgreSQL.

SQL defines two primary character types: `character varying(n)` and `character(n)`, where n is a positive integer. Both of these types can store strings up to n characters in length. An attempt to store a longer string into a column of these types will result in an error, unless the excess characters are all spaces, in which case the string will be truncated to the maximum length. (This somewhat bizarre exception is required by the SQL standard.) If the string to be stored is shorter than the declared length, values of type `character` will be space-padded; values of type `character varying` will simply store the shorter string.

If one explicitly casts a value to `character varying(n)` or `character(n)`, then an over-length value will be truncated to n characters without raising an error. (This too is required by the SQL standard.)

Note: Prior to PostgreSQL 7.2, strings that were too long were always truncated without raising an error, in either explicit or implicit casting contexts.

The notations `varchar(n)` and `char(n)` are aliases for `character varying(n)` and `character(n)`, respectively. `character` without length specifier is equivalent to `character(1)`. If `character varying` is used without length specifier, the type accepts strings of any size. The latter is a PostgreSQL extension.

In addition, PostgreSQL provides the `text` type, which stores strings of any length. Although the type `text` is not in the SQL standard, several other SQL database management systems have it as well.

Values of type `character` are physically padded with spaces to the specified width n , and are stored and displayed that way. However, the padding spaces are treated as semantically insignificant. Trailing spaces are disregarded when comparing two values of type `character`, and they will be removed when converting a `character` value to one of the other string types. Note that trailing spaces *are* semantically significant in `character varying` and `text` values.

The storage requirement for data of these types is 4 bytes plus the actual string, and in case of `character` plus the padding. Long strings are compressed by the system automatically, so the physical requirement on disk may be less. Long values are also stored in background tables so they do not interfere with rapid access to the shorter column values. In any case, the longest possible character string that can be stored is about 1 GB. (The maximum value that will be allowed for n in the data type declaration is less than that. It wouldn't be very useful to change this because with multibyte character encodings the number of characters and bytes can be quite different anyway. If you desire to store long strings with no specific upper limit, use `text` or `character varying` without a length specifier, rather than making up an arbitrary length limit.)

Tip: There are no performance differences between these three types, apart from the increased storage size when using the blank-padded type. While `character(n)` has performance advantages in some other database systems, it has no such advantages in PostgreSQL. In most situations `text` or `character varying` should be used instead.

Refer to Section 4.1.2.1 for information about the syntax of string literals, and to Chapter 9 for information about available operators and functions. The database character set determines the character set used to store textual values; for more information on character set support, refer to Section 20.2.

Example 8-1. Using the character types

```
CREATE TABLE test1 (a character(4));
INSERT INTO test1 VALUES ('ok');
SELECT a, char_length(a) FROM test1; -- ❶
  a | char_length
-----+-----
ok  |           2

CREATE TABLE test2 (b varchar(5));
INSERT INTO test2 VALUES ('ok');
INSERT INTO test2 VALUES ('good      ');
INSERT INTO test2 VALUES ('too long');
ERROR:  value too long for type character varying(5)
INSERT INTO test2 VALUES ('too long'::varchar(5)); -- explicit truncation
SELECT b, char_length(b) FROM test2;
  b | char_length
-----+-----
ok  |           2
good |           5
too 1 |           5
```

❶ The `char_length` function is discussed in Section 9.4.

There are two other fixed-length character types in PostgreSQL, shown in Table 8-5. The `name` type exists *only* for storage of identifiers in the internal system catalogs and is not intended for use by the general user. Its length is currently defined as 64 bytes (63 usable characters plus terminator) but should be referenced using the constant `NAMEDATALEN`. The length is set at compile time (and is therefore adjustable for special uses); the default maximum length may change in a future release. The type `"char"` (note the quotes) is different from `char(1)` in that it only uses one byte of storage. It is internally used in the system catalogs as a poor-man's enumeration type.

Table 8-5. Special Character Types

Name	Storage Size	Description
"char"	1 byte	single-character internal type
name	64 bytes	internal type for object names

8.4. Binary Data Types

The `bytea` data type allows storage of binary strings; see Table 8-6.

Table 8-6. Binary Data Types

Name	Storage Size	Description
bytea	4 bytes plus the actual binary string	variable-length binary string

A binary string is a sequence of octets (or bytes). Binary strings are distinguished from character strings by two characteristics: First, binary strings specifically allow storing octets of value zero and other “non-printable” octets (usually, octets outside the range 32 to 126). Character strings disallow zero octets, and also disallow any other octet values and sequences of octet values that are invalid according to the database’s selected character set encoding. Second, operations on binary strings process the actual bytes, whereas the processing of character strings depends on locale settings. In short, binary strings are appropriate for storing data that the programmer thinks of as “raw bytes”, whereas character strings are appropriate for storing text.

When entering `bytea` values, octets of certain values *must* be escaped (but all octet values *may* be escaped) when used as part of a string literal in an SQL statement. In general, to escape an octet, it is converted into the three-digit octal number equivalent of its decimal octet value, and preceded by two backslashes. Table 8-7 shows the characters that must be escaped, and gives the alternate escape sequences where applicable.

Table 8-7. `bytea` Literal Escaped Octets

Decimal Octet Value	Description	Escaped Input Representation	Example	Output Representation
0	zero octet	'\\000'	SELECT '\\000'::bytea;	\000
39	single quote	'\" or '\\047'	SELECT '\"::bytea;	'
92	backslash	'\\\\' or '\\134'	SELECT '\\\\'::bytea;	\\
0 to 31 and 127 to 255	“non-printable” octets	'\\xxx' (octal value)	SELECT '\\001'::bytea;	\001

The requirement to escape “non-printable” octets actually varies depending on locale settings. In some instances you can get away with leaving them unescaped. Note that the result in each of the examples in Table 8-7 was exactly one octet in length, even though the output representation of the zero octet and backslash are more than one character.

The reason that you have to write so many backslashes, as shown in Table 8-7, is that an input string written as a string literal must pass through two parse phases in the PostgreSQL server. The first backslash of each pair is interpreted as an escape character by the string-literal parser and is therefore consumed, leaving the second backslash of the pair. The remaining backslash is then recognized by the `bytea` input function as starting either a three digit octal value or escaping another backslash. For example, a string literal passed to the server as `'\\001'` becomes `\001` after passing through the string-literal parser. The `\001` is then sent to the `bytea` input function, where it is converted to a single octet with a decimal value of 1. Note that the apostrophe character is not treated specially by `bytea`, so it follows the normal rules for string literals. (See also Section 4.1.2.1.)

`Bytea` octets are also escaped in the output. In general, each “non-printable” octet is converted into its

equivalent three-digit octal value and preceded by one backslash. Most “printable” octets are represented by their standard representation in the client character set. The octet with decimal value 92 (backslash) has a special alternative output representation. Details are in Table 8-8.

Table 8-8. `bytea` Output Escaped Octets

Decimal Octet Value	Description	Escaped Output Representation	Example	Output Result
92	backslash	\\	SELECT '\\134'::bytea;	\\
0 to 31 and 127 to 255	“non-printable” octets	\xxx (octal value)	SELECT '\\001'::bytea;	\001
32 to 126	“printable” octets	client character set representation	SELECT '\\176'::bytea;	~

Depending on the front end to PostgreSQL you use, you may have additional work to do in terms of escaping and unescaping `bytea` strings. For example, you may also have to escape line feeds and carriage returns if your interface automatically translates these.

The SQL standard defines a different binary string type, called `BLOB` or `BINARY LARGE OBJECT`. The input format is different from `bytea`, but the provided functions and operators are mostly the same.

8.5. Date/Time Types

PostgreSQL supports the full set of SQL date and time types, shown in Table 8-9. The operations available on these data types are described in Section 9.9.

Table 8-9. Date/Time Types

Name	Storage Size	Description	Low Value	High Value	Resolution
timestamp [(p)] [without time zone]	8 bytes	both date and time	4713 BC	5874897 AD	1 microsecond / 14 digits
timestamp [(p)] with time zone	8 bytes	both date and time, with time zone	4713 BC	5874897 AD	1 microsecond / 14 digits
interval [(p)]	12 bytes	time intervals	-178000000 years	178000000 years	1 microsecond / 14 digits
date	4 bytes	dates only	4713 BC	32767 AD	1 day
time [(p)] [without time zone]	8 bytes	times of day only	00:00:00.00	23:59:59.99	1 microsecond / 14 digits
time [(p)] with time zone	12 bytes	times of day only, with time zone	00:00:00.00+12	23:59:59.99-12	1 microsecond / 14 digits

Note: Prior to PostgreSQL 7.3, writing just `timestamp` was equivalent to `timestamp with time zone`. This was changed for SQL compliance.

`time`, `timestamp`, and `interval` accept an optional precision value *p* which specifies the number of fractional digits retained in the seconds field. By default, there is no explicit bound on precision. The allowed range of *p* is from 0 to 6 for the `timestamp` and `interval` types.

Note: When `timestamp` values are stored as double precision floating-point numbers (currently the default), the effective limit of precision may be less than 6. `timestamp` values are stored as seconds before or after midnight 2000-01-01. Microsecond precision is achieved for dates within a few years of 2000-01-01, but the precision degrades for dates further away. When `timestamp` values are stored as eight-byte integers (a compile-time option), microsecond precision is available over the full range of values. However eight-byte integer timestamps have a more limited range of dates than shown above: from 4713 BC up to 294276 AD. The same compile-time option also determines whether `time` and `interval` values are stored as floating-point or eight-byte integers. In the floating-point case, large `interval` values degrade in precision as the size of the interval increases.

For the `time` types, the allowed range of *p* is from 0 to 6 when eight-byte integer storage is used, or from 0 to 10 when floating-point storage is used.

The type `time with time zone` is defined by the SQL standard, but the definition exhibits properties which lead to questionable usefulness. In most cases, a combination of `date`, `time`, `timestamp` without `time zone`, and `timestamp with time zone` should provide a complete range of date/time functionality required by any application.

The types `abstime` and `reltime` are lower precision types which are used internally. You are discouraged from using these types in new applications and are encouraged to move any old ones over when appropriate. Any or all of these internal types might disappear in a future release.

8.5.1. Date/Time Input

Date and time input is accepted in almost any reasonable format, including ISO 8601, SQL-compatible, traditional POSTGRES, and others. For some formats, ordering of month, day, and year in date input is ambiguous and there is support for specifying the expected ordering of these fields. Set the `DateStyle` parameter to `MDY` to select month-day-year interpretation, `DMY` to select day-month-year interpretation, or `YMD` to select year-month-day interpretation.

PostgreSQL is more flexible in handling date/time input than the SQL standard requires. See Appendix B for the exact parsing rules of date/time input and for the recognized text fields including months, days of the week, and time zones.

Remember that any date or time literal input needs to be enclosed in single quotes, like text strings. Refer to Section 4.1.2.5 for more information. SQL requires the following syntax

```
type [ (p) ] 'value'
```

where *p* in the optional precision specification is an integer corresponding to the number of fractional digits in the seconds field. Precision can be specified for `time`, `timestamp`, and `interval` types. The

allowed values are mentioned above. If no precision is specified in a constant specification, it defaults to the precision of the literal value.

8.5.1.1. Dates

Table 8-10 shows some possible inputs for the `date` type.

Table 8-10. Date Input

Example	Description
January 8, 1999	unambiguous in any <code>datestyle</code> input mode
1999-01-08	ISO 8601; January 8 in any mode (recommended format)
1/8/1999	January 8 in <code>MDY</code> mode; August 1 in <code>DMY</code> mode
1/18/1999	January 18 in <code>MDY</code> mode; rejected in other modes
01/02/03	January 2, 2003 in <code>MDY</code> mode; February 1, 2003 in <code>DMY</code> mode; February 3, 2001 in <code>YMD</code> mode
1999-Jan-08	January 8 in any mode
Jan-08-1999	January 8 in any mode
08-Jan-1999	January 8 in any mode
99-Jan-08	January 8 in <code>YMD</code> mode, else error
08-Jan-99	January 8, except error in <code>YMD</code> mode
Jan-08-99	January 8, except error in <code>YMD</code> mode
19990108	ISO 8601; January 8, 1999 in any mode
990108	ISO 8601; January 8, 1999 in any mode
1999.008	year and day of year
J2451187	Julian day
January 8, 99 BC	year 99 before the Common Era

8.5.1.2. Times

The time-of-day types are `time [(p)]` without time zone and `time [(p)]` with time zone. Writing just `time` is equivalent to `time` without time zone.

Valid input for these types consists of a time of day followed by an optional time zone. (See Table 8-11 and Table 8-12.) If a time zone is specified in the input for `time` without time zone, it is silently ignored.

Table 8-11. Time Input

Example	Description
04:05:06.789	ISO 8601
04:05:06	ISO 8601
04:05	ISO 8601

Example	Description
040506	ISO 8601
04:05 AM	same as 04:05; AM does not affect value
04:05 PM	same as 16:05; input hour must be <= 12
04:05:06.789-8	ISO 8601
04:05:06-08:00	ISO 8601
04:05-08:00	ISO 8601
040506-08	ISO 8601
04:05:06 PST	time zone specified by name

Table 8-12. Time Zone Input

Example	Description
PST	Pacific Standard Time
-8:00	ISO-8601 offset for PST
-800	ISO-8601 offset for PST
-8	ISO-8601 offset for PST
zulu	Military abbreviation for UTC
z	Short form of zulu

Refer to Appendix B for a list of time zone names that are recognized for input.

8.5.1.3. Time Stamps

Valid input for the time stamp types consists of a concatenation of a date and a time, followed by an optional time zone, followed by an optional AD or BC. (Alternatively, AD/BC can appear before the time zone, but this is not the preferred ordering.) Thus

```
1999-01-08 04:05:06
```

and

```
1999-01-08 04:05:06 -8:00
```

are valid values, which follow the ISO 8601 standard. In addition, the wide-spread format

```
January 8 04:05:06 1999 PST
```

is supported.

The SQL standard differentiates timestamp without time zone and timestamp with time zone literals by the existence of a “+”; or “-”. Hence, according to the standard,

```
TIMESTAMP '2004-10-19 10:23:54'
```

is a timestamp without time zone, while

```
TIMESTAMP '2004-10-19 10:23:54+02'
```

is a `timestamp with time zone`. PostgreSQL differs from the standard by requiring that `timestamp with time zone` literals be explicitly typed:

```
TIMESTAMP WITH TIME ZONE '2004-10-19 10:23:54+02'
```

If a literal is not explicitly indicated as being of `timestamp with time zone`, PostgreSQL will silently ignore any time zone indication in the literal. That is, the resulting date/time value is derived from the date/time fields in the input value, and is not adjusted for time zone.

For `timestamp with time zone`, the internally stored value is always in UTC (Universal Coordinated Time, traditionally known as Greenwich Mean Time, GMT). An input value that has an explicit time zone specified is converted to UTC using the appropriate offset for that time zone. If no time zone is stated in the input string, then it is assumed to be in the time zone indicated by the system's `timezone` parameter, and is converted to UTC using the offset for the `timezone`.

When a `timestamp with time zone` value is output, it is always converted from UTC to the current `timezone`, and displayed as local time in that zone. To see the time in another time zone, either change `timezone` or use the `AT TIME ZONE` construct (see Section 9.9.3).

Conversions between `timestamp without time zone` and `timestamp with time zone` normally assume that the `timestamp without time zone` value should be taken or given as `timezone` local time. A different zone reference can be specified for the conversion using `AT TIME ZONE`.

8.5.1.4. Intervals

interval values can be written with the following syntax:

```
[@] quantity unit [quantity unit...] [direction]
```

Where: *quantity* is a number (possibly signed); *unit* is second, minute, hour, day, week, month, year, decade, century, millennium, or abbreviations or plurals of these units; *direction* can be ago or empty. The at sign (@) is optional noise. The amounts of different units are implicitly added up with appropriate sign accounting.

Quantities of days, hours, minutes, and seconds can be specified without explicit unit markings. For example, '1 12:59:10' is read the same as '1 day 12 hours 59 min 10 sec'.

The optional precision *p* should be between 0 and 6, and defaults to the precision of the input literal.

8.5.1.5. Special Values

PostgreSQL supports several special date/time input values for convenience, as shown in Table 8-13. The values `infinity` and `-infinity` are specially represented inside the system and will be displayed the same way; but the others are simply notational shorthands that will be converted to ordinary date/time values when read. (In particular, `now` and related strings are converted to a specific time value as soon as they are read.) All of these values need to be written in single quotes when used as constants in SQL commands.

Table 8-13. Special Date/Time Inputs

Input String	Valid Types	Description
epoch	date, timestamp	1970-01-01 00:00
infinity	timestamp	later than all other
-infinity	timestamp	earlier than all oth
now	date, time, timestamp	current transaction
today	date, timestamp	midnight today
tomorrow	date, timestamp	midnight tomorro
yesterday	date, timestamp	midnight yesterda
allballs	time	00:00:00.00 UTC

The following SQL-compatible functions can also be used to obtain the current time value for the corresponding data type: `CURRENT_DATE`, `CURRENT_TIME`, `CURRENT_TIMESTAMP`, `LOCALTIME`, `LOCALTIMESTAMP`. The latter four accept an optional precision specification. (See Section 9.9.4.) Note however that these are SQL functions and are *not* recognized as data input strings.

8.5.2. Date/Time Output

The output format of the date/time types can be set to one of the four styles ISO 8601, SQL (Ingres), traditional POSTGRES, and German, using the command `SET datestyle`. The default is the ISO format. (The SQL standard requires the use of the ISO 8601 format. The name of the “SQL” output format is a historical accident.) Table 8-14 shows examples of each output style. The output of the `date` and `time` types is of course only the date or time part in accordance with the given examples.

Table 8-14. Date/Time Output Styles

Style Specification	Description	Example
ISO	ISO 8601/SQL standard	1997-12-17 07:37:16-08
SQL	traditional style	12/17/1997 07:37:16.00 PST
POSTGRES	original style	Wed Dec 17 07:37:16 1997 PST
German	regional style	17.12.1997 07:37:16.00 PST

In the SQL and POSTGRES styles, day appears before month if DMY field ordering has been specified, otherwise month appears before day. (See Section 8.5.1 for how this setting also affects interpretation of input values.) Table 8-15 shows an example.

Table 8-15. Date Order Conventions

datestyle Setting	Input Ordering	Example Output
SQL, DMY	<i>day/month/year</i>	17/12/1997 15:37:16.00 CET
SQL, MDY	<i>month/day/year</i>	12/17/1997 07:37:16.00 PST
Postgres, DMY	<i>day/month/year</i>	Wed 17 Dec 07:37:16 1997 PST

`interval` output looks like the input format, except that units like `century` or `week` are converted to years and days and `ago` is converted to an appropriate sign. In ISO mode the output looks like

```
[ quantity unit [ ... ] ] [ days ] [ hours:minutes:seconds ]
```

The date/time styles can be selected by the user using the `SET datestyle` command, the `DateStyle` parameter in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file, or the `PGDATESTYLE` environment variable on the server or client. The formatting function `to_char` (see Section 9.8) is also available as a more flexible way to format the date/time output.

8.5.3. Time Zones

Time zones, and time-zone conventions, are influenced by political decisions, not just earth geometry. Time zones around the world became somewhat standardized during the 1900's, but continue to be prone to arbitrary changes, particularly with respect to daylight-savings rules. PostgreSQL currently supports daylight-savings rules over the time period 1902 through 2038 (corresponding to the full range of conventional Unix system time). Times outside that range are taken to be in “standard time” for the selected time zone, no matter what part of the year they fall in.

PostgreSQL endeavors to be compatible with the SQL standard definitions for typical usage. However, the SQL standard has an odd mix of date and time types and capabilities. Two obvious problems are:

- Although the `date` type does not have an associated time zone, the `time` type can. Time zones in the real world have little meaning unless associated with a date as well as a time, since the offset may vary through the year with daylight-saving time boundaries.
- The default time zone is specified as a constant numeric offset from UTC. It is therefore not possible to adapt to daylight-saving time when doing date/time arithmetic across DST boundaries.

To address these difficulties, we recommend using date/time types that contain both date and time when using time zones. We recommend *not* using the type `time with time zone` (though it is supported by PostgreSQL for legacy applications and for compliance with the SQL standard). PostgreSQL assumes your local time zone for any type containing only date or time.

All `timezone`-aware dates and times are stored internally in UTC. They are converted to local time in the zone specified by the `timezone` configuration parameter before being displayed to the client.

The `timezone` configuration parameter can be set in the file `postgresql.conf`, or in any of the other standard ways described in Section 16.4. There are also several special ways to set it:

- If `timezone` is not specified in `postgresql.conf` nor as a `postmaster` command-line switch, the server attempts to use the value of the `TZ` environment variable as the default time zone. If `TZ` is not defined or is not any of the time zone names known to PostgreSQL, the server attempts to determine the operating system's default time zone by checking the behavior of the C library function `localtime()`. The default time zone is selected as the closest match among PostgreSQL's known time zones.
- The SQL command `SET TIME ZONE` sets the time zone for the session. This is an alternative spelling of `SET TIMEZONE TO` with a more SQL-spec-compatible syntax.

- The `PGTZ` environment variable, if set at the client, is used by libpq applications to send a `SET TIME ZONE` command to the server upon connection.

Refer to Appendix B for a list of available time zones.

8.5.4. Internals

PostgreSQL uses Julian dates for all date/time calculations. They have the nice property of correctly predicting/calculating any date more recent than 4713 BC to far into the future, using the assumption that the length of the year is 365.2425 days.

Date conventions before the 19th century make for interesting reading, but are not consistent enough to warrant coding into a date/time handler.

8.6. Boolean Type

PostgreSQL provides the standard SQL type `boolean`. `boolean` can have one of only two states: “true” or “false”. A third state, “unknown”, is represented by the SQL null value.

Valid literal values for the “true” state are:

```
TRUE
't'
'true'
'y'
'yes'
'1'
```

For the “false” state, the following values can be used:

```
FALSE
'f'
'false'
'n'
'no'
'0'
```

Using the key words `TRUE` and `FALSE` is preferred (and SQL-compliant).

Example 8-2. Using the `boolean` type

```
CREATE TABLE test1 (a boolean, b text);
INSERT INTO test1 VALUES (TRUE, 'sic est');
INSERT INTO test1 VALUES (FALSE, 'non est');
SELECT * FROM test1;
 a | b
---+-----
 t | sic est
```

```

f | non est

SELECT * FROM test1 WHERE a;
a |      b
---+-----
t | sic est

```

Example 8-2 shows that boolean values are output using the letters t and f.

Tip: Values of the `boolean` type cannot be cast directly to other types (e.g., `CAST (boolval AS integer)` does not work). This can be accomplished using the `CASE` expression: `CASE WHEN boolval THEN 'value if true' ELSE 'value if false' END`. See Section 9.13.

`boolean` uses 1 byte of storage.

8.7. Geometric Types

Geometric data types represent two-dimensional spatial objects. Table 8-16 shows the geometric types available in PostgreSQL. The most fundamental type, the point, forms the basis for all of the other types.

Table 8-16. Geometric Types

Name	Storage Size	Representation	Description
<code>point</code>	16 bytes	Point on the plane	(x,y)
<code>line</code>	32 bytes	Infinite line (not fully implemented)	$((x1,y1),(x2,y2))$
<code>lseg</code>	32 bytes	Finite line segment	$((x1,y1),(x2,y2))$
<code>box</code>	32 bytes	Rectangular box	$((x1,y1),(x2,y2))$
<code>path</code>	16+16n bytes	Closed path (similar to polygon)	$((x1,y1),...)$
<code>path</code>	16+16n bytes	Open path	$[(x1,y1),...]$
<code>polygon</code>	40+16n bytes	Polygon (similar to closed path)	$((x1,y1),...)$
<code>circle</code>	24 bytes	Circle	$\langle(x,y),r\rangle$ (center and radius)

A rich set of functions and operators is available to perform various geometric operations such as scaling, translation, rotation, and determining intersections. They are explained in Section 9.10.

8.7.1. Points

Points are the fundamental two-dimensional building block for geometric types. Values of type `point` are specified using the following syntax:

```
( x , y )
```

$$x, y$$

where x and y are the respective coordinates as floating-point numbers.

8.7.2. Line Segments

Line segments (`lseg`) are represented by pairs of points. Values of type `lseg` are specified using the following syntax:

$$\begin{aligned} & ((x1, y1), (x2, y2)) \\ & (x1, y1), (x2, y2) \\ & x1, y1, x2, y2 \end{aligned}$$

where $(x1, y1)$ and $(x2, y2)$ are the end points of the line segment.

8.7.3. Boxes

Boxes are represented by pairs of points that are opposite corners of the box. Values of type `box` are specified using the following syntax:

$$\begin{aligned} & ((x1, y1), (x2, y2)) \\ & (x1, y1), (x2, y2) \\ & x1, y1, x2, y2 \end{aligned}$$

where $(x1, y1)$ and $(x2, y2)$ are any two opposite corners of the box.

Boxes are output using the first syntax. The corners are reordered on input to store the upper right corner, then the lower left corner. Other corners of the box can be entered, but the lower left and upper right corners are determined from the input and stored.

8.7.4. Paths

Paths are represented by lists of connected points. Paths can be *open*, where the first and last points in the list are not considered connected, or *closed*, where the first and last points are considered connected.

Values of type `path` are specified using the following syntax:

$$\begin{aligned} & ((x1, y1), \dots, (xn, yn)) \\ & [(x1, y1), \dots, (xn, yn)] \\ & (x1, y1), \dots, (xn, yn) \\ & (x1, y1, \dots, xn, yn) \\ & x1, y1, \dots, xn, yn \end{aligned}$$

where the points are the end points of the line segments comprising the path. Square brackets (`[]`) indicate an open path, while parentheses (`()`) indicate a closed path.

Paths are output using the first syntax.

8.7.5. Polygons

Polygons are represented by lists of points (the vertexes of the polygon). Polygons should probably be considered equivalent to closed paths, but are stored differently and have their own set of support routines.

Values of type `polygon` are specified using the following syntax:

```
( ( x1 , y1 ) , ... , ( xn , yn ) )
( x1 , y1 ) , ... , ( xn , yn )
( x1 , y1 , ... , xn , yn )
x1 , y1 , ... , xn , yn
```

where the points are the end points of the line segments comprising the boundary of the polygon.

Polygons are output using the first syntax.

8.7.6. Circles

Circles are represented by a center point and a radius. Values of type `circle` are specified using the following syntax:

```
< ( x , y ) , r >
( ( x , y ) , r )
( x , y ) , r
x , y , r
```

where (x,y) is the center and r is the radius of the circle.

Circles are output using the first syntax.

8.8. Network Address Types

PostgreSQL offers data types to store IPv4, IPv6, and MAC addresses, as shown in Table 8-17. It is preferable to use these types instead of plain text types to store network addresses, because these types offer input error checking and several specialized operators and functions (see Section 9.11).

Table 8-17. Network Address Types

Name	Storage Size	Description
<code>cidr</code>	12 or 24 bytes	IPv4 and IPv6 networks
<code>inet</code>	12 or 24 bytes	IPv4 and IPv6 hosts and networks
<code>macaddr</code>	6 bytes	MAC addresses

When sorting `inet` or `cidr` data types, IPv4 addresses will always sort before IPv6 addresses, including IPv4 addresses encapsulated or mapped into IPv6 addresses, such as `::10.2.3.4` or `::ffff::10.4.3.2`.

8.8.1. `inet`

The `inet` type holds an IPv4 or IPv6 host address, and optionally the identity of the subnet it is in, all

in one field. The subnet identity is represented by stating how many bits of the host address represent the network address (the “netmask”). If the netmask is 32 and the address is IPv4, then the value does not indicate a subnet, only a single host. In IPv6, the address length is 128 bits, so 128 bits specify a unique host address. Note that if you want to accept networks only, you should use the `cidr` type rather than `inet`.

The input format for this type is `address/y` where `address` is an IPv4 or IPv6 address and `y` is the number of bits in the netmask. If the `/y` part is left off, then the netmask is 32 for IPv4 and 128 for IPv6, so the value represents just a single host. On display, the `/y` portion is suppressed if the netmask specifies a single host.

8.8.2. `cidr`

The `cidr` type holds an IPv4 or IPv6 network specification. Input and output formats follow Classless Internet Domain Routing conventions. The format for specifying networks is `address/y` where `address` is the network represented as an IPv4 or IPv6 address, and `y` is the number of bits in the netmask. If `y` is omitted, it is calculated using assumptions from the older classful network numbering system, except that it will be at least large enough to include all of the octets written in the input. It is an error to specify a network address that has bits set to the right of the specified netmask.

Table 8-18 shows some examples.

Table 8-18. `cidr` Type Input Examples

<code>cidr</code> Input	<code>cidr</code> Output	<code>abbrev(cidr)</code>
192.168.100.128/25	192.168.100.128/25	192.168.100.128/25
192.168/24	192.168.0.0/24	192.168.0/24
192.168/25	192.168.0.0/25	192.168.0.0/25
192.168.1	192.168.1.0/24	192.168.1/24
192.168	192.168.0.0/24	192.168.0/24
128.1	128.1.0.0/16	128.1/16
128	128.0.0.0/16	128.0/16
128.1.2	128.1.2.0/24	128.1.2/24
10.1.2	10.1.2.0/24	10.1.2/24
10.1	10.1.0.0/16	10.1/16
10	10.0.0.0/8	10/8
10.1.2.3/32	10.1.2.3/32	10.1.2.3/32
2001:4f8:3:ba::/64	2001:4f8:3:ba::/64	2001:4f8:3:ba::/64
2001:4f8:3:ba:2e0:81ff:fe22:d1f1/128	2001:4f8:3:ba:2e0:81ff:fe22:d1f1/128	2001:4f8:3:ba:2e0:81ff:fe22:d1f1
::ffff:1.2.3.0/120	::ffff:1.2.3.0/120	::ffff:1.2.3/120
::ffff:1.2.3.0/128	::ffff:1.2.3.0/128	::ffff:1.2.3.0/128

8.8.3. `inet` VS. `cidr`

The essential difference between `inet` and `cidr` data types is that `inet` accepts values with nonzero bits to the right of the netmask, whereas `cidr` does not.

Tip: If you do not like the output format for `inet` or `cidr` values, try the functions `host`, `text`, and `abbrev`.

8.8.4. `macaddr`

The `macaddr` type stores MAC addresses, i.e., Ethernet card hardware addresses (although MAC addresses are used for other purposes as well). Input is accepted in various customary formats, including

```
'08002b:010203'
'08002b-010203'
'0800.2b01.0203'
'08-00-2b-01-02-03'
'08:00:2b:01:02:03'
```

which would all specify the same address. Upper and lower case is accepted for the digits a through f. Output is always in the last of the forms shown.

The directory `contrib/mac` in the PostgreSQL source distribution contains tools that can be used to map MAC addresses to hardware manufacturer names.

8.9. Bit String Types

Bit strings are strings of 1's and 0's. They can be used to store or visualize bit masks. There are two SQL bit types: `bit(n)` and `bit varying(n)`, where n is a positive integer.

`bit` type data must match the length n exactly; it is an error to attempt to store shorter or longer bit strings. `bit varying` data is of variable length up to the maximum length n ; longer strings will be rejected. Writing `bit` without a length is equivalent to `bit(1)`, while `bit varying` without a length specification means unlimited length.

Note: If one explicitly casts a bit-string value to `bit(n)`, it will be truncated or zero-padded on the right to be exactly n bits, without raising an error. Similarly, if one explicitly casts a bit-string value to `bit varying(n)`, it will be truncated on the right if it is more than n bits.

Note: Prior to PostgreSQL 7.2, `bit` data was always silently truncated or zero-padded on the right, with or without an explicit cast. This was changed to comply with the SQL standard.

Refer to Section 4.1.2.3 for information about the syntax of bit string constants. Bit-logical operators and string manipulation functions are available; see Section 9.6.

Example 8-3. Using the bit string types

```
CREATE TABLE test (a BIT(3), b BIT VARYING(5));
INSERT INTO test VALUES (B'101', B'00');
INSERT INTO test VALUES (B'10', B'101');
ERROR: bit string length 2 does not match type bit(3)
INSERT INTO test VALUES (B'10'::bit(3), B'101');
SELECT * FROM test;
 a | b
-----+-----
101 | 00
100 | 101
```

8.10. Arrays

PostgreSQL allows columns of a table to be defined as variable-length multidimensional arrays. Arrays of any built-in or user-defined base type can be created. (Arrays of composite types or domains are not yet supported, however.)

8.10.1. Declaration of Array Types

To illustrate the use of array types, we create this table:

```
CREATE TABLE sal_emp (
    name          text,
    pay_by_quarter integer[],
    schedule      text[][]
);
```

As shown, an array data type is named by appending square brackets (`[]`) to the data type name of the array elements. The above command will create a table named `sal_emp` with a column of type `text` (`name`), a one-dimensional array of type `integer` (`pay_by_quarter`), which represents the employee's salary by quarter, and a two-dimensional array of `text` (`schedule`), which represents the employee's weekly schedule.

The syntax for `CREATE TABLE` allows the exact size of arrays to be specified, for example:

```
CREATE TABLE tictactoe (
    squares integer[3][3]
);
```

However, the current implementation does not enforce the array size limits — the behavior is the same as for arrays of unspecified length.

Actually, the current implementation does not enforce the declared number of dimensions either. Arrays of a particular element type are all considered to be of the same type, regardless of size or number of

dimensions. So, declaring number of dimensions or sizes in `CREATE TABLE` is simply documentation, it does not affect runtime behavior.

An alternative syntax, which conforms to the SQL:1999 standard, may be used for one-dimensional arrays. `pay_by_quarter` could have been defined as:

```
pay_by_quarter integer ARRAY[4],
```

This syntax requires an integer constant to denote the array size. As before, however, PostgreSQL does not enforce the size restriction.

8.10.2. Array Value Input

To write an array value as a literal constant, enclose the element values within curly braces and separate them by commas. (If you know C, this is not unlike the C syntax for initializing structures.) You may put double quotes around any element value, and must do so if it contains commas or curly braces. (More details appear below.) Thus, the general format of an array constant is the following:

```
'{ val1 delim val2 delim ... }'
```

where *delim* is the delimiter character for the type, as recorded in its `pg_type` entry. Among the standard data types provided in the PostgreSQL distribution, type `box` uses a semicolon (;) but all the others use comma (.). Each *val* is either a constant of the array element type, or a subarray. An example of an array constant is

```
'{{1,2,3},{4,5,6},{7,8,9}}'
```

This constant is a two-dimensional, 3-by-3 array consisting of three subarrays of integers.

(These kinds of array constants are actually only a special case of the generic type constants discussed in Section 4.1.2.5. The constant is initially treated as a string and passed to the array input conversion routine. An explicit type specification might be necessary.)

Now we can show some `INSERT` statements.

```
INSERT INTO sal_emp
VALUES ('Bill',
       '{10000, 10000, 10000, 10000}',
       '{{"meeting", "lunch"}, {"meeting"}}');
ERROR: multidimensional arrays must have array expressions with matching dimensions
```

Note that multidimensional arrays must have matching extents for each dimension. A mismatch causes an error report.

```
INSERT INTO sal_emp
VALUES ('Bill',
       '{10000, 10000, 10000, 10000}',
       '{{"meeting", "lunch"}, {"training", "presentation"}}');

INSERT INTO sal_emp
VALUES ('Carol',
       '{20000, 25000, 25000, 25000}',
       '{{"breakfast", "consulting"}, {"meeting", "lunch"}}');
```

A limitation of the present array implementation is that individual elements of an array cannot be SQL null values. The entire array can be set to null, but you can't have an array with some elements null and some not.

The result of the previous two inserts looks like this:

```
SELECT * FROM sal_emp;
 name |          pay_by_quarter          |          schedule
-----+-----+-----
 Bill | {10000,10000,10000,10000} | {{meeting,lunch},{training,presentation}}
 Carol | {20000,25000,25000,25000} | {{breakfast,consulting},{meeting,lunch}}
(2 rows)
```

The ARRAY constructor syntax may also be used:

```
INSERT INTO sal_emp
VALUES ('Bill',
ARRAY[10000, 10000, 10000, 10000],
ARRAY[['meeting', 'lunch'], ['training', 'presentation']]);

INSERT INTO sal_emp
VALUES ('Carol',
ARRAY[20000, 25000, 25000, 25000],
ARRAY[['breakfast', 'consulting'], ['meeting', 'lunch']]);
```

Notice that the array elements are ordinary SQL constants or expressions; for instance, string literals are single quoted, instead of double quoted as they would be in an array literal. The ARRAY constructor syntax is discussed in more detail in Section 4.2.10.

8.10.3. Accessing Arrays

Now, we can run some queries on the table. First, we show how to access a single element of an array at a time. This query retrieves the names of the employees whose pay changed in the second quarter:

```
SELECT name FROM sal_emp WHERE pay_by_quarter[1] <> pay_by_quarter[2];

 name
-----
 Carol
(1 row)
```

The array subscript numbers are written within square brackets. By default PostgreSQL uses the one-based numbering convention for arrays, that is, an array of n elements starts with `array[1]` and ends with `array[n]`.

This query retrieves the third quarter pay of all employees:

```
SELECT pay_by_quarter[3] FROM sal_emp;

 pay_by_quarter
```

```

-----
          10000
          25000
(2 rows)

```

We can also access arbitrary rectangular slices of an array, or subarrays. An array slice is denoted by writing *lower-bound:upper-bound* for one or more array dimensions. For example, this query retrieves the first item on Bill's schedule for the first two days of the week:

```

SELECT schedule[1:2][1:1] FROM sal_emp WHERE name = 'Bill';

          schedule
-----
  {{meeting},{training}}
(1 row)

```

We could also have written

```

SELECT schedule[1:2][1] FROM sal_emp WHERE name = 'Bill';

```

with the same result. An array subscripting operation is always taken to represent an array slice if any of the subscripts are written in the form *lower:upper*. A lower bound of 1 is assumed for any subscript where only one value is specified, as in this example:

```

SELECT schedule[1:2][2] FROM sal_emp WHERE name = 'Bill';

          schedule
-----
  {{meeting,lunch},{training,presentation}}
(1 row)

```

The current dimensions of any array value can be retrieved with the `array_dims` function:

```

SELECT array_dims(schedule) FROM sal_emp WHERE name = 'Carol';

          array_dims
-----
  [1:2][1:1]
(1 row)

```

`array_dims` produces a text result, which is convenient for people to read but perhaps not so convenient for programs. Dimensions can also be retrieved with `array_upper` and `array_lower`, which return the upper and lower bound of a specified array dimension, respectively.

```

SELECT array_upper(schedule, 1) FROM sal_emp WHERE name = 'Carol';

          array_upper
-----
                2
(1 row)

```

8.10.4. Modifying Arrays

An array value can be replaced completely:

```
UPDATE sal_emp SET pay_by_quarter = '{25000,25000,27000,27000}'
WHERE name = 'Carol';
```

or using the ARRAY expression syntax:

```
UPDATE sal_emp SET pay_by_quarter = ARRAY[25000,25000,27000,27000]
WHERE name = 'Carol';
```

An array may also be updated at a single element:

```
UPDATE sal_emp SET pay_by_quarter[4] = 15000
WHERE name = 'Bill';
```

or updated in a slice:

```
UPDATE sal_emp SET pay_by_quarter[1:2] = '{27000,27000}'
WHERE name = 'Carol';
```

A stored array value can be enlarged by assigning to an element adjacent to those already present, or by assigning to a slice that is adjacent to or overlaps the data already present. For example, if array `myarray` currently has 4 elements, it will have five elements after an update that assigns to `myarray[5]`. Currently, enlargement in this fashion is only allowed for one-dimensional arrays, not multidimensional arrays.

Array slice assignment allows creation of arrays that do not use one-based subscripts. For example one might assign to `myarray[-2:7]` to create an array with subscript values running from -2 to 7.

New array values can also be constructed by using the concatenation operator, `||`.

```
SELECT ARRAY[1,2] || ARRAY[3,4];
?column?
-----
{1,2,3,4}
(1 row)

SELECT ARRAY[5,6] || ARRAY[[1,2],[3,4]];
?column?
-----
{{5,6},{1,2},{3,4}}
(1 row)
```

The concatenation operator allows a single element to be pushed on to the beginning or end of a one-dimensional array. It also accepts two N -dimensional arrays, or an N -dimensional and an $N+1$ -dimensional array.

When a single element is pushed on to the beginning of a one-dimensional array, the result is an array with a lower bound subscript equal to the right-hand operand's lower bound subscript, minus one. When a single element is pushed on to the end of a one-dimensional array, the result is an array retaining the lower bound of the left-hand operand. For example:

```
SELECT array_dims(1 || ARRAY[2,3]);
 array_dims
-----
 [0:2]
(1 row)

SELECT array_dims(ARRAY[1,2] || 3);
 array_dims
-----
 [1:3]
(1 row)
```

When two arrays with an equal number of dimensions are concatenated, the result retains the lower bound subscript of the left-hand operand's outer dimension. The result is an array comprising every element of the left-hand operand followed by every element of the right-hand operand. For example:

```
SELECT array_dims(ARRAY[1,2] || ARRAY[3,4,5]);
 array_dims
-----
 [1:5]
(1 row)

SELECT array_dims(ARRAY[[1,2],[3,4]] || ARRAY[[5,6],[7,8],[9,0]]);
 array_dims
-----
 [1:5][1:2]
(1 row)
```

When an N -dimensional array is pushed on to the beginning or end of an $N+1$ -dimensional array, the result is analogous to the element-array case above. Each N -dimensional sub-array is essentially an element of the $N+1$ -dimensional array's outer dimension. For example:

```
SELECT array_dims(ARRAY[1,2] || ARRAY[[3,4],[5,6]]);
 array_dims
-----
 [0:2][1:2]
(1 row)
```

An array can also be constructed by using the functions `array_prepend`, `array_append`, or `array_cat`. The first two only support one-dimensional arrays, but `array_cat` supports multidimensional arrays. Note that the concatenation operator discussed above is preferred over direct use of these functions. In fact, the functions are primarily for use in implementing the concatenation

operator. However, they may be directly useful in the creation of user-defined aggregates. Some examples:

```
SELECT array_prepend(1, ARRAY[2,3]);
   array_prepend
-----
   {1,2,3}
(1 row)

SELECT array_append(ARRAY[1,2], 3);
   array_append
-----
   {1,2,3}
(1 row)

SELECT array_cat(ARRAY[1,2], ARRAY[3,4]);
   array_cat
-----
   {1,2,3,4}
(1 row)

SELECT array_cat(ARRAY[[1,2],[3,4]], ARRAY[5,6]);
   array_cat
-----
   {{1,2},{3,4},{5,6}}
(1 row)

SELECT array_cat(ARRAY[5,6], ARRAY[[1,2],[3,4]]);
   array_cat
-----
   {{5,6},{1,2},{3,4}}
```

8.10.5. Searching in Arrays

To search for a value in an array, you must check each value of the array. This can be done by hand, if you know the size of the array. For example:

```
SELECT * FROM sal_emp WHERE pay_by_quarter[1] = 10000 OR
                               pay_by_quarter[2] = 10000 OR
                               pay_by_quarter[3] = 10000 OR
                               pay_by_quarter[4] = 10000;
```

However, this quickly becomes tedious for large arrays, and is not helpful if the size of the array is uncertain. An alternative method is described in Section 9.17. The above query could be replaced by:

```
SELECT * FROM sal_emp WHERE 10000 = ANY (pay_by_quarter);
```

In addition, you could find rows where the array had all values equal to 10000 with:

```
SELECT * FROM sal_emp WHERE 10000 = ALL (pay_by_quarter);
```

Tip: Arrays are not sets; searching for specific array elements may be a sign of database misdesign. Consider using a separate table with a row for each item that would be an array element. This will be easier to search, and is likely to scale up better to large numbers of elements.

8.10.6. Array Input and Output Syntax

The external text representation of an array value consists of items that are interpreted according to the I/O conversion rules for the array's element type, plus decoration that indicates the array structure. The decoration consists of curly braces (`{` and `}`) around the array value plus delimiter characters between adjacent items. The delimiter character is usually a comma (`,`) but can be something else: it is determined by the `typpdelim` setting for the array's element type. (Among the standard data types provided in the PostgreSQL distribution, type `box` uses a semicolon (`;`) but all the others use comma.) In a multidimensional array, each dimension (row, plane, cube, etc.) gets its own level of curly braces, and delimiters must be written between adjacent curly-braced entities of the same level.

The array output routine will put double quotes around element values if they are empty strings or contain curly braces, delimiter characters, double quotes, backslashes, or white space. Double quotes and backslashes embedded in element values will be backslash-escaped. For numeric data types it is safe to assume that double quotes will never appear, but for textual data types one should be prepared to cope with either presence or absence of quotes. (This is a change in behavior from pre-7.2 PostgreSQL releases.)

By default, the lower bound index value of an array's dimensions is set to one. If any of an array's dimensions has a lower bound index not equal to one, an additional decoration that indicates the actual array dimensions will precede the array structure decoration. This decoration consists of square brackets (`[]`) around each array dimension's lower and upper bounds, with a colon (`:`) delimiter character in between. The array dimension decoration is followed by an equal sign (`=`). For example:

```
SELECT 1 || ARRAY[2,3] AS array;

      array
-----
 [0:2]={1,2,3}
(1 row)

SELECT ARRAY[1,2] || ARRAY[[3,4]] AS array;

      array
-----
 [0:1][1:2]={{1,2},{3,4}}
(1 row)
```

This syntax can also be used to specify non-default array subscripts in an array literal. For example:

```
SELECT f1[1][-2][3] AS e1, f1[1][-1][5] AS e2
FROM (SELECT '[1:1][-2:-1][3:5]={{1,2,3},{4,5,6}}'::int[] AS f1) AS ss;
```

```

e1 | e2
----+----
 1 |  6
(1 row)

```

As shown previously, when writing an array value you may write double quotes around any individual array element. You *must* do so if the element value would otherwise confuse the array-value parser. For example, elements containing curly braces, commas (or whatever the delimiter character is), double quotes, backslashes, or leading or trailing whitespace must be double-quoted. To put a double quote or backslash in a quoted array element value, precede it with a backslash. Alternatively, you can use backslash-escaping to protect all data characters that would otherwise be taken as array syntax.

You may write whitespace before a left brace or after a right brace. You may also write whitespace before or after any individual item string. In all of these cases the whitespace will be ignored. However, whitespace within double-quoted elements, or surrounded on both sides by non-whitespace characters of an element, is not ignored.

Note: Remember that what you write in an SQL command will first be interpreted as a string literal, and then as an array. This doubles the number of backslashes you need. For example, to insert a `text` array value containing a backslash and a double quote, you'd need to write

```
INSERT ... VALUES ('{"\\", "\""}');
```

The string-literal processor removes one level of backslashes, so that what arrives at the array-value parser looks like `{"\\", "\""}`. In turn, the strings fed to the `text` data type's input routine become `\` and `"` respectively. (If we were working with a data type whose input routine also treated backslashes specially, `bytea` for example, we might need as many as eight backslashes in the command to get one backslash into the stored array element.) Dollar quoting (see Section 4.1.2.2) may be used to avoid the need to double backslashes.

Tip: The `ARRAY` constructor syntax (see Section 4.2.10) is often easier to work with than the array-literal syntax when writing array values in SQL commands. In `ARRAY`, individual element values are written the same way they would be written when not members of an array.

8.11. Composite Types

A *composite type* describes the structure of a row or record; it is in essence just a list of field names and their data types. PostgreSQL allows values of composite types to be used in many of the same ways that simple types can be used. For example, a column of a table can be declared to be of a composite type.

8.11.1. Declaration of Composite Types

Here are two simple examples of defining composite types:

```
CREATE TYPE complex AS (
    r      double precision,
    i      double precision
);

CREATE TYPE inventory_item AS (
    name          text,
    supplier_id   integer,
    price         numeric
);
```

The syntax is comparable to `CREATE TABLE`, except that only field names and types can be specified; no constraints (such as `NOT NULL`) can presently be included. Note that the `AS` keyword is essential; without it, the system will think a quite different kind of `CREATE TYPE` command is meant, and you'll get odd syntax errors.

Having defined the types, we can use them to create tables:

```
CREATE TABLE on_hand (
    item      inventory_item,
    count     integer
);

INSERT INTO on_hand VALUES (ROW('fuzzy dice', 42, 1.99), 1000);
```

or functions:

```
CREATE FUNCTION price_extension(inventory_item, integer) RETURNS numeric
AS 'SELECT $1.price * $2' LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT price_extension(item, 10) FROM on_hand;
```

Whenever you create a table, a composite type is also automatically created, with the same name as the table, to represent the table's row type. For example, had we said

```
CREATE TABLE inventory_item (
    name          text,
    supplier_id   integer REFERENCES suppliers,
    price         numeric CHECK (price > 0)
);
```

then the same `inventory_item` composite type shown above would come into being as a byproduct, and could be used just as above. Note however an important restriction of the current implementation: since no constraints are associated with a composite type, the constraints shown in the table definition *do not apply* to values of the composite type outside the table. (A partial workaround is to use domain types as members of composite types.)

8.11.2. Composite Value Input

To write a composite value as a literal constant, enclose the field values within parentheses and separate them by commas. You may put double quotes around any field value, and must do so if it contains commas or parentheses. (More details appear below.) Thus, the general format of a composite constant is the following:

```
'( val1 , val2 , ... )'
```

An example is

```
'("fuzzy dice",42,1.99)'
```

which would be a valid value of the `inventory_item` type defined above. To make a field be NULL, write no characters at all in its position in the list. For example, this constant specifies a NULL third field:

```
'("fuzzy dice",42,)'
```

If you want an empty string rather than NULL, write double quotes:

```
'( "",42, )'
```

Here the first field is a non-NULL empty string, the third is NULL.

(These constants are actually only a special case of the generic type constants discussed in Section 4.1.2.5. The constant is initially treated as a string and passed to the composite-type input conversion routine. An explicit type specification might be necessary.)

The ROW expression syntax may also be used to construct composite values. In most cases this is considerably simpler to use than the string-literal syntax, since you don't have to worry about multiple layers of quoting. We already used this method above:

```
ROW('fuzzy dice', 42, 1.99)
ROW("", 42, NULL)
```

The ROW keyword is actually optional as long as you have more than one field in the expression, so these can simplify to

```
('fuzzy dice', 42, 1.99)
("", 42, NULL)
```

The ROW expression syntax is discussed in more detail in Section 4.2.11.

8.11.3. Accessing Composite Types

To access a field of a composite column, one writes a dot and the field name, much like selecting a field from a table name. In fact, it's so much like selecting from a table name that you often have to use parentheses to keep from confusing the parser. For example, you might try to select some subfields from our `on_hand` example table with something like:

```
SELECT item.name FROM on_hand WHERE item.price > 9.99;
```

This will not work since the name `item` is taken to be a table name, not a field name, per SQL syntax rules. You must write it like this:

```
SELECT (item).name FROM on_hand WHERE (item).price > 9.99;
```

or if you need to use the table name as well (for instance in a multi-table query), like this:

```
SELECT (on_hand.item).name FROM on_hand WHERE (on_hand.item).price > 9.99;
```

Now the parenthesized object is correctly interpreted as a reference to the `item` column, and then the subfield can be selected from it.

Similar syntactic issues apply whenever you select a field from a composite value. For instance, to select just one field from the result of a function that returns a composite value, you'd need to write something like

```
SELECT (my_func(...)).field FROM ...
```

Without the extra parentheses, this will provoke a syntax error.

8.11.4. Modifying Composite Types

Here are some examples of the proper syntax for inserting and updating composite columns. First, inserting or updating a whole column:

```
INSERT INTO mytab (complex_col) VALUES((1.1,2.2));
```

```
UPDATE mytab SET complex_col = ROW(1.1,2.2) WHERE ...;
```

The first example omits `ROW`, the second uses it; we could have done it either way.

We can update an individual subfield of a composite column:

```
UPDATE mytab SET complex_col.r = (complex_col).r + 1 WHERE ...;
```

Notice here that we don't need to (and indeed cannot) put parentheses around the column name appearing just after `SET`, but we do need parentheses when referencing the same column in the expression to the right of the equal sign.

And we can specify subfields as targets for `INSERT`, too:

```
INSERT INTO mytab (complex_col.r, complex_col.i) VALUES(1.1, 2.2);
```

Had we not supplied values for all the subfields of the column, the remaining subfields would have been filled with null values.

8.11.5. Composite Type Input and Output Syntax

The external text representation of a composite value consists of items that are interpreted according to the I/O conversion rules for the individual field types, plus decoration that indicates the composite structure. The decoration consists of parentheses (`(` and `)`) around the whole value, plus commas (`,`) between adjacent items. Whitespace outside the parentheses is ignored, but within the parentheses it is considered

part of the field value, and may or may not be significant depending on the input conversion rules for the field data type. For example, in

```
' ( 42) '
```

the whitespace will be ignored if the field type is integer, but not if it is text.

As shown previously, when writing a composite value you may write double quotes around any individual field value. You *must* do so if the field value would otherwise confuse the composite-value parser. In particular, fields containing parentheses, commas, double quotes, or backslashes must be double-quoted. To put a double quote or backslash in a quoted composite field value, precede it with a backslash. (Also, a pair of double quotes within a double-quoted field value is taken to represent a double quote character, analogously to the rules for single quotes in SQL literal strings.) Alternatively, you can use backslash-escaping to protect all data characters that would otherwise be taken as composite syntax.

A completely empty field value (no characters at all between the commas or parentheses) represents a NULL. To write a value that is an empty string rather than NULL, write " ".

The composite output routine will put double quotes around field values if they are empty strings or contain parentheses, commas, double quotes, backslashes, or white space. (Doing so for white space is not essential, but aids legibility.) Double quotes and backslashes embedded in field values will be doubled.

Note: Remember that what you write in an SQL command will first be interpreted as a string literal, and then as a composite. This doubles the number of backslashes you need. For example, to insert a `text` field containing a double quote and a backslash in a composite value, you'd need to write

```
INSERT ... VALUES ('"\\""\\"");
```

The string-literal processor removes one level of backslashes, so that what arrives at the composite-value parser looks like ("\""). In turn, the string fed to the `text` data type's input routine becomes "\. (If we were working with a data type whose input routine also treated backslashes specially, `bytea` for example, we might need as many as eight backslashes in the command to get one backslash into the stored composite field.) Dollar quoting (see Section 4.1.2.2) may be used to avoid the need to double backslashes.

Tip: The `ROW` constructor syntax is usually easier to work with than the composite-literal syntax when writing composite values in SQL commands. In `ROW`, individual field values are written the same way they would be written when not members of a composite.

8.12. Object Identifier Types

Object identifiers (OIDs) are used internally by PostgreSQL as primary keys for various system tables. An OID system column is also added to user-created tables, unless `WITHOUT OIDS` is specified when the table is created, or the `default_with_oids` configuration variable is set to `false`. Type `oid` represents an object identifier. There are also several alias types for `oid`: `regproc`, `regprocedure`, `regoper`, `regoperator`, `regclass`, and `regtype`. Table 8-19 shows an overview.

The `oid` type is currently implemented as an unsigned four-byte integer. Therefore, it is not large enough to provide database-wide uniqueness in large databases, or even in large individual tables. So, using a user-created table's OID column as a primary key is discouraged. OIDs are best used only for references to system tables.

Note: OIDs are included by default in user-created tables in PostgreSQL 8.0.0. However, this behavior is likely to change in a future version of PostgreSQL. Eventually, user-created tables will not include an OID system column unless `WITH OIDS` is specified when the table is created, or the `default_with_oids` configuration variable is set to true. If your application requires the presence of an OID system column in a table, it should specify `WITH OIDS` when that table is created to ensure compatibility with future releases of PostgreSQL.

The `oid` type itself has few operations beyond comparison. It can be cast to integer, however, and then manipulated using the standard integer operators. (Beware of possible signed-versus-unsigned confusion if you do this.)

The OID alias types have no operations of their own except for specialized input and output routines. These routines are able to accept and display symbolic names for system objects, rather than the raw numeric value that type `oid` would use. The alias types allow simplified lookup of OID values for objects. For example, to examine the `pg_attribute` rows related to a table `mytable`, one could write

```
SELECT * FROM pg_attribute WHERE attrelid = 'mytable'::regclass;
```

rather than

```
SELECT * FROM pg_attribute
WHERE attrelid = (SELECT oid FROM pg_class WHERE relname = 'mytable');
```

While that doesn't look all that bad by itself, it's still oversimplified. A far more complicated sub-select would be needed to select the right OID if there are multiple tables named `mytable` in different schemas. The `regclass` input converter handles the table lookup according to the schema path setting, and so it does the "right thing" automatically. Similarly, casting a table's OID to `regclass` is handy for symbolic display of a numeric OID.

Table 8-19. Object Identifier Types

Name	References	Description	Value Example
<code>oid</code>	any	numeric object identifier	564182
<code>regproc</code>	<code>pg_proc</code>	function name	sum
<code>regprocedure</code>	<code>pg_proc</code>	function with argument types	sum(int4)
<code>regoper</code>	<code>pg_operator</code>	operator name	+
<code>regoperator</code>	<code>pg_operator</code>	operator with argument types	*(integer, integer) or -(NONE, integer)
<code>regclass</code>	<code>pg_class</code>	relation name	<code>pg_type</code>
<code>regtype</code>	<code>pg_type</code>	data type name	integer

All of the OID alias types accept schema-qualified names, and will display schema-qualified names on

output if the object would not be found in the current search path without being qualified. The `regproc` and `regoper` alias types will only accept input names that are unique (not overloaded), so they are of limited use; for most uses `regprocedure` or `regoperator` is more appropriate. For `regoperator`, unary operators are identified by writing `NONE` for the unused operand.

Another identifier type used by the system is `xid`, or transaction (abbreviated `xact`) identifier. This is the data type of the system columns `xmin` and `xmax`. Transaction identifiers are 32-bit quantities.

A third identifier type used by the system is `cid`, or command identifier. This is the data type of the system columns `cmin` and `cmax`. Command identifiers are also 32-bit quantities.

A final identifier type used by the system is `tid`, or tuple identifier (row identifier). This is the data type of the system column `ctid`. A tuple ID is a pair (block number, tuple index within block) that identifies the physical location of the row within its table.

(The system columns are further explained in Section 5.4.)

8.13. Pseudo-Types

The PostgreSQL type system contains a number of special-purpose entries that are collectively called *pseudo-types*. A pseudo-type cannot be used as a column data type, but it can be used to declare a function's argument or result type. Each of the available pseudo-types is useful in situations where a function's behavior does not correspond to simply taking or returning a value of a specific SQL data type. Table 8-20 lists the existing pseudo-types.

Table 8-20. Pseudo-Types

Name	Description
<code>any</code>	Indicates that a function accepts any input data type whatever.
<code>anyarray</code>	Indicates that a function accepts any array data type (see Section 31.2.5).
<code>anyelement</code>	Indicates that a function accepts any data type (see Section 31.2.5).
<code>cstring</code>	Indicates that a function accepts or returns a null-terminated C string.
<code>internal</code>	Indicates that a function accepts or returns a server-internal data type.
<code>language_handler</code>	A procedural language call handler is declared to return <code>language_handler</code> .
<code>record</code>	Identifies a function returning an unspecified row type.
<code>trigger</code>	A trigger function is declared to return <code>trigger</code> .
<code>void</code>	Indicates that a function returns no value.
<code>opaque</code>	An obsolete type name that formerly served all the above purposes.

Functions coded in C (whether built-in or dynamically loaded) may be declared to accept or return any of these pseudo data types. It is up to the function author to ensure that the function will behave safely when a pseudo-type is used as an argument type.

Functions coded in procedural languages may use pseudo-types only as allowed by their implementation languages. At present the procedural languages all forbid use of a pseudo-type as argument type, and allow only `void` and `record` as a result type (plus `trigger` when the function is used as a trigger). Some also support polymorphic functions using the types `anyarray` and `anyelement`.

The `internal` pseudo-type is used to declare functions that are meant only to be called internally by the database system, and not by direct invocation in a SQL query. If a function has at least one `internal`-type argument then it cannot be called from SQL. To preserve the type safety of this restriction it is important to follow this coding rule: do not create any function that is declared to return `internal` unless it has at least one `internal` argument.

Chapter 9. Functions and Operators

PostgreSQL provides a large number of functions and operators for the built-in data types. Users can also define their own functions and operators, as described in Part V. The psql commands `\df` and `\do` can be used to show the list of all actually available functions and operators, respectively.

If you are concerned about portability then take note that most of the functions and operators described in this chapter, with the exception of the most trivial arithmetic and comparison operators and some explicitly marked functions, are not specified by the SQL standard. Some of the extended functionality is present in other SQL database management systems, and in many cases this functionality is compatible and consistent between the various implementations.

9.1. Logical Operators

The usual logical operators are available:

AND
OR
NOT

SQL uses a three-valued Boolean logic where the null value represents “unknown”. Observe the following truth tables:

a	b	a AND b	a OR b
TRUE	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
TRUE	FALSE	FALSE	TRUE
TRUE	NULL	NULL	TRUE
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE
FALSE	NULL	FALSE	NULL
NULL	NULL	NULL	NULL

a	NOT a
TRUE	FALSE
FALSE	TRUE
NULL	NULL

The operators AND and OR are commutative, that is, you can switch the left and right operand without affecting the result. But see Section 4.2.12 for more information about the order of evaluation of subexpressions.

9.2. Comparison Operators

The usual comparison operators are available, shown in Table 9-1.

Table 9-1. Comparison Operators

Operator	Description
<	less than
>	greater than
<=	less than or equal to
>=	greater than or equal to
=	equal
<> or !=	not equal

Note: The != operator is converted to <> in the parser stage. It is not possible to implement != and <> operators that do different things.

Comparison operators are available for all data types where this makes sense. All comparison operators are binary operators that return values of type `boolean`; expressions like `1 < 2 < 3` are not valid (because there is no `<` operator to compare a Boolean value with 3).

In addition to the comparison operators, the special `BETWEEN` construct is available.

```
a BETWEEN x AND y
```

is equivalent to

```
a >= x AND a <= y
```

Similarly,

```
a NOT BETWEEN x AND y
```

is equivalent to

```
a < x OR a > y
```

There is no difference between the two respective forms apart from the CPU cycles required to rewrite the first one into the second one internally.

To check whether a value is or is not null, use the constructs

```
expression IS NULL
expression IS NOT NULL
```

or the equivalent, but nonstandard, constructs

```
expression ISNULL
expression NOTNULL
```

Do *not* write `expression = NULL` because `NULL` is not “equal to” `NULL`. (The null value represents an unknown value, and it is not known whether two unknown values are equal.) This behavior conforms to the SQL standard.

Tip: Some applications may expect that `expression = NULL` returns true if `expression` evaluates to the null value. It is highly recommended that these applications be modified to comply with the SQL standard. However, if that cannot be done the `transform_null_equals` configuration variable is available. If it is enabled, PostgreSQL will convert `x = NULL` clauses to `x IS NULL`. This was the default behavior in PostgreSQL releases 6.5 through 7.1.

The ordinary comparison operators yield null (signifying “unknown”) when either input is null. Another way to do comparisons is with the `IS DISTINCT FROM` construct:

```
expression IS DISTINCT FROM expression
```

For non-null inputs this is the same as the `<>` operator. However, when both inputs are null it will return false, and when just one input is null it will return true. Thus it effectively acts as though null were a normal data value, rather than “unknown”.

Boolean values can also be tested using the constructs

```
expression IS TRUE
expression IS NOT TRUE
expression IS FALSE
expression IS NOT FALSE
expression IS UNKNOWN
expression IS NOT UNKNOWN
```

These will always return true or false, never a null value, even when the operand is null. A null input is treated as the logical value “unknown”. Notice that `IS UNKNOWN` and `IS NOT UNKNOWN` are effectively the same as `IS NULL` and `IS NOT NULL`, respectively, except that the input expression must be of Boolean type.

9.3. Mathematical Functions and Operators

Mathematical operators are provided for many PostgreSQL types. For types without common mathematical conventions for all possible permutations (e.g., date/time types) we describe the actual behavior in subsequent sections.

Table 9-2 shows the available mathematical operators.

Table 9-2. Mathematical Operators

Operator	Description	Example	Result
+	addition	2 + 3	5
-	subtraction	2 - 3	-1
*	multiplication	2 * 3	6
/	division (integer division truncates results)	4 / 2	2
%	modulo (remainder)	5 % 4	1
^	exponentiation	2.0 ^ 3.0	8

Operator	Description	Example	Result
/	square root	/ 25.0	5
/	cube root	/ 27.0	3
!	factorial	5 !	120
!!	factorial (prefix operator)	!! 5	120
@	absolute value	@ -5.0	5
&	bitwise AND	91 & 15	11
	bitwise OR	32 3	35
#	bitwise XOR	17 # 5	20
~	bitwise NOT	~1	-2
<<	bitwise shift left	1 << 4	16
>>	bitwise shift right	8 >> 2	2

The bitwise operators work only on integral data types, whereas the others are available for all numeric data types. The bitwise operators are also available for the bit string types `bit` and `bit varying`, as shown in Table 9-10.

Table 9-3 shows the available mathematical functions. In the table, `dp` indicates `double precision`. Many of these functions are provided in multiple forms with different argument types. Except where noted, any given form of a function returns the same data type as its argument. The functions working with `double precision` data are mostly implemented on top of the host system's C library; accuracy and behavior in boundary cases may therefore vary depending on the host system.

Table 9-3. Mathematical Functions

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>abs(x)</code>	(same as <code>x</code>)	absolute value	<code>abs(-17.4)</code>	17.4
<code>cbrt(dp)</code>	<code>dp</code>	cube root	<code>cbrt(27.0)</code>	3
<code>ceil(dp or numeric)</code>	(same as input)	smallest integer not less than argument	<code>ceil(-42.8)</code>	-42
<code>ceiling(dp or numeric)</code>	(same as input)	smallest integer not less than argument (alias for <code>ceil</code>)	<code>ceiling(-95.3)</code>	-95
<code>degrees(dp)</code>	<code>dp</code>	radians to degrees	<code>degrees(0.5)</code>	28.6478897565412
<code>exp(dp or numeric)</code>	(same as input)	exponential	<code>exp(1.0)</code>	2.71828182845905
<code>floor(dp or numeric)</code>	(same as input)	largest integer not greater than argument	<code>floor(-42.8)</code>	-43
<code>ln(dp or numeric)</code>	(same as input)	natural logarithm	<code>ln(2.0)</code>	0.693147180559945
<code>log(dp or numeric)</code>	(same as input)	base 10 logarithm	<code>log(100.0)</code>	2

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>log(b numeric, x numeric)</code>	numeric	logarithm to base b	<code>log(2.0, 64.0)</code>	6.0000000000
<code>mod(y, x)</code>	(same as argument types)	remainder of y/x	<code>mod(9, 4)</code>	1
<code>pi()</code>	dp	“ π ” constant	<code>pi()</code>	3.14159265358979
<code>power(a dp, b dp)</code>	dp	a raised to the power of b	<code>power(9.0, 3.0)</code>	729
<code>power(a numeric, b numeric)</code>	numeric	a raised to the power of b	<code>power(9.0, 3.0)</code>	729
<code>radians(dp)</code>	dp	degrees to radians	<code>radians(45.0)</code>	0.785398163397448
<code>random()</code>	dp	random value between 0.0 and 1.0	<code>random()</code>	
<code>round(dp or numeric)</code>	(same as input)	round to nearest integer	<code>round(42.4)</code>	42
<code>round(v numeric, s integer)</code>	numeric	round to s decimal places	<code>round(42.4382, 2)</code>	42.44
<code>setseed(dp)</code>	integer	set seed for subsequent <code>random()</code> calls	<code>setseed(0.54823)</code>	1177314959
<code>sign(dp or numeric)</code>	(same as input)	sign of the argument (-1, 0, +1)	<code>sign(-8.4)</code>	-1
<code>sqrt(dp or numeric)</code>	(same as input)	square root	<code>sqrt(2.0)</code>	1.4142135623731
<code>trunc(dp or numeric)</code>	(same as input)	truncate toward zero	<code>trunc(42.8)</code>	42
<code>trunc(v numeric, s integer)</code>	numeric	truncate to s decimal places	<code>trunc(42.4382, 2)</code>	42.43
<code>width_bucket(op numeric, b1 numeric, b2 numeric, count integer)</code>	integer	return the bucket to which operand would be assigned in an equidepth histogram with count buckets, an upper bound of b1, and a lower bound of b2	<code>width_bucket(5.35, 0.024, 10.06, 5)</code>	

Finally, Table 9-4 shows the available trigonometric functions. All trigonometric functions take arguments and return values of type `double precision`.

Table 9-4. Trigonometric Functions

Function	Description
<code>acos(x)</code>	inverse cosine
<code>asin(x)</code>	inverse sine
<code>atan(x)</code>	inverse tangent
<code>atan2(x, y)</code>	inverse tangent of x/y
<code>cos(x)</code>	cosine
<code>cot(x)</code>	cotangent
<code>sin(x)</code>	sine
<code>tan(x)</code>	tangent

9.4. String Functions and Operators

This section describes functions and operators for examining and manipulating string values. Strings in this context include values of all the types `character`, `character varying`, and `text`. Unless otherwise noted, all of the functions listed below work on all of these types, but be wary of potential effects of the automatic padding when using the `character` type. Generally, the functions described here also work on data of non-string types by converting that data to a string representation first. Some functions also exist natively for the bit-string types.

SQL defines some string functions with a special syntax where certain key words rather than commas are used to separate the arguments. Details are in Table 9-5. These functions are also implemented using the regular syntax for function invocation. (See Table 9-6.)

Table 9-5. SQL String Functions and Operators

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>string string</code>	<code>text</code>	String concatenation	<code>'Post' 'greSQL'</code>	PostgreSQL
<code>bit_length(string)</code>	<code>integer</code>	Number of bits in string	<code>bit_length('jose')</code>	32
<code>char_length(string)</code> or <code>character_length(string)</code>	<code>integer</code>	Number of characters in string	<code>char_length('jose')</code>	4

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>convert(string using conversion_name)</code>	text	Change encoding using specified conversion name. Conversions can be defined by <code>CREATE CONVERSION</code> . Also there are some pre-defined conversion names. See Table 9-7 for available conversion names.	<code>convert('PostgreSQL' using iso_8859_1_to_utf8)</code>	PostgreSQL in Unicode (UTF-8) encoding
<code>lower(string)</code>	text	Convert string to lower case	<code>lower('TOM')</code>	tom
<code>octet_length(string)</code>	integer	Number of bytes in string	<code>octet_length('jose')</code>	5
<code>overlay(string placing string from integer [for integer])</code>	text	Replace substring	<code>overlay('Txxxxas' placing 'hom' from 2 for 4)</code>	Thomas
<code>position(substring in string)</code>	integer	Location of specified substring	<code>position('om' in 'Thomas')</code>	3
<code>substring(string [from integer] [for integer])</code>	text	Extract substring	<code>substring('Thomas' from 2 for 3)</code>	tom
<code>substring(string from pattern)</code>	text	Extract substring matching POSIX regular expression	<code>substring('Thomas' from '...\$')</code>	as
<code>substring(string from pattern for escape)</code>	text	Extract substring matching SQL regular expression	<code>substring('Thomas' from '%#"o_a#"' for '#')</code>	as
<code>trim([leading trailing both] [characters] from string)</code>	text	Remove the longest string containing only the characters (a space by default) from the start/end/both ends of the string.	<code>trim(both 'x' from 'xTomxx')</code>	Tom
<code>upper(string)</code>	text	Convert string to uppercase	<code>upper('tom')</code>	TOM

Additional string manipulation functions are available and are listed in Table 9-6. Some of them are used internally to implement the SQL-standard string functions listed in Table 9-5.

Table 9-6. Other String Functions

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>ascii(text)</code>	integer	ASCII code of the first character of the argument	<code>ascii('x')</code>	120
<code>btrim(string text [, characters text])</code>	text	Remove the longest string consisting only of characters in characters (a space by default) from the start and end of string.	<code>btrim('xytrimxy', 'xy')</code>	<code>btrim</code>
<code>chr(integer)</code>	text	Character with the given ASCII code	<code>chr(65)</code>	A
<code>convert(string text, [src_encoding name,] dest_encoding name)</code>	text	Convert string to dest_encoding. The original encoding is specified by src_encoding. If src_encoding is omitted, database encoding is assumed.	<code>convert('text_in_unicode', 'UNICODE', 'LATIN1')</code>	text_in_unicode represented in ISO 8859-1 encoding
<code>decode(string text, type text)</code>	bytea	Decode binary data from string previously encoded with encode. Parameter type is same as in encode.	<code>decode('MTIzAAE=', 'base64')</code>	123\000\001
<code>encode(data bytea, type text)</code>	text	Encode binary data to ASCII-only representation. Supported types are: base64, hex, escape.	<code>encode('123\000\001', 'base64')</code>	MTIzAAE=
<code>initcap(text)</code>	text	Convert the first letter of each word to uppercase and the rest to lowercase. Words are sequences of alphanumeric characters separated by non-alphanumeric characters.	<code>initcap('hi THOMAS')</code>	Hi Thomas

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>length(string text)</code>	integer	Number of characters in string.	<code>length('jose')</code>	4
<code>lpad(string text, length integer [, fill text])</code>	text	Fill up the string to length length by prepending the characters fill (a space by default). If the string is already longer than length then it is truncated (on the right).	<code>lpad('hi', 5, 'xy')</code>	xyxhi
<code>ltrim(string text [, characters text])</code>	text	Remove the longest string containing only characters from the start of string (a space by default).	<code>ltrim('zzytrimxyz')</code>	trim
<code>md5(string text)</code>	text	Calculates the MD5 hash of string, returning the result in hexadecimal.	<code>md5('abc')</code>	900150983cd24fb0d6963f7d28e17f72
<code>pg_client_encoding()</code>	name	Current client encoding name	<code>pg_client_encoding()</code>	SQL_ASCII
<code>quote_ident(string text)</code>	text	Return the given string suitably quoted to be used as an identifier in an SQL statement string. Quotes are added only if necessary (i.e., if the string contains non-identifier characters or would be case-folded). Embedded quotes are properly doubled.	<code>quote_ident('Foo bar')</code>	"Foo bar"

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>quote_literal(string text)</code>	text	Return the given string suitably quoted to be used as a string literal in an SQL statement string. Embedded quotes and backslashes are properly doubled.	<code>quote_literal('O\'Reilly')</code>	'O"Reilly'
<code>repeat(string text, number integer)</code>	text	Repeat string the specified number of times	<code>repeat('Pg', 4)</code>	PgPgPgPg
<code>replace(string text, from text, to text)</code>	text	Replace all occurrences in string of substring from with substring to.	<code>replace('abcdefabcdef', 'cd', 'XX')</code>	abXXefabXXef
<code>rpad(string text, length integer [, fill text])</code>	text	Fill up the string to length length by appending the characters fill (a space by default). If the string is already longer than length then it is truncated.	<code>rpad('hi', 5, 'xy')</code>	hixyx
<code>rtrim(string text [, characters text])</code>	text	Remove the longest string containing only characters from characters (a space by default) from the end of string.	<code>rtrim('trimxxxx', 'x')</code>	trim
<code>split_part(string text, delimiter text, field integer)</code>	text	Split string on delimiter and return the given field (counting from one)	<code>split_part('abc~~def~~ghi', '~', 2)</code>	def
<code>strpos(string, substring)</code>	text	Location of specified substring (same as <code>position(substring in string)</code> , but note the reversed argument order)	<code>strpos('high', 'ig')</code>	2

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
substr(string, from [, count])	text	Extract substring (same as substring(string from for count))	substr('alphabet', 3, 2)	ch
to_ascii(text [, encoding])	text	Convert text to ASCII from another encoding ^a	to_ascii('Karel')	Karel
to_hex(number integer or bigint)	text	Convert number to its equivalent hexadecimal representation	to_hex(2147483647)	fffffff
translate(string text, from text, to text)	text	Any character in string that matches a character in the from set is replaced by the corresponding character in the to set.	translate('12345', '14', 'ax')	ax23x5

Notes: a. The to_ascii function supports conversion from LATIN1, LATIN2, LATIN9, and WIN1250 encodings only.

Table 9-7. Built-in Conversions

Conversion Name ^a	Source Encoding	Destination Encoding
ascii_to_mic	SQL_ASCII	MULE_INTERNAL
ascii_to_utf_8	SQL_ASCII	UNICODE
big5_to_euc_tw	BIG5	EUC_TW
big5_to_mic	BIG5	MULE_INTERNAL
big5_to_utf_8	BIG5	UNICODE
euc_cn_to_mic	EUC_CN	MULE_INTERNAL
euc_cn_to_utf_8	EUC_CN	UNICODE
euc_jp_to_mic	EUC_JP	MULE_INTERNAL
euc_jp_to_sjis	EUC_JP	SJIS
euc_jp_to_utf_8	EUC_JP	UNICODE
euc_kr_to_mic	EUC_KR	MULE_INTERNAL
euc_kr_to_utf_8	EUC_KR	UNICODE
euc_tw_to_big5	EUC_TW	BIG5
euc_tw_to_mic	EUC_TW	MULE_INTERNAL
euc_tw_to_utf_8	EUC_TW	UNICODE
gb18030_to_utf_8	GB18030	UNICODE
gbk_to_utf_8	GBK	UNICODE

Conversion Name ^a	Source Encoding	Destination Encoding
iso_8859_10_to_utf_8	LATIN6	UNICODE
iso_8859_13_to_utf_8	LATIN7	UNICODE
iso_8859_14_to_utf_8	LATIN8	UNICODE
iso_8859_15_to_utf_8	LATIN9	UNICODE
iso_8859_16_to_utf_8	LATIN10	UNICODE
iso_8859_1_to_mic	LATIN1	MULE_INTERNAL
iso_8859_1_to_utf_8	LATIN1	UNICODE
iso_8859_2_to_mic	LATIN2	MULE_INTERNAL
iso_8859_2_to_utf_8	LATIN2	UNICODE
iso_8859_2_to_windows_1250	LATIN2	WIN1250
iso_8859_3_to_mic	LATIN3	MULE_INTERNAL
iso_8859_3_to_utf_8	LATIN3	UNICODE
iso_8859_4_to_mic	LATIN4	MULE_INTERNAL
iso_8859_4_to_utf_8	LATIN4	UNICODE
iso_8859_5_to_koi8_r	ISO_8859_5	KOI8
iso_8859_5_to_mic	ISO_8859_5	MULE_INTERNAL
iso_8859_5_to_utf_8	ISO_8859_5	UNICODE
iso_8859_5_to_windows_1251	ISO_8859_5	WIN
iso_8859_5_to_windows_866	ISO_8859_5	ALT
iso_8859_6_to_utf_8	ISO_8859_6	UNICODE
iso_8859_7_to_utf_8	ISO_8859_7	UNICODE
iso_8859_8_to_utf_8	ISO_8859_8	UNICODE
iso_8859_9_to_utf_8	LATIN5	UNICODE
johab_to_utf_8	JOHAB	UNICODE
koi8_r_to_iso_8859_5	KOI8	ISO_8859_5
koi8_r_to_mic	KOI8	MULE_INTERNAL
koi8_r_to_utf_8	KOI8	UNICODE
koi8_r_to_windows_1251	KOI8	WIN
koi8_r_to_windows_866	KOI8	ALT
mic_to_ascii	MULE_INTERNAL	SQL_ASCII
mic_to_big5	MULE_INTERNAL	BIG5
mic_to_euc_cn	MULE_INTERNAL	EUC_CN
mic_to_euc_jp	MULE_INTERNAL	EUC_JP
mic_to_euc_kr	MULE_INTERNAL	EUC_KR
mic_to_euc_tw	MULE_INTERNAL	EUC_TW
mic_to_iso_8859_1	MULE_INTERNAL	LATIN1
mic_to_iso_8859_2	MULE_INTERNAL	LATIN2

Conversion Name ^a	Source Encoding	Destination Encoding
mic_to_iso_8859_3	MULE_INTERNAL	LATIN3
mic_to_iso_8859_4	MULE_INTERNAL	LATIN4
mic_to_iso_8859_5	MULE_INTERNAL	ISO_8859_5
mic_to_koi8_r	MULE_INTERNAL	KOI8
mic_to_sjis	MULE_INTERNAL	SJIS
mic_to_windows_1250	MULE_INTERNAL	WIN1250
mic_to_windows_1251	MULE_INTERNAL	WIN
mic_to_windows_866	MULE_INTERNAL	ALT
sjis_to_euc_jp	SJIS	EUC_JP
sjis_to_mic	SJIS	MULE_INTERNAL
sjis_to_utf_8	SJIS	UNICODE
tcvn_to_utf_8	TCVN	UNICODE
uhc_to_utf_8	UHC	UNICODE
utf_8_to_ascii	UNICODE	SQL_ASCII
utf_8_to_big5	UNICODE	BIG5
utf_8_to_euc_cn	UNICODE	EUC_CN
utf_8_to_euc_jp	UNICODE	EUC_JP
utf_8_to_euc_kr	UNICODE	EUC_KR
utf_8_to_euc_tw	UNICODE	EUC_TW
utf_8_to_gb18030	UNICODE	GB18030
utf_8_to_gbk	UNICODE	GBK
utf_8_to_iso_8859_1	UNICODE	LATIN1
utf_8_to_iso_8859_10	UNICODE	LATIN6
utf_8_to_iso_8859_13	UNICODE	LATIN7
utf_8_to_iso_8859_14	UNICODE	LATIN8
utf_8_to_iso_8859_15	UNICODE	LATIN9
utf_8_to_iso_8859_16	UNICODE	LATIN10
utf_8_to_iso_8859_2	UNICODE	LATIN2
utf_8_to_iso_8859_3	UNICODE	LATIN3
utf_8_to_iso_8859_4	UNICODE	LATIN4
utf_8_to_iso_8859_5	UNICODE	ISO_8859_5
utf_8_to_iso_8859_6	UNICODE	ISO_8859_6
utf_8_to_iso_8859_7	UNICODE	ISO_8859_7
utf_8_to_iso_8859_8	UNICODE	ISO_8859_8
utf_8_to_iso_8859_9	UNICODE	LATIN5
utf_8_to_johab	UNICODE	JOHAB
utf_8_to_koi8_r	UNICODE	KOI8
utf_8_to_sjis	UNICODE	SJIS

Conversion Name ^a	Source Encoding	Destination Encoding
utf_8_to_tcvn	UNICODE	TCVN
utf_8_to_uhc	UNICODE	UHC
utf_8_to_windows_1250	UNICODE	WIN1250
utf_8_to_windows_1251	UNICODE	WIN
utf_8_to_windows_1256	UNICODE	WIN1256
utf_8_to_windows_866	UNICODE	ALT
utf_8_to_windows_874	UNICODE	WIN874
windows_1250_to_iso_8859_2	WIN1250	LATIN2
windows_1250_to_mic	WIN1250	MULE_INTERNAL
windows_1250_to_utf_8	WIN1250	UNICODE
windows_1251_to_iso_8859_5	WIN	ISO_8859_5
windows_1251_to_koi8_r	WIN	KOI8
windows_1251_to_mic	WIN	MULE_INTERNAL
windows_1251_to_utf_8	WIN	UNICODE
windows_1251_to_windows_866	WIN	ALT
windows_1256_to_utf_8	WIN1256	UNICODE
windows_866_to_iso_8859_5	ALT	ISO_8859_5
windows_866_to_koi8_r	ALT	KOI8
windows_866_to_mic	ALT	MULE_INTERNAL
windows_866_to_utf_8	ALT	UNICODE
windows_866_to_windows_1251	ALT	WIN
windows_874_to_utf_8	WIN874	UNICODE

Notes: a. The conversion names follow a standard naming scheme: The official name of the source encoding with all non-

9.5. Binary String Functions and Operators

This section describes functions and operators for examining and manipulating values of type `bytea`.

SQL defines some string functions with a special syntax where certain key words rather than commas are used to separate the arguments. Details are in Table 9-8. Some functions are also implemented using the regular syntax for function invocation. (See Table 9-9.)

Table 9-8. SQL Binary String Functions and Operators

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
----------	-------------	-------------	---------	--------

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>string string</code>	bytea	String concatenation	<code>'\\Post'::bytea '\\047gres\\000'::bytea</code>	<code>'\\Post'gres\\000</code>
<code>octet_length(string)</code>	integer	Number of bytes in binary string	<code>octet_length('jo\\000se'::bytea)</code>	5
<code>position(substring in string)</code>	integer	Location of specified substring	<code>position('\\000om'::bytea in 'Th\\000omas'::bytea)</code>	3
<code>substring(string [from integer] [for integer])</code>	bytea	Extract substring	<code>substring('Th\\000omas'::bytea from 2 for 3)</code>	<code>om</code>
<code>trim([both] bytes from string)</code>	bytea	Remove the longest string containing only the bytes in bytes from the start and end of string	<code>trim('\\000Tom\\000'::bytea from '\\000Tom\\000'::bytea)</code>	<code>Tom</code>
<code>get_byte(string, offset)</code>	integer	Extract byte from string.	<code>get_byte('Th\\000omas'::bytea, 4)</code>	65
<code>set_byte(string, offset, newvalue)</code>	bytea	Set byte in string.	<code>set_byte('Th\\000omas'::bytea, 4, 64)</code>	<code>Th\\000oas</code>
<code>get_bit(string, offset)</code>	integer	Extract bit from string.	<code>get_bit('Th\\000omas'::bytea, 45)</code>	1
<code>set_bit(string, offset, newvalue)</code>	bytea	Set bit in string.	<code>set_bit('Th\\000omas'::bytea, 45, 0)</code>	<code>Th\\000oma</code>

Additional binary string manipulation functions are available and are listed in Table 9-9. Some of them are used internally to implement the SQL-standard string functions listed in Table 9-8.

Table 9-9. Other Binary String Functions

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>btrim(string bytea, bytes bytea)</code>	bytea	Remove the longest string consisting only of bytes in bytes from the start and end of string.	<code>btrim('\\000trim\\000'::bytea, '\\000'::bytea)</code>	<code>trim</code>
<code>length(string)</code>	integer	Length of binary string	<code>length('jo\\000se'::bytea)</code>	5

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>decode(string text, type text)</code>	bytea	Decode binary string from string previously encoded with <code>encode</code> . Parameter type is same as in <code>encode</code> .	<code>decode('123\\000456', 'escape')</code>	<code>123\000456</code>
<code>encode(string bytea, type text)</code>	text	Encode binary string to ASCII-only representation. Supported types are: <code>base64</code> , <code>hex</code> , <code>escape</code> .	<code>encode('123\\000456', 'escape')</code>	<code>123\000456</code>

9.6. Bit String Functions and Operators

This section describes functions and operators for examining and manipulating bit strings, that is values of the types `bit` and `bit varying`. Aside from the usual comparison operators, the operators shown in Table 9-10 can be used. Bit string operands of `&`, `|`, and `#` must be of equal length. When bit shifting, the original length of the string is preserved, as shown in the examples.

Table 9-10. Bit String Operators

Operator	Description	Example	Result
<code> </code>	concatenation	<code>B'10001' B'011'</code>	<code>10001011</code>
<code>&</code>	bitwise AND	<code>B'10001' & B'01101'</code>	<code>00001</code>
<code> </code>	bitwise OR	<code>B'10001' B'01101'</code>	<code>11101</code>
<code>#</code>	bitwise XOR	<code>B'10001' # B'01101'</code>	<code>11100</code>
<code>~</code>	bitwise NOT	<code>~ B'10001'</code>	<code>01110</code>
<code><<</code>	bitwise shift left	<code>B'10001' << 3</code>	<code>01000</code>
<code>>></code>	bitwise shift right	<code>B'10001' >> 2</code>	<code>00100</code>

The following SQL-standard functions work on bit strings as well as character strings: `length`, `bit_length`, `octet_length`, `position`, `substring`.

In addition, it is possible to cast integral values to and from type `bit`. Some examples:

```

44::bit(10)           0000101100
44::bit(3)            100
cast(-44 as bit(12)) 111111010100
'1110'::bit(4)::integer 14

```

Note that casting to just “bit” means casting to `bit(1)`, and so it will deliver only the least significant bit of the integer.

Note: Prior to PostgreSQL 8.0, casting an integer to `bit(n)` would copy the leftmost `n` bits of the integer, whereas now it copies the rightmost `n` bits. Also, casting an integer to a bit string width wider than the integer itself will sign-extend on the left.

9.7. Pattern Matching

There are three separate approaches to pattern matching provided by PostgreSQL: the traditional SQL `LIKE` operator, the more recent `SIMILAR TO` operator (added in SQL:1999), and POSIX-style regular expressions. Additionally, a pattern matching function, `substring`, is available, using either `SIMILAR TO`-style or POSIX-style regular expressions.

Tip: If you have pattern matching needs that go beyond this, consider writing a user-defined function in Perl or Tcl.

9.7.1. LIKE

```
string LIKE pattern [ESCAPE escape-character]
string NOT LIKE pattern [ESCAPE escape-character]
```

Every *pattern* defines a set of strings. The `LIKE` expression returns true if the *string* is contained in the set of strings represented by *pattern*. (As expected, the `NOT LIKE` expression returns false if `LIKE` returns true, and vice versa. An equivalent expression is `NOT (string LIKE pattern)`.)

If *pattern* does not contain percent signs or underscore, then the pattern only represents the string itself; in that case `LIKE` acts like the equals operator. An underscore (`_`) in *pattern* stands for (matches) any single character; a percent sign (`%`) matches any string of zero or more characters.

Some examples:

```
'abc' LIKE 'abc'      true
'abc' LIKE 'a%'      true
'abc' LIKE '_b_'     true
'abc' LIKE 'c'       false
```

`LIKE` pattern matches always cover the entire string. To match a sequence anywhere within a string, the pattern must therefore start and end with a percent sign.

To match a literal underscore or percent sign without matching other characters, the respective character in *pattern* must be preceded by the escape character. The default escape character is the backslash but a different one may be selected by using the `ESCAPE` clause. To match the escape character itself, write two escape characters.

Note that the backslash already has a special meaning in string literals, so to write a pattern constant that contains a backslash you must write two backslashes in an SQL statement. Thus, writing a pattern that actually matches a literal backslash means writing four backslashes in the statement. You can avoid this

by selecting a different escape character with `ESCAPE`; then a backslash is not special to `LIKE` anymore. (But it is still special to the string literal parser, so you still need two of them.)

It's also possible to select no escape character by writing `ESCAPE ''`. This effectively disables the escape mechanism, which makes it impossible to turn off the special meaning of underscore and percent signs in the pattern.

The key word `ILIKE` can be used instead of `LIKE` to make the match case-insensitive according to the active locale. This is not in the SQL standard but is a PostgreSQL extension.

The operator `~~` is equivalent to `LIKE`, and `~~*` corresponds to `ILIKE`. There are also `!~~` and `!~~*` operators that represent `NOT LIKE` and `NOT ILIKE`, respectively. All of these operators are PostgreSQL-specific.

9.7.2. SIMILAR TO Regular Expressions

```
string SIMILAR TO pattern [ESCAPE escape-character]
string NOT SIMILAR TO pattern [ESCAPE escape-character]
```

The `SIMILAR TO` operator returns true or false depending on whether its pattern matches the given string. It is much like `LIKE`, except that it interprets the pattern using the SQL standard's definition of a regular expression. SQL regular expressions are a curious cross between `LIKE` notation and common regular expression notation.

Like `LIKE`, the `SIMILAR TO` operator succeeds only if its pattern matches the entire string; this is unlike common regular expression practice, wherein the pattern may match any part of the string. Also like `LIKE`, `SIMILAR TO` uses `_` and `%` as wildcard characters denoting any single character and any string, respectively (these are comparable to `.` and `.*` in POSIX regular expressions).

In addition to these facilities borrowed from `LIKE`, `SIMILAR TO` supports these pattern-matching metacharacters borrowed from POSIX regular expressions:

- `|` denotes alternation (either of two alternatives).
- `*` denotes repetition of the previous item zero or more times.
- `+` denotes repetition of the previous item one or more times.
- Parentheses `()` may be used to group items into a single logical item.
- A bracket expression `[...]` specifies a character class, just as in POSIX regular expressions.

Notice that bounded repetition (`?` and `{...}`) are not provided, though they exist in POSIX. Also, the dot (`.`) is not a metacharacter.

As with `LIKE`, a backslash disables the special meaning of any of these metacharacters; or a different escape character can be specified with `ESCAPE`.

Some examples:

```
'abc' SIMILAR TO 'abc'      true
'abc' SIMILAR TO 'a'        false
'abc' SIMILAR TO '%(b|d)%'  true
'abc' SIMILAR TO '(b|c)%'   false
```

The `substring` function with three parameters, `substring(string from pattern for escape-character)`, provides extraction of a substring that matches an SQL regular expression pattern. As with `SIMILAR TO`, the specified pattern must match to the entire data string, else the function fails and returns null. To indicate the part of the pattern that should be returned on success, the pattern must contain two occurrences of the escape character followed by a double quote ("). The text matching the portion of the pattern between these markers is returned.

Some examples:

```
substring('foobar' from '%#"o_b#"%' for '#')    oob
substring('foobar' from '##"o_b#"%' for '#')    NULL
```

9.7.3. POSIX Regular Expressions

Table 9-11 lists the available operators for pattern matching using POSIX regular expressions.

Table 9-11. Regular Expression Match Operators

Operator	Description	Example
~	Matches regular expression, case sensitive	'thomas' ~ '*.thomas.*'
~*	Matches regular expression, case insensitive	'thomas' ~* '*.Thomas.*'
!~	Does not match regular expression, case sensitive	'thomas' !~ '*.Thomas.*'
!~*	Does not match regular expression, case insensitive	'thomas' !~* '*.vadim.*'

POSIX regular expressions provide a more powerful means for pattern matching than the `LIKE` and `SIMILAR TO` operators. Many Unix tools such as `egrep`, `sed`, or `awk` use a pattern matching language that is similar to the one described here.

A regular expression is a character sequence that is an abbreviated definition of a set of strings (a *regular set*). A string is said to match a regular expression if it is a member of the regular set described by the regular expression. As with `LIKE`, pattern characters match string characters exactly unless they are special characters in the regular expression language — but regular expressions use different special characters than `LIKE` does. Unlike `LIKE` patterns, a regular expression is allowed to match anywhere within a string, unless the regular expression is explicitly anchored to the beginning or end of the string.

Some examples:

```
'abc' ~ 'abc'      true
'abc' ~ '^a'       true
'abc' ~ '(b|d)'    true
'abc' ~ '^ (b|c)'  false
```

The `substring` function with two parameters, `substring(string from pattern)`, provides extraction of a substring that matches a POSIX regular expression pattern. It returns null if there is no match, otherwise the portion of the text that matched the pattern. But if the pattern contains any parentheses, the portion of the text that matched the first parenthesized subexpression (the one whose left parenthesis comes first) is returned. You can put parentheses around the whole expression if you want to use parentheses within it without triggering this exception. If you need parentheses in the pattern before the subexpression you want to extract, see the non-capturing parentheses described below.

Some examples:

```
substring('foobar' from 'o.b')      oob
substring('foobar' from 'o(.)b')   o
```

PostgreSQL's regular expressions are implemented using a package written by Henry Spencer. Much of the description of regular expressions below is copied verbatim from his manual entry.

9.7.3.1. Regular Expression Details

Regular expressions (REs), as defined in POSIX 1003.2, come in two forms: *extended* REs or EREs (roughly those of `egrep`), and *basic* REs or BREs (roughly those of `ed`). PostgreSQL supports both forms, and also implements some extensions that are not in the POSIX standard, but have become widely used anyway due to their availability in programming languages such as Perl and Tcl. REs using these non-POSIX extensions are called *advanced* REs or AREs in this documentation. AREs are almost an exact superset of EREs, but BREs have several notational incompatibilities (as well as being much more limited). We first describe the ARE and ERE forms, noting features that apply only to AREs, and then describe how BREs differ.

Note: The form of regular expressions accepted by PostgreSQL can be chosen by setting the `regex_flavor` run-time parameter. The usual setting is `advanced`, but one might choose `extended` for maximum backwards compatibility with pre-7.4 releases of PostgreSQL.

A regular expression is defined as one or more *branches*, separated by `|`. It matches anything that matches one of the branches.

A branch is zero or more *quantified atoms* or *constraints*, concatenated. It matches a match for the first, followed by a match for the second, etc; an empty branch matches the empty string.

A quantified atom is an *atom* possibly followed by a single *quantifier*. Without a quantifier, it matches a match for the atom. With a quantifier, it can match some number of matches of the atom. An *atom* can be any of the possibilities shown in Table 9-12. The possible quantifiers and their meanings are shown in Table 9-13.

A *constraint* matches an empty string, but matches only when specific conditions are met. A constraint can be used where an atom could be used, except it may not be followed by a quantifier. The simple constraints are shown in Table 9-14; some more constraints are described later.

Table 9-12. Regular Expression Atoms

Atom	Description
<code>(re)</code>	(where <i>re</i> is any regular expression) matches a match for <i>re</i> , with the match noted for possible reporting
<code>(?:re)</code>	as above, but the match is not noted for reporting (a “non-capturing” set of parentheses) (AREs only)
<code>.</code>	matches any single character
<code>[chars]</code>	a <i>bracket expression</i> , matching any one of the <i>chars</i> (see Section 9.7.3.2 for more detail)
<code>\k</code>	(where <i>k</i> is a non-alphanumeric character) matches that character taken as an ordinary character, e.g. <code>\\</code> matches a backslash character
<code>\c</code>	where <i>c</i> is alphanumeric (possibly followed by other characters) is an <i>escape</i> , see Section 9.7.3.3 (AREs only; in EREs and BREs, this matches <i>c</i>)
<code>{</code>	when followed by a character other than a digit, matches the left-brace character <code>{</code> ; when followed by a digit, it is the beginning of a <i>bound</i> (see below)
<code>x</code>	where <i>x</i> is a single character with no other significance, matches that character

An RE may not end with `\`.

Note: Remember that the backslash (`\`) already has a special meaning in PostgreSQL string literals. To write a pattern constant that contains a backslash, you must write two backslashes in the statement.

Table 9-13. Regular Expression Quantifiers

Quantifier	Matches
<code>*</code>	a sequence of 0 or more matches of the atom
<code>+</code>	a sequence of 1 or more matches of the atom
<code>?</code>	a sequence of 0 or 1 matches of the atom
<code>{m}</code>	a sequence of exactly <i>m</i> matches of the atom
<code>{m, }</code>	a sequence of <i>m</i> or more matches of the atom
<code>{m, n}</code>	a sequence of <i>m</i> through <i>n</i> (inclusive) matches of the atom; <i>m</i> may not exceed <i>n</i>
<code>*?</code>	non-greedy version of <code>*</code>
<code>+?</code>	non-greedy version of <code>+</code>
<code>??</code>	non-greedy version of <code>?</code>

Quantifier	Matches
$\{m\}?$	non-greedy version of $\{m\}$
$\{m, \}?$	non-greedy version of $\{m, \}$
$\{m, n\}?$	non-greedy version of $\{m, n\}$

The forms using $\{ . . . \}$ are known as *bounds*. The numbers m and n within a bound are unsigned decimal integers with permissible values from 0 to 255 inclusive.

Non-greedy quantifiers (available in AREs only) match the same possibilities as their corresponding normal (*greedy*) counterparts, but prefer the smallest number rather than the largest number of matches. See Section 9.7.3.5 for more detail.

Note: A quantifier cannot immediately follow another quantifier. A quantifier cannot begin an expression or subexpression or follow \wedge or $|$.

Table 9-14. Regular Expression Constraints

Constraint	Description
\wedge	matches at the beginning of the string
$\$$	matches at the end of the string
$(?=re)$	<i>positive lookahead</i> matches at any point where a substring matching re begins (AREs only)
$(?!re)$	<i>negative lookahead</i> matches at any point where no substring matching re begins (AREs only)

Lookahead constraints may not contain *back references* (see Section 9.7.3.3), and all parentheses within them are considered non-capturing.

9.7.3.2. Bracket Expressions

A *bracket expression* is a list of characters enclosed in $[]$. It normally matches any single character from the list (but see below). If the list begins with \wedge , it matches any single character *not* from the rest of the list. If two characters in the list are separated by $-$, this is shorthand for the full range of characters between those two (inclusive) in the collating sequence, e.g. $[0-9]$ in ASCII matches any decimal digit. It is illegal for two ranges to share an endpoint, e.g. $a-c-e$. Ranges are very collating-sequence-dependent, so portable programs should avoid relying on them.

To include a literal $]$ in the list, make it the first character (following a possible \wedge). To include a literal $-$, make it the first or last character, or the second endpoint of a range. To use a literal $-$ as the first endpoint of a range, enclose it in $[.$ and $.]$ to make it a collating element (see below). With the exception of these characters, some combinations using $[$ (see next paragraphs), and escapes (AREs only), all other special characters lose their special significance within a bracket expression. In particular, \backslash is not special when following ERE or BRE rules, though it is special (as introducing an escape) in AREs.

Within a bracket expression, a collating element (a character, a multiple-character sequence that collates as if it were a single character, or a collating-sequence name for either) enclosed in $[.$ and $.]$ stands for the

sequence of characters of that collating element. The sequence is a single element of the bracket expression's list. A bracket expression containing a multiple-character collating element can thus match more than one character, e.g. if the collating sequence includes a `ch` collating element, then the RE `[[. ch .]] * c` matches the first five characters of `chchcc`.

Note: PostgreSQL currently has no multi-character collating elements. This information describes possible future behavior.

Within a bracket expression, a collating element enclosed in `[= and =]` is an equivalence class, standing for the sequences of characters of all collating elements equivalent to that one, including itself. (If there are no other equivalent collating elements, the treatment is as if the enclosing delimiters were `[. and .]`.) For example, if `o` and `^` are the members of an equivalence class, then `[[=o=]`, `[[=^=]`, and `[o^]` are all synonymous. An equivalence class may not be an endpoint of a range.

Within a bracket expression, the name of a character class enclosed in `[: and :]` stands for the list of all characters belonging to that class. Standard character class names are: `alnum`, `alpha`, `blank`, `cntrl`, `digit`, `graph`, `lower`, `print`, `punct`, `space`, `upper`, `xdigit`. These stand for the character classes defined in `ctype`. A locale may provide others. A character class may not be used as an endpoint of a range.

There are two special cases of bracket expressions: the bracket expressions `[[: < :]]` and `[[: > :]]` are constraints, matching empty strings at the beginning and end of a word respectively. A word is defined as a sequence of word characters that is neither preceded nor followed by word characters. A word character is an `alnum` character (as defined by `ctype`) or an underscore. This is an extension, compatible with but not specified by POSIX 1003.2, and should be used with caution in software intended to be portable to other systems. The constraint escapes described below are usually preferable (they are no more standard, but are certainly easier to type).

9.7.3.3. Regular Expression Escapes

Escapes are special sequences beginning with `\` followed by an alphanumeric character. Escapes come in several varieties: character entry, class shorthands, constraint escapes, and back references. A `\` followed by an alphanumeric character but not constituting a valid escape is illegal in AREs. In EREs, there are no escapes: outside a bracket expression, a `\` followed by an alphanumeric character merely stands for that character as an ordinary character, and inside a bracket expression, `\` is an ordinary character. (The latter is the one actual incompatibility between EREs and AREs.)

Character-entry escapes exist to make it easier to specify non-printing and otherwise inconvenient characters in REs. They are shown in Table 9-15.

Class-shorthand escapes provide shorthands for certain commonly-used character classes. They are shown in Table 9-16.

A *constraint escape* is a constraint, matching the empty string if specific conditions are met, written as an escape. They are shown in Table 9-17.

A *back reference* (`\n`) matches the same string matched by the previous parenthesized subexpression specified by the number *n* (see Table 9-18). For example, `([bc]) \1` matches `bb` or `cc` but not `bc` or `cb`. The subexpression must entirely precede the back reference in the RE. Subexpressions are numbered in the order of their leading parentheses. Non-capturing parentheses do not define subexpressions.

Note: Keep in mind that an escape's leading `\` will need to be doubled when entering the pattern as an SQL string constant. For example:

```
'123' ~ '^\\d{3}' true
```

Table 9-15. Regular Expression Character-Entry Escapes

Escape	Description
<code>\a</code>	alert (bell) character, as in C
<code>\b</code>	backspace, as in C
<code>\B</code>	synonym for <code>\</code> to help reduce the need for backslash doubling
<code>\cX</code>	(where <i>X</i> is any character) the character whose low-order 5 bits are the same as those of <i>X</i> , and whose other bits are all zero
<code>\e</code>	the character whose collating-sequence name is <code>ESC</code> , or failing that, the character with octal value <code>033</code>
<code>\f</code>	form feed, as in C
<code>\n</code>	newline, as in C
<code>\r</code>	carriage return, as in C
<code>\t</code>	horizontal tab, as in C
<code>\uvwxyz</code>	(where <i>wxyz</i> is exactly four hexadecimal digits) the Unicode character <code>U+WXYZ</code> in the local byte ordering
<code>\Ustuvwxyz</code>	(where <i>stuvwxyz</i> is exactly eight hexadecimal digits) reserved for a somewhat-hypothetical Unicode extension to 32 bits
<code>\v</code>	vertical tab, as in C
<code>\xhhh</code>	(where <i>hhh</i> is any sequence of hexadecimal digits) the character whose hexadecimal value is <code>0xhhh</code> (a single character no matter how many hexadecimal digits are used)
<code>\0</code>	the character whose value is <code>0</code>
<code>\xy</code>	(where <i>xy</i> is exactly two octal digits, and is not a <i>back reference</i>) the character whose octal value is <code>0xy</code>
<code>\xyz</code>	(where <i>xyz</i> is exactly three octal digits, and is not a <i>back reference</i>) the character whose octal value is <code>0xyz</code>

Hexadecimal digits are 0-9, a-f, and A-F. Octal digits are 0-7.

The character-entry escapes are always taken as ordinary characters. For example, `\135` is `]` in ASCII, but `\135` does not terminate a bracket expression.

Table 9-16. Regular Expression Class-Shorthand Escapes

Escape	Description
<code>\d</code>	<code>[[:digit:]]</code>
<code>\s</code>	<code>[[:space:]]</code>
<code>\w</code>	<code>[[:alnum:]_]</code> (note underscore is included)
<code>\D</code>	<code>[^[:digit:]]</code>
<code>\S</code>	<code>[^[:space:]]</code>
<code>\W</code>	<code>[^[:alnum:]_]</code> (note underscore is included)

Within bracket expressions, `\d`, `\s`, and `\w` lose their outer brackets, and `\D`, `\S`, and `\W` are illegal. (So, for example, `[a-c\d]` is equivalent to `[a-c[:digit:]]`. Also, `[a-c\D]`, which is equivalent to `[a-c^[:digit:]]`, is illegal.)

Table 9-17. Regular Expression Constraint Escapes

Escape	Description
<code>\A</code>	matches only at the beginning of the string (see Section 9.7.3.5 for how this differs from <code>^</code>)
<code>\m</code>	matches only at the beginning of a word
<code>\M</code>	matches only at the end of a word
<code>\y</code>	matches only at the beginning or end of a word
<code>\Y</code>	matches only at a point that is not the beginning or end of a word
<code>\Z</code>	matches only at the end of the string (see Section 9.7.3.5 for how this differs from <code>\$</code>)

A word is defined as in the specification of `[[:<:]]` and `[[:>:]]` above. Constraint escapes are illegal within bracket expressions.

Table 9-18. Regular Expression Back References

Escape	Description
<code>\m</code>	(where <i>m</i> is a nonzero digit) a back reference to the <i>m</i> 'th subexpression
<code>\mnn</code>	(where <i>m</i> is a nonzero digit, and <i>nn</i> is some more digits, and the decimal value <i>mnn</i> is not greater than the number of closing capturing parentheses seen so far) a back reference to the <i>mnn</i> 'th subexpression

Note: There is an inherent historical ambiguity between octal character-entry escapes and back references, which is resolved by heuristics, as hinted at above. A leading zero always indicates an octal

escape. A single non-zero digit, not followed by another digit, is always taken as a back reference. A multi-digit sequence not starting with a zero is taken as a back reference if it comes after a suitable subexpression (i.e. the number is in the legal range for a back reference), and otherwise is taken as octal.

9.7.3.4. Regular Expression Metasyntax

In addition to the main syntax described above, there are some special forms and miscellaneous syntactic facilities available.

Normally the flavor of RE being used is determined by `regex_flavor`. However, this can be overridden by a *director* prefix. If an RE begins with `***:`, the rest of the RE is taken as an ARE regardless of `regex_flavor`. If an RE begins with `***=`, the rest of the RE is taken to be a literal string, with all characters considered ordinary characters.

An ARE may begin with *embedded options*: a sequence `(?xyz)` (where `xyz` is one or more alphabetic characters) specifies options affecting the rest of the RE. These options override any previously determined options (including both the RE flavor and case sensitivity). The available option letters are shown in Table 9-19.

Table 9-19. ARE Embedded-Option Letters

Option	Description
b	rest of RE is a BRE
c	case-sensitive matching (overrides operator type)
e	rest of RE is an ERE
i	case-insensitive matching (see Section 9.7.3.5) (overrides operator type)
m	historical synonym for n
n	newline-sensitive matching (see Section 9.7.3.5)
p	partial newline-sensitive matching (see Section 9.7.3.5)
q	rest of RE is a literal (“quoted”) string, all ordinary characters
s	non-newline-sensitive matching (default)
t	tight syntax (default; see below)
w	inverse partial newline-sensitive (“weird”) matching (see Section 9.7.3.5)
x	expanded syntax (see below)

Embedded options take effect at the `)` terminating the sequence. They may appear only at the start of an ARE (after the `***:` director if any).

In addition to the usual (*tight*) RE syntax, in which all characters are significant, there is an *expanded* syntax, available by specifying the embedded `x` option. In the expanded syntax, white-space characters in the RE are ignored, as are all characters between a `#` and the following newline (or the end of the RE).

This permits paragraphing and commenting a complex RE. There are three exceptions to that basic rule:

- a white-space character or # preceded by \ is retained
- white space or # within a bracket expression is retained
- white space and comments cannot appear within multi-character symbols, such as (?:

For this purpose, white-space characters are blank, tab, newline, and any character that belongs to the *space* character class.

Finally, in an ARE, outside bracket expressions, the sequence (?:#*ttt*) (where *ttt* is any text not containing a `)`) is a comment, completely ignored. Again, this is not allowed between the characters of multi-character symbols, like (?:. Such comments are more a historical artifact than a useful facility, and their use is deprecated; use the expanded syntax instead.

None of these metasyntax extensions is available if an initial `***=` director has specified that the user's input be treated as a literal string rather than as an RE.

9.7.3.5. Regular Expression Matching Rules

In the event that an RE could match more than one substring of a given string, the RE matches the one starting earliest in the string. If the RE could match more than one substring starting at that point, either the longest possible match or the shortest possible match will be taken, depending on whether the RE is *greedy* or *non-greedy*.

Whether an RE is greedy or not is determined by the following rules:

- Most atoms, and all constraints, have no greediness attribute (because they cannot match variable amounts of text anyway).
- Adding parentheses around an RE does not change its greediness.
- A quantified atom with a fixed-repetition quantifier (`{m}` or `{m}?`) has the same greediness (possibly none) as the atom itself.
- A quantified atom with other normal quantifiers (including `{m, n}` with *m* equal to *n*) is greedy (prefers longest match).
- A quantified atom with a non-greedy quantifier (including `{m, n}?` with *m* equal to *n*) is non-greedy (prefers shortest match).
- A branch — that is, an RE that has no top-level `|` operator — has the same greediness as the first quantified atom in it that has a greediness attribute.
- An RE consisting of two or more branches connected by the `|` operator is always greedy.

The above rules associate greediness attributes not only with individual quantified atoms, but with branches and entire REs that contain quantified atoms. What that means is that the matching is done in such a way that the branch, or whole RE, matches the longest or shortest possible substring *as a whole*. Once the length of the entire match is determined, the part of it that matches any particular subexpression is determined on the basis of the greediness attribute of that subexpression, with subexpressions starting earlier in the RE taking priority over ones starting later.

An example of what this means:

```
SELECT SUBSTRING('XY1234Z', 'Y*([0-9]{1,3})');
Result: 123
SELECT SUBSTRING('XY1234Z', 'Y*?([0-9]{1,3})');
Result: 1
```

In the first case, the RE as a whole is greedy because `Y*` is greedy. It can match beginning at the `Y`, and it matches the longest possible string starting there, i.e., `Y123`. The output is the parenthesized part of that, or `123`. In the second case, the RE as a whole is non-greedy because `Y*?` is non-greedy. It can match beginning at the `Y`, and it matches the shortest possible string starting there, i.e., `Y1`. The subexpression `[0-9]{1,3}` is greedy but it cannot change the decision as to the overall match length; so it is forced to match just `1`.

In short, when an RE contains both greedy and non-greedy subexpressions, the total match length is either as long as possible or as short as possible, according to the attribute assigned to the whole RE. The attributes assigned to the subexpressions only affect how much of that match they are allowed to “eat” relative to each other.

The quantifiers `{1,1}` and `{1,1}?` can be used to force greediness or non-greediness, respectively, on a subexpression or a whole RE.

Match lengths are measured in characters, not collating elements. An empty string is considered longer than no match at all. For example: `bb*` matches the three middle characters of `abbbc`; `(week|wee)(night|knights)` matches all ten characters of `weeknights`; when `(.)*.*` is matched against `abc` the parenthesized subexpression matches all three characters; and when `(a*)*` is matched against `bc` both the whole RE and the parenthesized subexpression match an empty string.

If case-independent matching is specified, the effect is much as if all case distinctions had vanished from the alphabet. When an alphabetic that exists in multiple cases appears as an ordinary character outside a bracket expression, it is effectively transformed into a bracket expression containing both cases, e.g. `x` becomes `[xX]`. When it appears inside a bracket expression, all case counterparts of it are added to the bracket expression, e.g. `[x]` becomes `[xX]` and `[^x]` becomes `[^xX]`.

If newline-sensitive matching is specified, `.` and bracket expressions using `^` will never match the newline character (so that matches will never cross newlines unless the RE explicitly arranges it) and `^` and `$` will match the empty string after and before a newline respectively, in addition to matching at beginning and end of string respectively. But the ARE escapes `\A` and `\Z` continue to match beginning or end of string *only*.

If partial newline-sensitive matching is specified, this affects `.` and bracket expressions as with newline-sensitive matching, but not `^` and `$`.

If inverse partial newline-sensitive matching is specified, this affects `^` and `$` as with newline-sensitive matching, but not `.` and bracket expressions. This isn't very useful but is provided for symmetry.

9.7.3.6. Limits and Compatibility

No particular limit is imposed on the length of REs in this implementation. However, programs intended to be highly portable should not employ REs longer than 256 bytes, as a POSIX-compliant implementation can refuse to accept such REs.

The only feature of AREs that is actually incompatible with POSIX EREs is that `\` does not lose its special significance inside bracket expressions. All other ARE features use syntax which is illegal or has undefined or unspecified effects in POSIX EREs; the `***` syntax of directors likewise is outside the POSIX syntax for both BREs and EREs.

Many of the ARE extensions are borrowed from Perl, but some have been changed to clean them up, and a few Perl extensions are not present. Incompatibilities of note include `\b`, `\B`, the lack of special treatment for a trailing newline, the addition of complemented bracket expressions to the things affected by newline-sensitive matching, the restrictions on parentheses and back references in lookahead constraints, and the longest/shortest-match (rather than first-match) matching semantics.

Two significant incompatibilities exist between AREs and the ERE syntax recognized by pre-7.4 releases of PostgreSQL:

- In AREs, `\` followed by an alphanumeric character is either an escape or an error, while in previous releases, it was just another way of writing the alphanumeric. This should not be much of a problem because there was no reason to write such a sequence in earlier releases.
- In AREs, `\` remains a special character within `[]`, so a literal `\` within a bracket expression must be written `\\`.

While these differences are unlikely to create a problem for most applications, you can avoid them if necessary by setting `regex_flavor` to `extended`.

9.7.3.7. Basic Regular Expressions

BREs differ from EREs in several respects. `|`, `+`, and `?` are ordinary characters and there is no equivalent for their functionality. The delimiters for bounds are `\{` and `\}`, with `{` and `}` by themselves ordinary characters. The parentheses for nested subexpressions are `\(` and `\)`, with `(` and `)` by themselves ordinary characters. `^` is an ordinary character except at the beginning of the RE or the beginning of a parenthesized subexpression, `$` is an ordinary character except at the end of the RE or the end of a parenthesized subexpression, and `*` is an ordinary character if it appears at the beginning of the RE or the beginning of a parenthesized subexpression (after a possible leading `^`). Finally, single-digit back references are available, and `\<` and `\>` are synonyms for `[[<:]]` and `[[>:]]` respectively; no other escapes are available.

9.8. Data Type Formatting Functions

The PostgreSQL formatting functions provide a powerful set of tools for converting various data types (date/time, integer, floating point, numeric) to formatted strings and for converting from formatted strings to specific data types. Table 9-20 lists them. These functions all follow a common calling convention: the first argument is the value to be formatted and the second argument is a template that defines the output or input format.

Table 9-20. Formatting Functions

Function	Return Type	Description	Example
----------	-------------	-------------	---------

Function	Return Type	Description	Example
<code>to_char(timestamp, text)</code>	text	convert time stamp to string	<code>to_char(current_timestamp, 'HH12:MI:SS')</code>
<code>to_char(interval, text)</code>	text	convert interval to string	<code>to_char(interval '15h 2m 12s', 'HH24:MI:SS')</code>
<code>to_char(int, text)</code>	text	convert integer to string	<code>to_char(125, '999')</code>
<code>to_char(double precision, text)</code>	text	convert real/double precision to string	<code>to_char(125.8::real, '999D9')</code>
<code>to_char(numeric, text)</code>	text	convert numeric to string	<code>to_char(-125.8, '999D99S')</code>
<code>to_date(text, text)</code>	date	convert string to date	<code>to_date('05 Dec 2000', 'DD Mon YYYY')</code>
<code>to_timestamp(text, text)</code>	timestamp with time zone	convert string to time stamp	<code>to_timestamp('05 Dec 2000', 'DD Mon YYYY')</code>
<code>to_number(text, text)</code>	numeric	convert string to numeric	<code>to_number('12,454.8', '99G999D9S')</code>

Warning: `to_char(interval, text)` is deprecated and should not be used in newly-written code. It will be removed in the next version.

In an output template string (for `to_char`), there are certain patterns that are recognized and replaced with appropriately-formatted data from the value to be formatted. Any text that is not a template pattern is simply copied verbatim. Similarly, in an input template string (for anything but `to_char`), template patterns identify the parts of the input data string to be looked at and the values to be found there.

Table 9-21 shows the template patterns available for formatting date and time values.

Table 9-21. Template Patterns for Date/Time Formatting

Pattern	Description
HH	hour of day (01-12)
HH12	hour of day (01-12)
HH24	hour of day (00-23)
MI	minute (00-59)
SS	second (00-59)
MS	millisecond (000-999)
US	microsecond (000000-999999)
SSSS	seconds past midnight (0-86399)
AM or A.M. or PM or P.M.	meridian indicator (uppercase)
am or a.m. or pm or p.m.	meridian indicator (lowercase)
Y,YYY	year (4 and more digits) with comma
YYYY	year (4 and more digits)
YYY	last 3 digits of year

Pattern	Description
YY	last 2 digits of year
Y	last digit of year
IYYY	ISO year (4 and more digits)
IYY	last 3 digits of ISO year
IY	last 2 digits of ISO year
I	last digits of ISO year
BC or B.C. or AD or A.D.	era indicator (uppercase)
bc or b.c. or ad or a.d.	era indicator (lowercase)
MONTH	full uppercase month name (blank-padded to 9 chars)
Month	full mixed-case month name (blank-padded to 9 chars)
month	full lowercase month name (blank-padded to 9 chars)
MON	abbreviated uppercase month name (3 chars)
Mon	abbreviated mixed-case month name (3 chars)
mon	abbreviated lowercase month name (3 chars)
MM	month number (01-12)
DAY	full uppercase day name (blank-padded to 9 chars)
Day	full mixed-case day name (blank-padded to 9 chars)
day	full lowercase day name (blank-padded to 9 chars)
DY	abbreviated uppercase day name (3 chars)
Dy	abbreviated mixed-case day name (3 chars)
dy	abbreviated lowercase day name (3 chars)
DDD	day of year (001-366)
DD	day of month (01-31)
D	day of week (1-7; Sunday is 1)
W	week of month (1-5) (The first week starts on the first day of the month.)
WW	week number of year (1-53) (The first week starts on the first day of the year.)
IW	ISO week number of year (The first Thursday of the new year is in week 1.)
CC	century (2 digits)
J	Julian Day (days since January 1, 4712 BC)
Q	quarter
RM	month in Roman numerals (I-XII; I=January) (uppercase)
rm	month in Roman numerals (i-xii; i=January) (lowercase)

Pattern	Description
TZ	time-zone name (uppercase)
tz	time-zone name (lowercase)

Certain modifiers may be applied to any template pattern to alter its behavior. For example, `FMMonth` is the `Month` pattern with the `FM` modifier. Table 9-22 shows the modifier patterns for date/time formatting.

Table 9-22. Template Pattern Modifiers for Date/Time Formatting

Modifier	Description	Example
FM prefix	fill mode (suppress padding blanks and zeroes)	<code>FMMonth</code>
TH suffix	uppercase ordinal number suffix	<code>DDTH</code>
th suffix	lowercase ordinal number suffix	<code>DDth</code>
FX prefix	fixed format global option (see usage notes)	<code>FX Month DD Day</code>
SP suffix	spell mode (not yet implemented)	<code>DDSP</code>

Usage notes for date/time formatting:

- `FM` suppresses leading zeroes and trailing blanks that would otherwise be added to make the output of a pattern be fixed-width.
- `to_timestamp` and `to_date` skip multiple blank spaces in the input string if the `FX` option is not used. `FX` must be specified as the first item in the template. For example `to_timestamp('2000 JUN', 'YYYY MON')` is correct, but `to_timestamp('2000 JUN', 'FXYYYY MON')` returns an error, because `to_timestamp` expects one space only.
- Ordinary text is allowed in `to_char` templates and will be output literally. You can put a substring in double quotes to force it to be interpreted as literal text even if it contains pattern key words. For example, in `"Hello Year "YYYY"`, the `YYYY` will be replaced by the year data, but the single `Y` in `Year` will not be.
- If you want to have a double quote in the output you must precede it with a backslash, for example `'\\"YYYY Month\\"'`. (Two backslashes are necessary because the backslash already has a special meaning in a string constant.)
- The `YYYY` conversion from string to `timestamp` or `date` has a restriction if you use a year with more than 4 digits. You must use some non-digit character or template after `YYYY`, otherwise the year is always interpreted as 4 digits. For example (with the year 20000): `to_date('200001131', 'YYYYMMDD')` will be interpreted as a 4-digit year; instead use a non-digit separator after the year, like `to_date('20000-1131', 'YYYY-MMDD')` or `to_date('20000Nov31', 'YYYYMonDD')`.
- Millisecond (`MS`) and microsecond (`US`) values in a conversion from string to `timestamp` are used as part of the seconds after the decimal point. For example `to_timestamp('12:3', 'SS:MS')` is not 3 milliseconds, but 300, because the conversion counts it as $12 + 0.3$ seconds. This means for the format `SS:MS`, the input values `12:3`, `12:30`, and `12:300` specify the same number of milliseconds. To get three milliseconds, one must use `12:003`, which the conversion counts as $12 + 0.003 = 12.003$ seconds.

Here is a more complex example: `to_timestamp('15:12:02.020.001230', 'HH:MI:SS.MS.US')` is 15 hours, 12 minutes, and 2 seconds + 20 milliseconds + 1230 microseconds = 2.021230 seconds.

- `to_char`'s day of the week numbering (see the 'D' formatting pattern) is different from that of the `extract` function.

Table 9-23 shows the template patterns available for formatting numeric values.

Table 9-23. Template Patterns for Numeric Formatting

Pattern	Description
9	value with the specified number of digits
0	value with leading zeros
. (period)	decimal point
, (comma)	group (thousand) separator
PR	negative value in angle brackets
S	sign anchored to number (uses locale)
L	currency symbol (uses locale)
D	decimal point (uses locale)
G	group separator (uses locale)
MI	minus sign in specified position (if number < 0)
PL	plus sign in specified position (if number > 0)
SG	plus/minus sign in specified position
RN	roman numeral (input between 1 and 3999)
TH or th	ordinal number suffix
V	shift specified number of digits (see notes)
EEEE	scientific notation (not implemented yet)

Usage notes for numeric formatting:

- A sign formatted using SG, PL, or MI is not anchored to the number; for example, `to_char(-12, 'S9999')` produces ' -12', but `to_char(-12, 'MI9999')` produces '- 12'. The Oracle implementation does not allow the use of MI ahead of 9, but rather requires that 9 precede MI.
- 9 results in a value with the same number of digits as there are 9s. If a digit is not available it outputs a space.
- TH does not convert values less than zero and does not convert fractional numbers.
- PL, SG, and TH are PostgreSQL extensions.
- V effectively multiplies the input values by 10^n , where n is the number of digits following V. `to_char` does not support the use of V combined with a decimal point. (E.g., `99.9V99` is not allowed.)

Table 9-24 shows some examples of the use of the `to_char` function.

Table 9-24. `to_char` Examples

Expression	Result
<code>to_char(current_timestamp, 'Day, DD HH12:MI:SS')</code>	'Tuesday , 06 05:39:18'
<code>to_char(current_timestamp, 'FMDay, FMDD HH12:MI:SS')</code>	'Tuesday, 6 05:39:18'
<code>to_char(-0.1, '99.99')</code>	' -.10'
<code>to_char(-0.1, 'FM9.99')</code>	'-.1'
<code>to_char(0.1, '0.9')</code>	' 0.1'
<code>to_char(12, '9990999.9')</code>	' 0012.0'
<code>to_char(12, 'FM9990999.9')</code>	'0012.'
<code>to_char(485, '999')</code>	' 485'
<code>to_char(-485, '999')</code>	'-485'
<code>to_char(485, '9 9 9')</code>	' 4 8 5'
<code>to_char(1485, '9,999')</code>	' 1,485'
<code>to_char(1485, '9G999')</code>	' 1 485'
<code>to_char(148.5, '999.999')</code>	' 148.500'
<code>to_char(148.5, 'FM999.999')</code>	'148.5'
<code>to_char(148.5, 'FM999.990')</code>	'148.500'
<code>to_char(148.5, '999D999')</code>	' 148,500'
<code>to_char(3148.5, '9G999D999')</code>	' 3 148,500'
<code>to_char(-485, '999S')</code>	'485-'
<code>to_char(-485, '999MI')</code>	'485-'
<code>to_char(485, '999MI')</code>	'485 '
<code>to_char(485, 'FM999MI')</code>	'485'
<code>to_char(485, 'PL999')</code>	'+485'
<code>to_char(485, 'SG999')</code>	'+485'
<code>to_char(-485, 'SG999')</code>	'-485'
<code>to_char(-485, '9SG99')</code>	'4-85'
<code>to_char(-485, '999PR')</code>	'<485>'
<code>to_char(485, 'L999')</code>	'DM 485'
<code>to_char(485, 'RN')</code>	' CDLXXXV'
<code>to_char(485, 'FMRN')</code>	'CDLXXXV'
<code>to_char(5.2, 'FMRN')</code>	'V'
<code>to_char(482, '999th')</code>	' 482nd'
<code>to_char(485, '"Good number:"999')</code>	'Good number: 485'

Expression	Result
<code>to_char(485.8, 'Pre:"999" Post:" .999')</code>	<code>'Pre: 485 Post: .800'</code>
<code>to_char(12, '99V999')</code>	<code>' 12000'</code>
<code>to_char(12.4, '99V999')</code>	<code>' 12400'</code>
<code>to_char(12.45, '99V9')</code>	<code>' 125'</code>

9.9. Date/Time Functions and Operators

Table 9-26 shows the available functions for date/time value processing, with details appearing in the following subsections. Table 9-25 illustrates the behaviors of the basic arithmetic operators (+, *, etc.). For formatting functions, refer to Section 9.8. You should be familiar with the background information on date/time data types from Section 8.5.

All the functions and operators described below that take `time` or `timestamp` inputs actually come in two variants: one that takes `time` with `time zone` or `timestamp` with `time zone`, and one that takes `time` without `time zone` or `timestamp` without `time zone`. For brevity, these variants are not shown separately. Also, the + and * operators come in commutative pairs (for example both `date + integer` and `integer + date`); we show only one of each such pair.

Table 9-25. Date/Time Operators

Operator	Example	Result
+	<code>date '2001-09-28' + integer '7'</code>	<code>date '2001-10-05'</code>
+	<code>date '2001-09-28' + interval '1 hour'</code>	<code>timestamp '2001-09-28 01:00'</code>
+	<code>date '2001-09-28' + time '03:00'</code>	<code>timestamp '2001-09-28 03:00'</code>
+	<code>interval '1 day' + interval '1 hour'</code>	<code>interval '1 day 01:00'</code>
+	<code>timestamp '2001-09-28 01:00' + interval '23 hours'</code>	<code>timestamp '2001-09-29 00:00'</code>
+	<code>time '01:00' + interval '3 hours'</code>	<code>time '04:00'</code>
-	<code>- interval '23 hours'</code>	<code>interval '-23:00'</code>
-	<code>date '2001-10-01' - date '2001-09-28'</code>	<code>integer '3'</code>
-	<code>date '2001-10-01' - integer '7'</code>	<code>date '2001-09-24'</code>
-	<code>date '2001-09-28' - interval '1 hour'</code>	<code>timestamp '2001-09-27 23:00'</code>

Operator	Example	Result
-	time '05:00' - time '03:00'	interval '02:00'
-	time '05:00' - interval '2 hours'	time '03:00'
-	timestamp '2001-09-28 23:00' - interval '23 hours'	timestamp '2001-09-28 00:00'
-	interval '1 day' - interval '1 hour'	interval '23:00'
-	timestamp '2001-09-29 03:00' - timestamp '2001-09-27 12:00'	interval '1 day 15:00'
*	interval '1 hour' * double precision '3.5'	interval '03:30'
/	interval '1 hour' / double precision '1.5'	interval '00:40'

Table 9-26. Date/Time Functions

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
age(timestamp, timestamp)	interval	Subtract arguments, producing a “symbolic” result that uses years and months	age(timestamp '2001-04-10', timestamp '1957-06-13')	43 years 9 mons 27 days
age(timestamp)	interval	Subtract from current_date	age(timestamp '1957-06-13')	43 years 8 mons 3 days
current_date	date	Today's date; see Section 9.9.4		
current_time	time with time zone	Time of day; see Section 9.9.4		
current_timestamp	timestamp with time zone	Date and time; see Section 9.9.4		
date_part(text, timestamp)	double precision	Get subfield (equivalent to extract); see Section 9.9.1	date_part('hour', timestamp '2001-02-16 20:38:40')	20
date_part(text, interval)	double precision	Get subfield (equivalent to extract); see Section 9.9.1	date_part('month', interval '2 years 3 months')	3

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>date_trunc(text, timestamp)</code>	timestamp	Truncate to specified precision; see also Section 9.9.2	<code>date_trunc('hour', timestamp '2001-02-16 20:38:40')</code>	2001-02-16 20:00:00
<code>extract(field from timestamp)</code>	double precision	Get subfield; see Section 9.9.1	<code>extract(hour from timestamp '2001-02-16 20:38:40')</code>	20
<code>extract(field from interval)</code>	double precision	Get subfield; see Section 9.9.1	<code>extract(month from interval '2 years 3 months')</code>	3
<code>isfinite(timestamp)</code>	boolean	Test for finite time stamp (not equal to infinity)	<code>isfinite(timestamp '2001-02-16 21:28:30')</code>	true
<code>isfinite(interval)</code>	boolean	Test for finite interval	<code>isfinite(interval '4 hours')</code>	true
<code>localtime</code>	time	Time of day; see Section 9.9.4		
<code>localtimestamp</code>	timestamp	Date and time; see Section 9.9.4		
<code>now()</code>	timestamp with time zone	Current date and time (equivalent to <code>current_timestamp</code>); see Section 9.9.4		
<code>timeofday()</code>	text	Current date and time; see Section 9.9.4		

In addition to these functions, the SQL `OVERLAPS` operator is supported:

```
( start1, end1 ) OVERLAPS ( start2, end2 )
( start1, length1 ) OVERLAPS ( start2, length2 )
```

This expression yields true when two time periods (defined by their endpoints) overlap, false when they do not overlap. The endpoints can be specified as pairs of dates, times, or time stamps; or as a date, time, or time stamp followed by an interval.

```
SELECT (DATE '2001-02-16', DATE '2001-12-21') OVERLAPS
       (DATE '2001-10-30', DATE '2002-10-30');
Result: true
SELECT (DATE '2001-02-16', INTERVAL '100 days') OVERLAPS
       (DATE '2001-10-30', DATE '2002-10-30');
Result: false
```

9.9.1. EXTRACT, date_part

```
EXTRACT (field FROM source)
```

The `extract` function retrieves subfields such as year or hour from date/time values. *source* must be a value expression of type `timestamp`, `time`, or `interval`. (Expressions of type `date` will be cast to `timestamp` and can therefore be used as well.) *field* is an identifier or string that selects what field to extract from the source value. The `extract` function returns values of type `double precision`. The following are valid field names:

century

The century

```
SELECT EXTRACT(CENTURY FROM TIMESTAMP '2000-12-16 12:21:13');
Result: 20
SELECT EXTRACT(CENTURY FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 21
```

The first century starts at 0001-01-01 00:00:00 AD, although they did not know it at the time. This definition applies to all Gregorian calendar countries. There is no century number 0, you go from -1 to 1. If you disagree with this, please write your complaint to: Pope, Cathedral Saint-Peter of Roma, Vatican.

PostgreSQL releases before 8.0 did not follow the conventional numbering of centuries, but just returned the year field divided by 100.

day

The day (of the month) field (1 - 31)

```
SELECT EXTRACT(DAY FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 16
```

decade

The year field divided by 10

```
SELECT EXTRACT(DECADE FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 200
```

dow

The day of the week (0 - 6; Sunday is 0) (for `timestamp` values only)

```
SELECT EXTRACT(DOW FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 5
```

Note that `extract`'s day of the week numbering is different from that of the `to_char` function.

doym

The day of the year (1 - 365/366) (for `timestamp` values only)

```
SELECT EXTRACT(DOY FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 47
```

epoch

For date and timestamp values, the number of seconds since 1970-01-01 00:00:00-00 (can be negative); for interval values, the total number of seconds in the interval

```
SELECT EXTRACT(EPOCH FROM TIMESTAMP WITH TIME ZONE '2001-02-16 20:38:40-08');
Result: 982384720
```

```
SELECT EXTRACT(EPOCH FROM INTERVAL '5 days 3 hours');
Result: 442800
```

Here is how you can convert an epoch value back to a time stamp:

```
SELECT TIMESTAMP WITH TIME ZONE 'epoch' + 982384720 * INTERVAL '1 second';
```

hour

The hour field (0 - 23)

```
SELECT EXTRACT(HOUR FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 20
```

microseconds

The seconds field, including fractional parts, multiplied by 1 000 000. Note that this includes full seconds.

```
SELECT EXTRACT(MICROSECONDS FROM TIME '17:12:28.5');
Result: 28500000
```

millennium

The millennium

```
SELECT EXTRACT(MILLENNIUM FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 3
```

Years in the 1900s are in the second millennium. The third millennium starts January 1, 2001.

PostgreSQL releases before 8.0 did not follow the conventional numbering of millennia, but just returned the year field divided by 1000.

milliseconds

The seconds field, including fractional parts, multiplied by 1000. Note that this includes full seconds.

```
SELECT EXTRACT(MILLISECONDS FROM TIME '17:12:28.5');
Result: 28500
```

minute

The minutes field (0 - 59)

```
SELECT EXTRACT(MINUTE FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 38
```

month

For timestamp values, the number of the month within the year (1 - 12); for interval values the number of months, modulo 12 (0 - 11)

```
SELECT EXTRACT(MONTH FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 2
```

```
SELECT EXTRACT(MONTH FROM INTERVAL '2 years 3 months');
```

Result: 3

```
SELECT EXTRACT(MONTH FROM INTERVAL '2 years 13 months');
```

Result: 1

quarter

The quarter of the year (1 - 4) that the day is in (for timestamp values only)

```
SELECT EXTRACT(QUARTER FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
```

Result: 1

second

The seconds field, including fractional parts (0 - 59¹)

```
SELECT EXTRACT(SECOND FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
```

Result: 40

```
SELECT EXTRACT(SECOND FROM TIME '17:12:28.5');
```

Result: 28.5

timezone

The time zone offset from UTC, measured in seconds. Positive values correspond to time zones east of UTC, negative values to zones west of UTC.

timezone_hour

The hour component of the time zone offset

timezone_minute

The minute component of the time zone offset

week

The number of the week of the year that the day is in. By definition (ISO 8601), the first week of a year contains January 4 of that year. (The ISO-8601 week starts on Monday.) In other words, the first Thursday of a year is in week 1 of that year. (for timestamp values only)

```
SELECT EXTRACT(WEEK FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
```

Result: 7

year

The year field. Keep in mind there is no 0 AD, so subtracting BC years from AD years should be done with care.

```
SELECT EXTRACT(YEAR FROM TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
```

Result: 2001

The `extract` function is primarily intended for computational processing. For formatting date/time values for display, see Section 9.8.

The `date_part` function is modeled on the traditional Ingres equivalent to the SQL-standard function `extract`:

¹60 if leap seconds are implemented by the operating system

```
date_part('field', source)
```

Note that here the *field* parameter needs to be a string value, not a name. The valid field names for `date_part` are the same as for `extract`.

```
SELECT date_part('day', TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 16
```

```
SELECT date_part('hour', INTERVAL '4 hours 3 minutes');
Result: 4
```

9.9.2. date_trunc

The function `date_trunc` is conceptually similar to the `trunc` function for numbers.

```
date_trunc('field', source)
```

source is a value expression of type `timestamp` or `interval`. (Values of type `date` and `time` are cast automatically, to `timestamp` or `interval` respectively.) *field* selects to which precision to truncate the input value. The return value is of type `timestamp` or `interval` with all fields that are less significant than the selected one set to zero (or one, for day and month).

Valid values for *field* are:

```
microseconds
milliseconds
second
minute
hour
day
week
month
year
decade
century
millennium
```

Examples:

```
SELECT date_trunc('hour', TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 2001-02-16 20:00:00
```

```
SELECT date_trunc('year', TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40');
Result: 2001-01-01 00:00:00
```

9.9.3. AT TIME ZONE

The `AT TIME ZONE` construct allows conversions of time stamps to different time zones. Table 9-27 shows its variants.

Table 9-27. AT TIME ZONE Variants

Expression	Return Type	Description
timestamp without time zone <code>AT TIME ZONE zone</code>	timestamp with time zone	Convert local time in given time zone to UTC
timestamp with time zone <code>AT TIME ZONE zone</code>	timestamp without time zone	Convert UTC to local time in given time zone
time with time zone <code>AT TIME ZONE zone</code>	time with time zone	Convert local time across time zones

In these expressions, the desired time zone *zone* can be specified either as a text string (e.g., 'PST') or as an interval (e.g., `INTERVAL '-08:00'`). In the text case, the available zone names are those shown in Table B-4. (It would be useful to support the more general names shown in Table B-6, but this is not yet implemented.)

Examples (supposing that the local time zone is `PST8PDT`):

```
SELECT TIMESTAMP '2001-02-16 20:38:40' AT TIME ZONE 'MST';
Result: 2001-02-16 19:38:40-08
```

```
SELECT TIMESTAMP WITH TIME ZONE '2001-02-16 20:38:40-05' AT TIME ZONE 'MST';
Result: 2001-02-16 18:38:40
```

The first example takes a zone-less time stamp and interprets it as MST time (UTC-7) to produce a UTC time stamp, which is then rotated to PST (UTC-8) for display. The second example takes a time stamp specified in EST (UTC-5) and converts it to local time in MST (UTC-7).

The function `timezone(zone, timestamp)` is equivalent to the SQL-conforming construct `timestamp AT TIME ZONE zone`.

9.9.4. Current Date/Time

The following functions are available to obtain the current date and/or time:

```
CURRENT_DATE
CURRENT_TIME
CURRENT_TIMESTAMP
CURRENT_TIME ( precision )
CURRENT_TIMESTAMP ( precision )
LOCALTIME
LOCALTIMESTAMP
LOCALTIME ( precision )
LOCALTIMESTAMP ( precision )
```

`CURRENT_TIME` and `CURRENT_TIMESTAMP` deliver values with time zone; `LOCALTIME` and `LOCALTIMESTAMP` deliver values without time zone.

`CURRENT_TIME`, `CURRENT_TIMESTAMP`, `LOCALTIME`, and `LOCALTIMESTAMP` can optionally be given a precision parameter, which causes the result to be rounded to that many fractional digits in the seconds field. Without a precision parameter, the result is given to the full available precision.

Note: Prior to PostgreSQL 7.2, the precision parameters were unimplemented, and the result was always given in integer seconds.

Some examples:

```
SELECT CURRENT_TIME;
Result: 14:39:53.662522-05

SELECT CURRENT_DATE;
Result: 2001-12-23

SELECT CURRENT_TIMESTAMP;
Result: 2001-12-23 14:39:53.662522-05

SELECT CURRENT_TIMESTAMP(2);
Result: 2001-12-23 14:39:53.66-05

SELECT LOCALTIMESTAMP;
Result: 2001-12-23 14:39:53.662522
```

The function `now()` is the traditional PostgreSQL equivalent to `CURRENT_TIMESTAMP`.

There is also the function `timeofday()`, which for historical reasons returns a text string rather than a timestamp value:

```
SELECT timeofday();
Result: Sat Feb 17 19:07:32.000126 2001 EST
```

It is important to know that `CURRENT_TIMESTAMP` and related functions return the start time of the current transaction; their values do not change during the transaction. This is considered a feature: the intent is to allow a single transaction to have a consistent notion of the “current” time, so that multiple modifications within the same transaction bear the same time stamp. `timeofday()` returns the wall-clock time and does advance during transactions.

Note: Other database systems may advance these values more frequently.

All the date/time data types also accept the special literal value `now` to specify the current date and time. Thus, the following three all return the same result:

```
SELECT CURRENT_TIMESTAMP;
```

```
SELECT now();
SELECT TIMESTAMP 'now';
```

Tip: You do not want to use the third form when specifying a `DEFAULT` clause while creating a table. The system will convert `now` to a `timestamp` as soon as the constant is parsed, so that when the default value is needed, the time of the table creation would be used! The first two forms will not be evaluated until the default value is used, because they are function calls. Thus they will give the desired behavior of defaulting to the time of row insertion.

9.10. Geometric Functions and Operators

The geometric types `point`, `box`, `lseg`, `line`, `path`, `polygon`, and `circle` have a large set of native support functions and operators, shown in Table 9-28, Table 9-29, and Table 9-30.

Table 9-28. Geometric Operators

Operator	Description	Example
+	Translation	<code>box '((0,0),(1,1))' + point '(2.0,0)'</code>
-	Translation	<code>box '((0,0),(1,1))' - point '(2.0,0)'</code>
*	Scaling/rotation	<code>box '((0,0),(1,1))' * point '(2.0,0)'</code>
/	Scaling/rotation	<code>box '((0,0),(2,2))' / point '(2.0,0)'</code>
#	Point or box of intersection	<code>'((1,-1),(-1,1))' # '((1,1),(-1,-1))'</code>
#	Number of points in path or polygon	<code># '((1,0),(0,1),(-1,0))'</code>
@-@	Length or circumference	<code>@-@ path '((0,0),(1,0))'</code>
@@	Center	<code>@@ circle '((0,0),10)'</code>
##	Closest point to first operand on second operand	<code>point '(0,0)' ## lseg '((2,0),(0,2))'</code>
<->	Distance between	<code>circle '((0,0),1)' <-> circle '((5,0),1)'</code>
&&	Overlaps?	<code>box '((0,0),(1,1))' && box '((0,0),(2,2))'</code>
&<	Does not extend to the right of?	<code>box '((0,0),(1,1))' &< box '((0,0),(2,2))'</code>

Operator	Description	Example
&>	Does not extend to the left of?	box '((0,0),(3,3))' &> box '((0,0),(2,2))'
<<	Is left of?	circle '((0,0),1)' << circle '((5,0),1)'
>>	Is right of?	circle '((5,0),1)' >> circle '((0,0),1)'
<^	Is below?	circle '((0,0),1)' <^ circle '((0,5),1)'
>^	Is above?	circle '((0,5),1)' >^ circle '((0,0),1)'
?#	Intersects?	lseg '((-1,0),(1,0))' ?# box '((-2,-2),(2,2))'
?-	Is horizontal?	?- lseg '((-1,0),(1,0))'
?-	Are horizontally aligned?	point '(1,0)' ?- point '(0,0)'
?	Is vertical?	? lseg '((-1,0),(1,0))'
?	Are vertically aligned?	point '(0,1)' ? point '(0,0)'
?-	Is perpendicular?	lseg '((0,0),(0,1))' ?- lseg '((0,0),(1,0))'
?	Are parallel?	lseg '((-1,0),(1,0))' ? lseg '((-1,2),(1,2))'
~	Contains?	circle '((0,0),2)' ~ point '(1,1)'
@	Contained in or on?	point '(1,1)' @ circle '((0,0),2)'
~=	Same as?	polygon '((0,0),(1,1))' ~= polygon '((1,1),(0,0))'

Table 9-29. Geometric Functions

Function	Return Type	Description	Example
area(<i>object</i>)	double precision	area	area(box '((0,0),(1,1))')
box_intersect(box, box)	box	intersection box	box_intersect(box '((0,0),(1,1))',box '((0.5,0.5),(2,2))')
center(<i>object</i>)	point	center	center(box '((0,0),(1,2))')

Function	Return Type	Description	Example
diameter(circle)	double precision	diameter of circle	diameter(circle '((0,0),2.0)')
height(box)	double precision	vertical size of box	height(box '((0,0),(1,1))')
isclosed(path)	boolean	a closed path?	isclosed(path '((0,0),(1,1),(2,0))')
isopen(path)	boolean	an open path?	isopen(path '[(0,0),(1,1),(2,0)]')
length(object)	double precision	length	length(path '((-1,0),(1,0))')
npoints(path)	integer	number of points	npoints(path '[(0,0),(1,1),(2,0)]')
npoints(polygon)	integer	number of points	npoints(polygon '((1,1),(0,0))')
pclose(path)	path	convert path to closed	pclose(path '[(0,0),(1,1),(2,0)]')
popen(path)	path	convert path to open	popen(path '((0,0),(1,1),(2,0))')
radius(circle)	double precision	radius of circle	radius(circle '((0,0),2.0)')
width(box)	double precision	horizontal size of box	width(box '((0,0),(1,1))')

Table 9-30. Geometric Type Conversion Functions

Function	Return Type	Description	Example
box(circle)	box	circle to box	box(circle '((0,0),2.0)')
box(point, point)	box	points to box	box(point '(0,0)', point '(1,1)')
box(polygon)	box	polygon to box	box(polygon '((0,0),(1,1),(2,0))')
circle(box)	circle	box to circle	circle(box '((0,0),(1,1))')
circle(point, double precision)	circle	point and radius to circle	circle(point '(0,0)', 2.0)

Function	Return Type	Description	Example
<code>lseg(box)</code>	<code>lseg</code>	box diagonal to line segment	<code>lseg(box '((-1,0),(1,0))')</code>
<code>lseg(point, point)</code>	<code>lseg</code>	points to line segment	<code>lseg(point '(-1,0)', point '(1,0)')</code>
<code>path(polygon)</code>	<code>point</code>	polygon to path	<code>path(polygon '((0,0),(1,1),(2,0))')</code>
<code>point(circle)</code>	<code>point</code>	center of circle	<code>point(circle '((0,0),2.0)')</code>
<code>point(lseg, lseg)</code>	<code>point</code>	intersection	<code>point(lseg '((-1,0),(1,0))', lseg '((-2,-2),(2,2))')</code>
<code>point(polygon)</code>	<code>point</code>	center of polygon	<code>point(polygon '((0,0),(1,1),(2,0))')</code>
<code>polygon(box)</code>	<code>polygon</code>	box to 4-point polygon	<code>polygon(box '((0,0),(1,1))')</code>
<code>polygon(circle)</code>	<code>polygon</code>	circle to 12-point polygon	<code>polygon(circle '((0,0),2.0)')</code>
<code>polygon(<i>npts</i>, circle)</code>	<code>polygon</code>	circle to <i>npts</i> -point polygon	<code>polygon(12, circle '((0,0),2.0)')</code>
<code>polygon(path)</code>	<code>polygon</code>	path to polygon	<code>polygon(path '((0,0),(1,1),(2,0))')</code>

It is possible to access the two component numbers of a `point` as though it were an array with indices 0 and 1. For example, if `t.p` is a `point` column then `SELECT p[0] FROM t` retrieves the X coordinate and `UPDATE t SET p[1] = ...` changes the Y coordinate. In the same way, a value of type `box` or `lseg` may be treated as an array of two `point` values.

The `area` function works for the types `box`, `circle`, and `path`. The `area` function only works on the `path` data type if the points in the `path` are non-intersecting. For example, the `path '((0,0),(0,1),(2,1),(2,2),(1,2),(1,0),(0,0))'::PATH` won't work, however, the following visually identical `path '((0,0),(0,1),(1,1),(1,2),(2,2),(2,1),(1,1),(1,0),(0,0))'::PATH` will work. If the concept of an intersecting versus non-intersecting path is confusing, draw both of the above paths side by side on a piece of graph paper.

9.11. Network Address Functions and Operators

Table 9-31 shows the operators available for the `cidr` and `inet` types. The operators `<<`, `<<=`, `>>`, and `>>=` test for subnet inclusion. They consider only the network parts of the two addresses, ignoring any

host part, and determine whether one network part is identical to or a subnet of the other.

Table 9-31. cidr and inet Operators

Operator	Description	Example
<	is less than	inet '192.168.1.5' < inet '192.168.1.6'
<=	is less than or equal	inet '192.168.1.5' <= inet '192.168.1.5'
=	equals	inet '192.168.1.5' = inet '192.168.1.5'
>=	is greater or equal	inet '192.168.1.5' >= inet '192.168.1.5'
>	is greater than	inet '192.168.1.5' > inet '192.168.1.4'
<>	is not equal	inet '192.168.1.5' <> inet '192.168.1.4'
<<	is contained within	inet '192.168.1.5' << inet '192.168.1/24'
<<=	is contained within or equals	inet '192.168.1/24' <<= inet '192.168.1/24'
>>	contains	inet '192.168.1/24' >> inet '192.168.1.5'
>>=	contains or equals	inet '192.168.1/24' >>= inet '192.168.1/24'

Table 9-32 shows the functions available for use with the `cidr` and `inet` types. The `host`, `text`, and `abbrev` functions are primarily intended to offer alternative display formats. You can cast a text value to `inet` using normal casting syntax: `inet(expression)` or `colname::inet`.

Table 9-32. cidr and inet Functions

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>broadcast(inet)</code>	<code>inet</code>	broadcast address for network	<code>broadcast('192.168.1.5/24')</code>	192.168.255.255/24
<code>host(inet)</code>	<code>text</code>	extract IP address as text	<code>host('192.168.1.5/24')</code>	192.168.1.5
<code>masklen(inet)</code>	<code>integer</code>	extract netmask length	<code>masklen('192.168.1.5/24')</code>	24
<code>set_masklen(inet, integer)</code>	<code>inet</code>	set netmask length for inet value	<code>set_masklen('192.168.1.5', 16)</code>	192.168.1.5/16
<code>netmask(inet)</code>	<code>inet</code>	construct netmask for network	<code>netmask('192.168.1.5/24')</code>	255.255.255.0

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>hostmask(inet)</code>	<code>inet</code>	construct host mask for network	<code>hostmask('192.168.0.0/30')</code>	<code>192.168.0.255</code>
<code>network(inet)</code>	<code>cidr</code>	extract network part of address	<code>network('192.168.1.0/24')</code>	<code>192.168.1.0/24</code>
<code>text(inet)</code>	<code>text</code>	extract IP address and netmask length as text	<code>text(inet '192.168.1.5')</code>	<code>192.168.1.5/32</code>
<code>abbrev(inet)</code>	<code>text</code>	abbreviated display format as text	<code>abbrev(cidr '10.1.0.0/16')</code>	<code>10.1/16</code>
<code>family(inet)</code>	<code>integer</code>	extract family of address; 4 for IPv4, 6 for IPv6	<code>family('::1')</code>	<code>6</code>

Table 9-33 shows the functions available for use with the `macaddr` type. The function `trunc(macaddr)` returns a MAC address with the last 3 bytes set to zero. This can be used to associate the remaining prefix with a manufacturer. The directory `contrib/mac` in the source distribution contains some utilities to create and maintain such an association table.

Table 9-33. `macaddr` Functions

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
<code>trunc(macaddr)</code>	<code>macaddr</code>	set last 3 bytes to zero	<code>trunc(macaddr '12:34:56:78:90:ab')</code>	<code>12:34:56:00:00:00</code>

The `macaddr` type also supports the standard relational operators (`>`, `<=`, etc.) for lexicographical ordering.

9.12. Sequence Manipulation Functions

This section describes PostgreSQL's functions for operating on *sequence objects*. Sequence objects (also called sequence generators or just sequences) are special single-row tables created with `CREATE SEQUENCE`. A sequence object is usually used to generate unique identifiers for rows of a table. The sequence functions, listed in Table 9-34, provide simple, multiuser-safe methods for obtaining successive sequence values from sequence objects.

Table 9-34. Sequence Functions

Function	Return Type	Description
<code>nextval(text)</code>	<code>bigint</code>	Advance sequence and return new value
<code>currval(text)</code>	<code>bigint</code>	Return value most recently obtained with <code>nextval</code>
<code>setval(text, bigint)</code>	<code>bigint</code>	Set sequence's current value

Function	Return Type	Description
setval(text, bigint, boolean)	bigint	Set sequence's current value and is_called flag

For largely historical reasons, the sequence to be operated on by a sequence-function call is specified by a text-string argument. To achieve some compatibility with the handling of ordinary SQL names, the sequence functions convert their argument to lowercase unless the string is double-quoted. Thus

```
nextval('foo')      operates on sequence foo
nextval('FOO')      operates on sequence foo
nextval('"Foo"')    operates on sequence Foo
```

The sequence name can be schema-qualified if necessary:

```
nextval('myschema.foo')  operates on myschema.foo
nextval('"myschema".foo') same as above
nextval('foo')           searches search path for foo
```

Of course, the text argument can be the result of an expression, not only a simple literal, which is occasionally useful.

The available sequence functions are:

`nextval`

Advance the sequence object to its next value and return that value. This is done atomically: even if multiple sessions execute `nextval` concurrently, each will safely receive a distinct sequence value.

`currval`

Return the value most recently obtained by `nextval` for this sequence in the current session. (An error is reported if `nextval` has never been called for this sequence in this session.) Notice that because this is returning a session-local value, it gives a predictable answer whether or not other sessions have executed `nextval` since the current session did.

`setval`

Reset the sequence object's counter value. The two-parameter form sets the sequence's `last_value` field to the specified value and sets its `is_called` field to `true`, meaning that the next `nextval` will advance the sequence before returning a value. In the three-parameter form, `is_called` may be set either `true` or `false`. If it's set to `false`, the next `nextval` will return exactly the specified value, and sequence advancement commences with the following `nextval`. For example,

```
SELECT setval('foo', 42);           Next nextval will return 43
SELECT setval('foo', 42, true);     Same as above
SELECT setval('foo', 42, false);    Next nextval will return 42
```

The result returned by `setval` is just the value of its second argument.

Important: To avoid blocking of concurrent transactions that obtain numbers from the same sequence, a `nextval` operation is never rolled back; that is, once a value has been fetched it is considered used, even if the transaction that did the `nextval` later aborts. This means that aborted transactions may

leave unused “holes” in the sequence of assigned values. `setval` operations are never rolled back, either.

If a sequence object has been created with default parameters, `nextval` calls on it will return successive values beginning with 1. Other behaviors can be obtained by using special parameters in the `CREATE SEQUENCE` command; see its command reference page for more information.

9.13. Conditional Expressions

This section describes the SQL-compliant conditional expressions available in PostgreSQL.

Tip: If your needs go beyond the capabilities of these conditional expressions you might want to consider writing a stored procedure in a more expressive programming language.

9.13.1. CASE

The SQL `CASE` expression is a generic conditional expression, similar to `if/else` statements in other languages:

```
CASE WHEN condition THEN result
      [WHEN ...]
      [ELSE result]
END
```

`CASE` clauses can be used wherever an expression is valid. *condition* is an expression that returns a boolean result. If the result is true then the value of the `CASE` expression is the *result* that follows the condition. If the result is false any subsequent `WHEN` clauses are searched in the same manner. If no `WHEN` *condition* is true then the value of the case expression is the *result* in the `ELSE` clause. If the `ELSE` clause is omitted and no condition matches, the result is null.

An example:

```
SELECT * FROM test;

 a
---
 1
 2
 3

SELECT a,
       CASE WHEN a=1 THEN 'one'
            WHEN a=2 THEN 'two'
            ELSE 'other'
       END
FROM test;
```

```

a | case
---+-----
1 | one
2 | two
3 | other

```

The data types of all the *result* expressions must be convertible to a single output type. See Section 10.5 for more detail.

The following “simple” CASE expression is a specialized variant of the general form above:

```

CASE expression
  WHEN value THEN result
  [WHEN ...]
  [ELSE result]
END

```

The *expression* is computed and compared to all the *value* specifications in the WHEN clauses until one is found that is equal. If no match is found, the *result* in the ELSE clause (or a null value) is returned. This is similar to the *switch* statement in C.

The example above can be written using the simple CASE syntax:

```

SELECT a,
       CASE a WHEN 1 THEN 'one'
            WHEN 2 THEN 'two'
            ELSE 'other'
       END
FROM test;

```

```

a | case
---+-----
1 | one
2 | two
3 | other

```

A CASE expression does not evaluate any subexpressions that are not needed to determine the result. For example, this is a possible way of avoiding a division-by-zero failure:

```

SELECT ... WHERE CASE WHEN x <> 0 THEN y/x > 1.5 ELSE false END;

```

9.13.2. COALESCE

```

COALESCE(value [, ...])

```

The `COALESCE` function returns the first of its arguments that is not null. Null is returned only if all arguments are null. This is often useful to substitute a default value for null values when data is retrieved for display, for example:

```
SELECT COALESCE(description, short_description, '(none)') ...
```

Like a `CASE` expression, `COALESCE` will not evaluate arguments that are not needed to determine the result; that is, arguments to the right of the first non-null argument are not evaluated.

9.13.3. NULLIF

```
NULLIF(value1, value2)
```

The `NULLIF` function returns a null value if and only if `value1` and `value2` are equal. Otherwise it returns `value1`. This can be used to perform the inverse operation of the `COALESCE` example given above:

```
SELECT NULLIF(value, '(none)') ...
```

9.14. Array Functions and Operators

Table 9-35 shows the operators available for array types.

Table 9-35. array Operators

Operator	Description	Example	Result
=	equal	ARRAY[1.1,2.1,3.1] = ARRAY[1,2,3]	int[]
<>	not equal	ARRAY[1,2,3] <> ARRAY[1,2,4]	t
<	less than	ARRAY[1,2,3] < ARRAY[1,2,4]	t
>	greater than	ARRAY[1,4,3] > ARRAY[1,2,4]	t
<=	less than or equal	ARRAY[1,2,3] <= ARRAY[1,2,3]	t
>=	greater than or equal	ARRAY[1,4,3] >= ARRAY[1,4,3]	t
	array-to-array concatenation	ARRAY[1,2,3] ARRAY[4,5,6]	{1,2,3,4,5,6}

Operator	Description	Example	Result
	array-to-array concatenation	ARRAY[1, 2, 3] ARRAY[[4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]]	{{1, 2, 3}, {4, 5, 6}, {7, 8, 9}}
	element-to-array concatenation	3 ARRAY[4, 5, 6]	{3, 4, 5, 6}
	array-to-element concatenation	ARRAY[4, 5, 6] 7	{4, 5, 6, 7}

See Section 8.10 for more details about array operator behavior.

Table 9-36 shows the functions available for use with array types. See Section 8.10 for more discussion and examples of the use of these functions.

Table 9-36. array Functions

Function	Return Type	Description	Example	Result
array_cat (anyarray, anyarray)	anyarray	concatenate two arrays	array_cat(ARRAY[1, 2, 3], ARRAY[4, 5])	{1, 2, 3, 4, 5}
array_append (anyarray, anelement)	anyarray	append an element to the end of an array	array_append(ARRAY[1, 2], 3)	{1, 2, 3}
array_prepend (anelement, anyarray)	anyarray	append an element to the beginning of an array	array_prepend(1, ARRAY[2, 3])	{1, 2, 3}
array_dims (anyarray)	text	returns a text representation of array's dimensions	array_dims(array[1:12, 2:3] [4, 5, 6])	{1:12, 2:3}
array_lower (anyarray, integer)	integer	returns lower bound of the requested array dimension	array_lower(array_prepend(0, ARRAY[1, 2, 3]), 1)	0
array_upper (anyarray, integer)	integer	returns upper bound of the requested array dimension	array_upper(ARRAY[1, 2, 3, 4], 1)	4
array_to_string (anyarray, text)	text	concatenates array elements using provided delimiter	array_to_string(array[1, 2, 3], '~^~')	1~^2~^3
string_to_array (text, text)	text[]	splits string into array elements using provided delimiter	string_to_array('{xx,yy,zz}' 'xx~^~yy~^~zz', '~^~')	{xx,yy,zz}

9.15. Aggregate Functions

Aggregate functions compute a single result value from a set of input values. Table 9-37 shows the built-in

aggregate functions. The special syntax considerations for aggregate functions are explained in Section 4.2.7. Consult Section 2.7 for additional introductory information.

Table 9-37. Aggregate Functions

Function	Argument Type	Return Type	Description
<code>avg(expression)</code>	smallint, integer, bigint, real, double precision, numeric, or interval	numeric for any integer type argument, double precision for a floating-point argument, otherwise the same as the argument data type	the average (arithmetic mean) of all input values
<code>bit_and(expression)</code>	smallint, integer, bigint, or bit	same as argument data type	the bitwise AND of all non-null input values, or null if none
<code>bit_or(expression)</code>	smallint, integer, bigint, or bit	same as argument data type	the bitwise OR of all non-null input values, or null if none
<code>bool_and(expression)</code>	bool	bool	true if all input values are true, otherwise false
<code>bool_or(expression)</code>	bool	bool	true if at least one input value is true, otherwise false
<code>count(*)</code>		bigint	number of input values
<code>count(expression)</code>	any	bigint	number of input values for which the value of <i>expression</i> is not null
<code>every(expression)</code>	bool	bool	equivalent to <code>bool_and</code>
<code>max(expression)</code>	any numeric, string, or date/time type	same as argument type	maximum value of <i>expression</i> across all input values
<code>min(expression)</code>	any numeric, string, or date/time type	same as argument type	minimum value of <i>expression</i> across all input values
<code>stddev(expression)</code>	smallint, integer, bigint, real, double precision, or numeric	double precision for floating-point arguments, otherwise numeric	sample standard deviation of the input values

Function	Argument Type	Return Type	Description
<code>sum(expression)</code>	smallint, integer, bigint, real, double precision, numeric, or interval	bigint for smallint or integer arguments, numeric for bigint arguments, double precision for floating-point arguments, otherwise the same as the argument data type	sum of <i>expression</i> across all input values
<code>variance(expression)</code>	smallint, integer, bigint, real, double precision, or numeric	double precision for floating-point arguments, otherwise numeric	sample variance of the input values (square of the sample standard deviation)

It should be noted that except for `count`, these functions return a null value when no rows are selected. In particular, `sum` of no rows returns null, not zero as one might expect. The `coalesce` function may be used to substitute zero for null when necessary.

Note: Boolean aggregates `bool_and` and `bool_or` correspond to standard SQL aggregates `every` and `any` or `some`. As for `any` and `some`, it seems that there is an ambiguity built into the standard syntax:

```
SELECT b1 = ANY((SELECT b2 FROM t2 ...)) FROM t1 ...;
```

Here `ANY` can be considered both as leading to a subquery or as an aggregate if the select expression returns 1 row. Thus the standard name cannot be given to these aggregates.

Note: Users accustomed to working with other SQL database management systems may be surprised by the performance characteristics of certain aggregate functions in PostgreSQL when the aggregate is applied to the entire table (in other words, no `WHERE` clause is specified). In particular, a query like

```
SELECT min(col) FROM sometable;
```

will be executed by PostgreSQL using a sequential scan of the entire table. Other database systems may optimize queries of this form to use an index on the column, if one is available. Similarly, the aggregate functions `max()` and `count()` always require a sequential scan if applied to the entire table in PostgreSQL.

PostgreSQL cannot easily implement this optimization because it also allows for user-defined aggregate queries. Since `min()`, `max()`, and `count()` are defined using a generic API for aggregate functions, there is no provision for special-casing the execution of these functions under certain circumstances.

Fortunately, there is a simple workaround for `min()` and `max()`. The query shown below is equivalent to the query above, except that it can take advantage of a B-tree index if there is one present on the column in question.

```
SELECT col FROM sometable ORDER BY col ASC LIMIT 1;
```

A similar query (obtained by substituting `DESC` for `ASC` in the query above) can be used in the place of `max()`.

Unfortunately, there is no similarly trivial query that can be used to improve the performance of `count()` when applied to the entire table.

9.16. Subquery Expressions

This section describes the SQL-compliant subquery expressions available in PostgreSQL. All of the expression forms documented in this section return Boolean (true/false) results.

9.16.1. EXISTS

```
EXISTS ( subquery )
```

The argument of `EXISTS` is an arbitrary `SELECT` statement, or *subquery*. The subquery is evaluated to determine whether it returns any rows. If it returns at least one row, the result of `EXISTS` is “true”; if the subquery returns no rows, the result of `EXISTS` is “false”.

The subquery can refer to variables from the surrounding query, which will act as constants during any one evaluation of the subquery.

The subquery will generally only be executed far enough to determine whether at least one row is returned, not all the way to completion. It is unwise to write a subquery that has any side effects (such as calling sequence functions); whether the side effects occur or not may be difficult to predict.

Since the result depends only on whether any rows are returned, and not on the contents of those rows, the output list of the subquery is normally uninteresting. A common coding convention is to write all `EXISTS` tests in the form `EXISTS(SELECT 1 WHERE ...)`. There are exceptions to this rule however, such as subqueries that use `INTERSECT`.

This simple example is like an inner join on `col2`, but it produces at most one output row for each `tab1` row, even if there are multiple matching `tab2` rows:

```
SELECT col1 FROM tab1
       WHERE EXISTS(SELECT 1 FROM tab2 WHERE col2 = tab1.col2);
```

9.16.2. IN

```
expression IN (subquery)
```

The right-hand side is a parenthesized subquery, which must return exactly one column. The left-hand expression is evaluated and compared to each row of the subquery result. The result of `IN` is “true” if any equal subquery row is found. The result is “false” if no equal row is found (including the special case where the subquery returns no rows).

Note that if the left-hand expression yields null, or if there are no equal right-hand values and at least one right-hand row yields null, the result of the `IN` construct will be null, not false. This is in accordance with SQL’s normal rules for Boolean combinations of null values.

As with `EXISTS`, it's unwise to assume that the subquery will be evaluated completely.

```
row_constructor IN (subquery)
```

The left-hand side of this form of `IN` is a row constructor, as described in Section 4.2.11. The right-hand side is a parenthesized subquery, which must return exactly as many columns as there are expressions in the left-hand row. The left-hand expressions are evaluated and compared row-wise to each row of the subquery result. The result of `IN` is “true” if any equal subquery row is found. The result is “false” if no equal row is found (including the special case where the subquery returns no rows).

As usual, null values in the rows are combined per the normal rules of SQL Boolean expressions. Two rows are considered equal if all their corresponding members are non-null and equal; the rows are unequal if any corresponding members are non-null and unequal; otherwise the result of that row comparison is unknown (null). If all the row results are either unequal or null, with at least one null, then the result of `IN` is null.

9.16.3. NOT IN

```
expression NOT IN (subquery)
```

The right-hand side is a parenthesized subquery, which must return exactly one column. The left-hand expression is evaluated and compared to each row of the subquery result. The result of `NOT IN` is “true” if only unequal subquery rows are found (including the special case where the subquery returns no rows). The result is “false” if any equal row is found.

Note that if the left-hand expression yields null, or if there are no equal right-hand values and at least one right-hand row yields null, the result of the `NOT IN` construct will be null, not true. This is in accordance with SQL's normal rules for Boolean combinations of null values.

As with `EXISTS`, it's unwise to assume that the subquery will be evaluated completely.

```
row_constructor NOT IN (subquery)
```

The left-hand side of this form of `NOT IN` is a row constructor, as described in Section 4.2.11. The right-hand side is a parenthesized subquery, which must return exactly as many columns as there are expressions in the left-hand row. The left-hand expressions are evaluated and compared row-wise to each row of the subquery result. The result of `NOT IN` is “true” if only unequal subquery rows are found (including the special case where the subquery returns no rows). The result is “false” if any equal row is found.

As usual, null values in the rows are combined per the normal rules of SQL Boolean expressions. Two rows are considered equal if all their corresponding members are non-null and equal; the rows are unequal if any corresponding members are non-null and unequal; otherwise the result of that row comparison is unknown (null). If all the row results are either unequal or null, with at least one null, then the result of `NOT IN` is null.

9.16.4. ANY/SOME

```
expression operator ANY (subquery)  
expression operator SOME (subquery)
```

The right-hand side is a parenthesized subquery, which must return exactly one column. The left-hand expression is evaluated and compared to each row of the subquery result using the given *operator*, which must yield a Boolean result. The result of *ANY* is “true” if any true result is obtained. The result is “false” if no true result is found (including the special case where the subquery returns no rows).

SOME is a synonym for *ANY*. *IN* is equivalent to = *ANY*.

Note that if there are no successes and at least one right-hand row yields null for the operator’s result, the result of the *ANY* construct will be null, not false. This is in accordance with SQL’s normal rules for Boolean combinations of null values.

As with *EXISTS*, it’s unwise to assume that the subquery will be evaluated completely.

```
row_constructor operator ANY (subquery)
row_constructor operator SOME (subquery)
```

The left-hand side of this form of *ANY* is a row constructor, as described in Section 4.2.11. The right-hand side is a parenthesized subquery, which must return exactly as many columns as there are expressions in the left-hand row. The left-hand expressions are evaluated and compared row-wise to each row of the subquery result, using the given *operator*. Presently, only = and <> operators are allowed in row-wise *ANY* constructs. The result of *ANY* is “true” if any equal or unequal row is found, respectively. The result is “false” if no such row is found (including the special case where the subquery returns no rows).

As usual, null values in the rows are combined per the normal rules of SQL Boolean expressions. Two rows are considered equal if all their corresponding members are non-null and equal; the rows are unequal if any corresponding members are non-null and unequal; otherwise the result of that row comparison is unknown (null). If there is at least one null row result, then the result of *ANY* cannot be false; it will be true or null.

9.16.5. ALL

```
expression operator ALL (subquery)
```

The right-hand side is a parenthesized subquery, which must return exactly one column. The left-hand expression is evaluated and compared to each row of the subquery result using the given *operator*, which must yield a Boolean result. The result of *ALL* is “true” if all rows yield true (including the special case where the subquery returns no rows). The result is “false” if any false result is found.

NOT IN is equivalent to <> *ALL*.

Note that if there are no failures but at least one right-hand row yields null for the operator’s result, the result of the *ALL* construct will be null, not true. This is in accordance with SQL’s normal rules for Boolean combinations of null values.

As with *EXISTS*, it’s unwise to assume that the subquery will be evaluated completely.

```
row_constructor operator ALL (subquery)
```

The left-hand side of this form of *ALL* is a row constructor, as described in Section 4.2.11. The right-hand side is a parenthesized subquery, which must return exactly as many columns as there are expressions in the left-hand row. The left-hand expressions are evaluated and compared row-wise to each row of the subquery result, using the given *operator*. Presently, only = and <> operators are allowed in row-wise *ALL* queries. The result of *ALL* is “true” if all subquery rows are equal or unequal, respectively (including

the special case where the subquery returns no rows). The result is “false” if any row is found to be unequal or equal, respectively.

As usual, null values in the rows are combined per the normal rules of SQL Boolean expressions. Two rows are considered equal if all their corresponding members are non-null and equal; the rows are unequal if any corresponding members are non-null and unequal; otherwise the result of that row comparison is unknown (null). If there is at least one null row result, then the result of ALL cannot be true; it will be false or null.

9.16.6. Row-wise Comparison

```
row_constructor operator (subquery)
```

The left-hand side is a row constructor, as described in Section 4.2.11. The right-hand side is a parenthesized subquery, which must return exactly as many columns as there are expressions in the left-hand row. Furthermore, the subquery cannot return more than one row. (If it returns zero rows, the result is taken to be null.) The left-hand side is evaluated and compared row-wise to the single subquery result row. Presently, only = and <> operators are allowed in row-wise comparisons. The result is “true” if the two rows are equal or unequal, respectively.

As usual, null values in the rows are combined per the normal rules of SQL Boolean expressions. Two rows are considered equal if all their corresponding members are non-null and equal; the rows are unequal if any corresponding members are non-null and unequal; otherwise the result of the row comparison is unknown (null).

9.17. Row and Array Comparisons

This section describes several specialized constructs for making multiple comparisons between groups of values. These forms are syntactically related to the subquery forms of the previous section, but do not involve subqueries. The forms involving array subexpressions are PostgreSQL extensions; the rest are SQL-compliant. All of the expression forms documented in this section return Boolean (true/false) results.

9.17.1. IN

```
expression IN (value[ , ...])
```

The right-hand side is a parenthesized list of scalar expressions. The result is “true” if the left-hand expression’s result is equal to any of the right-hand expressions. This is a shorthand notation for

```
expression = value1
OR
expression = value2
OR
...
```

Note that if the left-hand expression yields null, or if there are no equal right-hand values and at least one right-hand expression yields null, the result of the `IN` construct will be null, not false. This is in accordance with SQL's normal rules for Boolean combinations of null values.

9.17.2. NOT IN

```
expression NOT IN (value [, ...])
```

The right-hand side is a parenthesized list of scalar expressions. The result is “true” if the left-hand expression's result is unequal to all of the right-hand expressions. This is a shorthand notation for

```
expression <> value1
AND
expression <> value2
AND
...
```

Note that if the left-hand expression yields null, or if there are no equal right-hand values and at least one right-hand expression yields null, the result of the `NOT IN` construct will be null, not true as one might naively expect. This is in accordance with SQL's normal rules for Boolean combinations of null values.

Tip: `x NOT IN y` is equivalent to `NOT (x IN y)` in all cases. However, null values are much more likely to trip up the novice when working with `NOT IN` than when working with `IN`. It's best to express your condition positively if possible.

9.17.3. ANY/SOME (array)

```
expression operator ANY (array expression)
expression operator SOME (array expression)
```

The right-hand side is a parenthesized expression, which must yield an array value. The left-hand expression is evaluated and compared to each element of the array using the given *operator*, which must yield a Boolean result. The result of `ANY` is “true” if any true result is obtained. The result is “false” if no true result is found (including the special case where the array has zero elements).

`SOME` is a synonym for `ANY`.

9.17.4. ALL (array)

```
expression operator ALL (array expression)
```

The right-hand side is a parenthesized expression, which must yield an array value. The left-hand expression is evaluated and compared to each element of the array using the given *operator*, which must yield a Boolean result. The result of `ALL` is “true” if all comparisons yield true (including the special case where the array has zero elements). The result is “false” if any false result is found.

9.17.5. Row-wise Comparison

```
row_constructor operator row_constructor
```

Each side is a row constructor, as described in Section 4.2.11. The two row values must have the same number of fields. Each side is evaluated and they are compared row-wise. Presently, only = and <> operators are allowed in row-wise comparisons. The result is “true” if the two rows are equal or unequal, respectively.

As usual, null values in the rows are combined per the normal rules of SQL Boolean expressions. Two rows are considered equal if all their corresponding members are non-null and equal; the rows are unequal if any corresponding members are non-null and unequal; otherwise the result of the row comparison is unknown (null).

```
row_constructor IS DISTINCT FROM row_constructor
```

This construct is similar to a <> row comparison, but it does not yield null for null inputs. Instead, any null value is considered unequal to (distinct from) any non-null value, and any two nulls are considered equal (not distinct). Thus the result will always be either true or false, never null.

```
row_constructor IS NULL
row_constructor IS NOT NULL
```

These constructs test a row value for null or not null. A row value is considered not null if it has at least one field that is not null.

9.18. Set Returning Functions

This section describes functions that possibly return more than one row. Currently the only functions in this class are series generating functions, as detailed in Table 9-38.

Table 9-38. Series Generating Functions

Function	Argument Type	Return Type	Description
<code>generate_series(start stop)</code>	int or bigint	setof int or setof bigint (same as argument type)	Generate a series of values, from start to stop with a step size of one.
<code>generate_series(start stop, step)</code>	int or bigint	setof int or setof bigint (same as argument type)	Generate a series of values, from start to stop with a step size of step.

When step is positive, zero rows are returned if start is greater than stop. Conversely, when step is negative, zero rows are returned if start is less than stop. Zero rows are also returned for NULL inputs. It is an error for step to be zero. Some examples follow:

```
select * from generate_series(2,4);
generate_series
```

```

-----
                2
                3
                4
(3 rows)

select * from generate_series(5,1,-2);
generate_series
-----
                5
                3
                1
(3 rows)

select * from generate_series(4,3);
generate_series
-----
(0 rows)

select current_date + s.a as dates from generate_series(0,14,7) as s(a);
dates
-----
2004-02-05
2004-02-12
2004-02-19
(3 rows)

```

9.19. System Information Functions

Table 9-39 shows several functions that extract session and system information.

Table 9-39. Session Information Functions

Name	Return Type	Description
<code>current_database()</code>	name	name of current database
<code>current_schema()</code>	name	name of current schema
<code>current_schemas(boolean)</code>	name[]	names of schemas in search path optionally including implicit schemas
<code>current_user</code>	name	user name of current execution context
<code>inet_client_addr()</code>	inet	address of the remote connection
<code>inet_client_port()</code>	int4	port of the remote connection
<code>inet_server_addr()</code>	inet	address of the local connection
<code>inet_server_port()</code>	int4	port of the local connection
<code>session_user</code>	name	session user name

Name	Return Type	Description
<code>user</code>	name	equivalent to <code>current_user</code>
<code>version()</code>	text	PostgreSQL version information

The `session_user` is normally the user who initiated the current database connection; but superusers can change this setting with `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION`. The `current_user` is the user identifier that is applicable for permission checking. Normally, it is equal to the session user, but it changes during the execution of functions with the attribute `SECURITY DEFINER`. In Unix parlance, the session user is the “real user” and the current user is the “effective user”.

Note: `current_user`, `session_user`, and `user` have special syntactic status in SQL: they must be called without trailing parentheses.

`current_schema` returns the name of the schema that is at the front of the search path (or a null value if the search path is empty). This is the schema that will be used for any tables or other named objects that are created without specifying a target schema. `current_schemas(boolean)` returns an array of the names of all schemas presently in the search path. The Boolean option determines whether or not implicitly included system schemas such as `pg_catalog` are included in the search path returned.

Note: The search path may be altered at run time. The command is:

```
SET search_path TO schema [, schema, ...]
```

`inet_client_addr` returns the IP address of the current client, and `inet_client_port` returns the port number. `inet_server_addr` returns the IP address on which the server accepted the current connection, and `inet_server_port` returns the port number. All these functions return NULL if the current connection is via a Unix-domain socket.

`version()` returns a string describing the PostgreSQL server’s version.

Table 9-40 lists functions that allow the user to query object access privileges programmatically. See Section 5.7 for more information about privileges.

Table 9-40. Access Privilege Inquiry Functions

Name	Return Type	Description
<code>has_table_privilege(user, table, privilege)</code>	boolean	does user have privilege for table
<code>has_table_privilege(table, privilege)</code>	boolean	does current user have privilege for table
<code>has_database_privilege(user, database, privilege)</code>	boolean	does user have privilege for database
<code>has_database_privilege(database, privilege)</code>	boolean	does current user have privilege for database

Name	Return Type	Description
<code>has_function_privilege(user, function, privilege)</code>	boolean	does user have privilege for function
<code>has_function_privilege(function, privilege)</code>	boolean	does current user have privilege for function
<code>has_language_privilege(user, language, privilege)</code>	boolean	does user have privilege for language
<code>has_language_privilege(language, privilege)</code>	boolean	does current user have privilege for language
<code>has_schema_privilege(user, schema, privilege)</code>	boolean	does user have privilege for schema
<code>has_schema_privilege(schema, privilege)</code>	boolean	does current user have privilege for schema
<code>has_tablespace_privilege(user, tablespace, privilege)</code>	boolean	does user have privilege for tablespace
<code>has_tablespace_privilege(tablespace, privilege)</code>	boolean	does current user have privilege for tablespace

`has_table_privilege` checks whether a user can access a table in a particular way. The user can be specified by name or by ID (`pg_user.usesysid`), or if the argument is omitted `current_user` is assumed. The table can be specified by name or by OID. (Thus, there are actually six variants of `has_table_privilege`, which can be distinguished by the number and types of their arguments.) When specifying by name, the name can be schema-qualified if necessary. The desired access privilege type is specified by a text string, which must evaluate to one of the values `SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, `RULE`, `REFERENCES`, or `TRIGGER`. (Case of the string is not significant, however.) An example is:

```
SELECT has_table_privilege('myschema.mytable', 'select');
```

`has_database_privilege` checks whether a user can access a database in a particular way. The possibilities for its arguments are analogous to `has_table_privilege`. The desired access privilege type must evaluate to `CREATE`, `TEMPORARY`, or `TEMP` (which is equivalent to `TEMPORARY`).

`has_function_privilege` checks whether a user can access a function in a particular way. The possibilities for its arguments are analogous to `has_table_privilege`. When specifying a function by a text string rather than by OID, the allowed input is the same as for the `regprocedure` data type (see Section 8.12). The desired access privilege type must evaluate to `EXECUTE`. An example is:

```
SELECT has_function_privilege('joeuser', 'myfunc(int, text)', 'execute');
```

`has_language_privilege` checks whether a user can access a procedural language in a particular way. The possibilities for its arguments are analogous to `has_table_privilege`. The desired access privilege type must evaluate to `USAGE`.

`has_schema_privilege` checks whether a user can access a schema in a particular way. The possibilities for its arguments are analogous to `has_table_privilege`. The desired access privilege type must evaluate to `CREATE` or `USAGE`.

`has_tablespace_privilege` checks whether a user can access a tablespace in a particular way. The possibilities for its arguments are analogous to `has_table_privilege`. The desired access privilege type must evaluate to `CREATE`.

To test whether a user holds a grant option on the privilege, append `WITH GRANT OPTION` to the privilege key word; for example `'UPDATE WITH GRANT OPTION'`.

Table 9-41 shows functions that determine whether a certain object is *visible* in the current schema search path. A table is said to be visible if its containing schema is in the search path and no table of the same name appears earlier in the search path. This is equivalent to the statement that the table can be referenced by name without explicit schema qualification. For example, to list the names of all visible tables:

```
SELECT relname FROM pg_class WHERE pg_table_is_visible(oid);
```

Table 9-41. Schema Visibility Inquiry Functions

Name	Return Type	Description
<code>pg_table_is_visible(table_oid)</code>	boolean	is table visible in search path
<code>pg_type_is_visible(type_oid)</code>	boolean	is type (or domain) visible in search path
<code>pg_function_is_visible(function_oid)</code>	boolean	is function visible in search path
<code>pg_operator_is_visible(operator_oid)</code>	boolean	is operator visible in search path
<code>pg_opclass_is_visible(opclass_oid)</code>	boolean	is operator class visible in search path
<code>pg_conversion_is_visible(conversion_oid)</code>	boolean	is conversion visible in search path

`pg_table_is_visible` performs the check for tables (or views, or any other kind of `pg_class` entry). `pg_type_is_visible`, `pg_function_is_visible`, `pg_operator_is_visible`, `pg_opclass_is_visible`, and `pg_conversion_is_visible` perform the same sort of visibility check for types (and domains), functions, operators, operator classes and conversions, respectively. For functions and operators, an object in the search path is visible if there is no object of the same name *and argument data type(s)* earlier in the path. For operator classes, both name and associated index access method are considered.

All these functions require object OIDs to identify the object to be checked. If you want to test an object by name, it is convenient to use the OID alias types (`regclass`, `regtype`, `regprocedure`, or `regoperator`), for example

```
SELECT pg_type_is_visible('myschema.widget'::regtype);
```

Note that it would not make much sense to test an unqualified name in this way — if the name can be recognized at all, it must be visible.

Table 9-42 lists functions that extract information from the system catalogs.

Table 9-42. System Catalog Information Functions

Name	Return Type	Description
<code>pg_get_viewdef(view_name)</code>	text	get CREATE VIEW command for view (<i>deprecated</i>)
<code>pg_get_viewdef(view_name, pretty_bool)</code>	text	get CREATE VIEW command for view (<i>deprecated</i>)
<code>pg_get_viewdef(view_oid)</code>	text	get CREATE VIEW command for view
<code>pg_get_viewdef(view_oid, pretty_bool)</code>	text	get CREATE VIEW command for view
<code>pg_get_ruledef(rule_oid)</code>	text	get CREATE RULE command for rule
<code>pg_get_ruledef(rule_oid, pretty_bool)</code>	text	get CREATE RULE command for rule
<code>pg_get_indexdef(index_oid)</code>	text	get CREATE INDEX command for index
<code>pg_get_indexdef(index_oid, column_no, pretty_bool)</code>	text	get CREATE INDEX command for index, or definition of just one index column when <code>column_no</code> is not zero
<code>pg_get_triggerdef(trigger_oid)</code>	text	get CREATE [CONSTRAINT] TRIGGER command for trigger
<code>pg_get_constraintdef(constraint_oid)</code>	text	get definition of a constraint
<code>pg_get_constraintdef(constraint_oid, pretty_bool)</code>	text	get definition of a constraint
<code>pg_get_expr(expr_text, relation_oid)</code>	text	decompile internal form of an expression, assuming that any Vars in it refer to the relation indicated by the second parameter
<code>pg_get_expr(expr_text, relation_oid, pretty_bool)</code>	text	decompile internal form of an expression, assuming that any Vars in it refer to the relation indicated by the second parameter
<code>pg_get_userbyid(userid)</code>	name	get user name with given ID
<code>pg_get_serial_sequence(table_name, column_name)</code>	name	get name of the sequence that a serial or bigserial column uses
<code>pg_tablespace_databases(tablespace_oid)</code>	set of oid	get set of database OIDs that have objects in the tablespace

`pg_get_viewdef`, `pg_get_ruledef`, `pg_get_indexdef`, `pg_get_triggerdef`, and `pg_get_constraintdef` respectively reconstruct the creating command for a view, rule, index, trigger, or constraint. (Note that this is a decompiled reconstruction, not the original text of the command.)

`pg_get_expr` decompiles the internal form of an individual expression, such as the default value for a column. It may be useful when examining the contents of system catalogs. Most of these functions come in two variants, one of which can optionally “pretty-print” the result. The pretty-printed format is more readable, but the default format is more likely to be interpreted the same way by future versions of PostgreSQL; avoid using pretty-printed output for dump purposes. Passing `false` for the pretty-print parameter yields the same result as the variant that does not have the parameter at all.

`pg_get_userbyid` extracts a user’s name given a user ID number. `pg_get_serial_sequence` fetches the name of the sequence associated with a serial or bigserial column. The name is suitably formatted for passing to the sequence functions (see Section 9.12). `NULL` is returned if the column does not have a sequence attached.

`pg_tablespace_databases` allows usage examination of a tablespace. It will return a set of OIDs of databases that have objects stored in the tablespace. If this function returns any row, the tablespace is not empty and cannot be dropped. To display the specific objects populating the tablespace, you will need to connect to the databases identified by `pg_tablespace_databases` and query their `pg_class` catalogs.

The functions shown in Table 9-43 extract comments previously stored with the `COMMENT` command. A null value is returned if no comment could be found matching the specified parameters.

Table 9-43. Comment Information Functions

Name	Return Type	Description
<code>obj_description(object_oid, catalog_name)</code>	text	get comment for a database object
<code>obj_description(object_oid)</code>	text	get comment for a database object (<i>deprecated</i>)
<code>col_description(table_oid, column_number)</code>	text	get comment for a table column

The two-parameter form of `obj_description` returns the comment for a database object specified by its OID and the name of the containing system catalog. For example, `obj_description(123456, 'pg_class')` would retrieve the comment for a table with OID 123456. The one-parameter form of `obj_description` requires only the object OID. It is now deprecated since there is no guarantee that OIDs are unique across different system catalogs; therefore, the wrong comment could be returned.

`col_description` returns the comment for a table column, which is specified by the OID of its table and its column number. `obj_description` cannot be used for table columns since columns do not have OIDs of their own.

9.20. System Administration Functions

Table 9-44 shows the functions available to query and alter run-time configuration parameters.

Table 9-44. Configuration Settings Functions

Name	Return Type	Description
------	-------------	-------------

Name	Return Type	Description
<code>current_setting(setting_name)</code>	text	current value of setting
<code>set_config(setting_name, new_value, is_local)</code>	text	set parameter and return new value

The function `current_setting` yields the current value of the setting `setting_name`. It corresponds to the SQL command `SHOW`. An example:

```
SELECT current_setting('datestyle');

current_setting
-----
ISO, MDY
(1 row)
```

`set_config` sets the parameter `setting_name` to `new_value`. If `is_local` is true, the new value will only apply to the current transaction. If you want the new value to apply for the current session, use `false` instead. The function corresponds to the SQL command `SET`. An example:

```
SELECT set_config('log_statement_stats', 'off', false);

set_config
-----
off
(1 row)
```

The function shown in Table 9-45 sends control signals to other server processes. Use of this function is restricted to superusers.

Table 9-45. Backend Signalling Functions

Name	Return Type	Description
<code>pg_cancel_backend(pid)</code>	int	Cancel a backend's current query

This function returns 1 if successful, 0 if not successful. The process ID (`pid`) of an active backend can be found from the `procpid` column in the `pg_stat_activity` view, or by listing the `postgres` processes on the server with `ps`.

The functions shown in Table 9-46 assist in making on-line backups. Use of these functions is restricted to superusers.

Table 9-46. Backup Control Functions

Name	Return Type	Description
------	-------------	-------------

Name	Return Type	Description
<code>pg_start_backup(label_text)</code>	text	Set up for performing on-line backup
<code>pg_stop_backup()</code>	text	Finish performing on-line backup

`pg_start_backup` accepts a single parameter which is an arbitrary user-defined label for the backup. (Typically this would be the name under which the backup dump file will be stored.) The function writes a backup label file into the database cluster's data directory, and then returns the backup's starting WAL offset as text. (The user need not pay any attention to this result value, but it is provided in case it is of use.)

`pg_stop_backup` removes the label file created by `pg_start_backup`, and instead creates a backup history file in the WAL archive area. The history file includes the label given to `pg_start_backup`, the starting and ending WAL offsets for the backup, and the starting and ending times of the backup. The return value is the backup's ending WAL offset (which again may be of little interest).

For details about proper usage of these functions, see Section 22.3.

Chapter 10. Type Conversion

SQL statements can, intentionally or not, require mixing of different data types in the same expression. PostgreSQL has extensive facilities for evaluating mixed-type expressions.

In many cases a user will not need to understand the details of the type conversion mechanism. However, the implicit conversions done by PostgreSQL can affect the results of a query. When necessary, these results can be tailored by using *explicit* type conversion.

This chapter introduces the PostgreSQL type conversion mechanisms and conventions. Refer to the relevant sections in Chapter 8 and Chapter 9 for more information on specific data types and allowed functions and operators.

10.1. Overview

SQL is a strongly typed language. That is, every data item has an associated data type which determines its behavior and allowed usage. PostgreSQL has an extensible type system that is much more general and flexible than other SQL implementations. Hence, most type conversion behavior in PostgreSQL is governed by general rules rather than by *ad hoc* heuristics. This allows mixed-type expressions to be meaningful even with user-defined types.

The PostgreSQL scanner/parser divides lexical elements into only five fundamental categories: integers, non-integer numbers, strings, identifiers, and key words. Constants of most non-numeric types are first classified as strings. The SQL language definition allows specifying type names with strings, and this mechanism can be used in PostgreSQL to start the parser down the correct path. For example, the query

```
SELECT text 'Origin' AS "label", point '(0,0)' AS "value";
```

```
label | value
-----+-----
Origin | (0,0)
(1 row)
```

has two literal constants, of type `text` and `point`. If a type is not specified for a string literal, then the placeholder type `unknown` is assigned initially, to be resolved in later stages as described below.

There are four fundamental SQL constructs requiring distinct type conversion rules in the PostgreSQL parser:

Function calls

Much of the PostgreSQL type system is built around a rich set of functions. Functions can have one or more arguments. Since PostgreSQL permits function overloading, the function name alone does not uniquely identify the function to be called; the parser must select the right function based on the data types of the supplied arguments.

Operators

PostgreSQL allows expressions with prefix and postfix unary (one-argument) operators, as well as binary (two-argument) operators. Like functions, operators can be overloaded, and so the same problem of selecting the right operator exists.

Value Storage

SQL `INSERT` and `UPDATE` statements place the results of expressions into a table. The expressions in the statement must be matched up with, and perhaps converted to, the types of the target columns.

UNION, CASE, and ARRAY constructs

Since all query results from a unionized `SELECT` statement must appear in a single set of columns, the types of the results of each `SELECT` clause must be matched up and converted to a uniform set. Similarly, the result expressions of a `CASE` construct must be converted to a common type so that the `CASE` expression as a whole has a known output type. The same holds for `ARRAY` constructs.

The system catalogs store information about which conversions, called *casts*, between data types are valid, and how to perform those conversions. Additional casts can be added by the user with the `CREATE CAST` command. (This is usually done in conjunction with defining new data types. The set of casts between the built-in types has been carefully crafted and is best not altered.)

An additional heuristic is provided in the parser to allow better guesses at proper behavior for SQL standard types. There are several basic *type categories* defined: `boolean`, `numeric`, `string`, `bitstring`, `datetime`, `timespan`, `geometric`, `network`, and user-defined. Each category, with the exception of user-defined, has one or more *preferred types* which are preferentially selected when there is ambiguity. In the user-defined category, each type is its own preferred type. Ambiguous expressions (those with multiple candidate parsing solutions) can therefore often be resolved when there are multiple possible built-in types, but they will raise an error when there are multiple choices for user-defined types.

All type conversion rules are designed with several principles in mind:

- Implicit conversions should never have surprising or unpredictable outcomes.
- User-defined types, of which the parser has no *a priori* knowledge, should be “higher” in the type hierarchy. In mixed-type expressions, native types shall always be converted to a user-defined type (of course, only if conversion is necessary).
- User-defined types are not related. Currently, PostgreSQL does not have information available to it on relationships between types, other than hardcoded heuristics for built-in types and implicit relationships based on available functions and casts.
- There should be no extra overhead from the parser or executor if a query does not need implicit type conversion. That is, if a query is well formulated and the types already match up, then the query should proceed without spending extra time in the parser and without introducing unnecessary implicit conversion calls into the query.

Additionally, if a query usually requires an implicit conversion for a function, and if then the user defines a new function with the correct argument types, the parser should use this new function and will no longer do the implicit conversion using the old function.

10.2. Operators

The specific operator to be used in an operator invocation is determined by following the procedure below. Note that this procedure is indirectly affected by the precedence of the involved operators. See Section 4.1.6 for more information.

Operator Type Resolution

1. Select the operators to be considered from the `pg_operator` system catalog. If an unqualified operator name was used (the usual case), the operators considered are those of the right name and argument count that are visible in the current search path (see Section 5.8.3). If a qualified operator name was given, only operators in the specified schema are considered.
 - a. If the search path finds multiple operators of identical argument types, only the one appearing earliest in the path is considered. But operators of different argument types are considered on an equal footing regardless of search path position.
2. Check for an operator accepting exactly the input argument types. If one exists (there can be only one exact match in the set of operators considered), use it.
 - a. If one argument of a binary operator invocation is of the `unknown` type, then assume it is the same type as the other argument for this check. Other cases involving `unknown` will never find a match at this step.
3. Look for the best match.
 - a. Discard candidate operators for which the input types do not match and cannot be converted (using an implicit conversion) to match. `unknown` literals are assumed to be convertible to anything for this purpose. If only one candidate remains, use it; else continue to the next step.
 - b. Run through all candidates and keep those with the most exact matches on input types. (Domains are considered the same as their base type for this purpose.) Keep all candidates if none have any exact matches. If only one candidate remains, use it; else continue to the next step.
 - c. Run through all candidates and keep those that accept preferred types (of the input data type's type category) at the most positions where type conversion will be required. Keep all candidates if none accept preferred types. If only one candidate remains, use it; else continue to the next step.
 - d. If any input arguments are `unknown`, check the type categories accepted at those argument positions by the remaining candidates. At each position, select the `string` category if any candidate accepts that category. (This bias towards string is appropriate since an `unknown`-type literal does look like a string.) Otherwise, if all the remaining candidates accept the same type category, select that category; otherwise fail because the correct choice cannot be deduced without more clues. Now discard candidates that do not accept the selected type category. Furthermore, if any candidate accepts a preferred type at a given argument position, discard candidates that accept non-preferred types for that argument.
 - e. If only one candidate remains, use it. If no candidate or more than one candidate remains, then fail.

Some examples follow.

Example 10-1. Exponentiation Operator Type Resolution

There is only one exponentiation operator defined in the catalog, and it takes arguments of type `double precision`. The scanner assigns an initial type of `integer` to both arguments of this query expression:

```
SELECT 2 ^ 3 AS "exp";
```

```
exp
-----
      8
(1 row)
```

So the parser does a type conversion on both operands and the query is equivalent to

```
SELECT CAST(2 AS double precision) ^ CAST(3 AS double precision) AS "exp";
```

Example 10-2. String Concatenation Operator Type Resolution

A string-like syntax is used for working with string types as well as for working with complex extension types. Strings with unspecified type are matched with likely operator candidates.

An example with one unspecified argument:

```
SELECT text 'abc' || 'def' AS "text and unknown";
```

```
text and unknown
-----
abcdef
(1 row)
```

In this case the parser looks to see if there is an operator taking `text` for both arguments. Since there is, it assumes that the second argument should be interpreted as of type `text`.

Here is a concatenation on unspecified types:

```
SELECT 'abc' || 'def' AS "unspecified";
```

```
unspecified
-----
abcdef
(1 row)
```

In this case there is no initial hint for which type to use, since no types are specified in the query. So, the parser looks for all candidate operators and finds that there are candidates accepting both string-category and bit-string-category inputs. Since string category is preferred when available, that category is selected, and then the preferred type for strings, `text`, is used as the specific type to resolve the unknown literals to.

Example 10-3. Absolute-Value and Negation Operator Type Resolution

The PostgreSQL operator catalog has several entries for the prefix operator @, all of which implement absolute-value operations for various numeric data types. One of these entries is for type float8, which is the preferred type in the numeric category. Therefore, PostgreSQL will use that entry when faced with a non-numeric input:

```
SELECT @ '-4.5' AS "abs";
 abs
-----
 4.5
(1 row)
```

Here the system has performed an implicit conversion from text to float8 before applying the chosen operator. We can verify that float8 and not some other type was used:

```
SELECT @ '-4.5e500' AS "abs";
```

```
ERROR: "-4.5e500" is out of range for type double precision
```

On the other hand, the prefix operator ~ (bitwise negation) is defined only for integer data types, not for float8. So, if we try a similar case with ~, we get:

```
SELECT ~ '20' AS "negation";
```

```
ERROR: operator is not unique: ~ "unknown"
```

```
HINT: Could not choose a best candidate operator. You may need to add explicit
type casts.
```

This happens because the system can't decide which of the several possible ~ operators should be preferred. We can help it out with an explicit cast:

```
SELECT ~ CAST('20' AS int8) AS "negation";
```

```
 negation
-----
      -21
(1 row)
```

10.3. Functions

The specific function to be used in a function invocation is determined according to the following steps.

Function Type Resolution

1. Select the functions to be considered from the pg_proc system catalog. If an unqualified function name was used, the functions considered are those of the right name and argument count that are visible in the current search path (see Section 5.8.3). If a qualified function name was given, only functions in the specified schema are considered.
 - a. If the search path finds multiple functions of identical argument types, only the one appearing earliest in the path is considered. But functions of different argument types are considered on an equal footing regardless of search path position.

2. Check for a function accepting exactly the input argument types. If one exists (there can be only one exact match in the set of functions considered), use it. (Cases involving `unknown` will never find a match at this step.)
3. If no exact match is found, see whether the function call appears to be a trivial type conversion request. This happens if the function call has just one argument and the function name is the same as the (internal) name of some data type. Furthermore, the function argument must be either an `unknown`-type literal or a type that is binary-compatible with the named data type. When these conditions are met, the function argument is converted to the named data type without any actual function call.
4. Look for the best match.
 - a. Discard candidate functions for which the input types do not match and cannot be converted (using an implicit conversion) to match. `unknown` literals are assumed to be convertible to anything for this purpose. If only one candidate remains, use it; else continue to the next step.
 - b. Run through all candidates and keep those with the most exact matches on input types. (Domains are considered the same as their base type for this purpose.) Keep all candidates if none have any exact matches. If only one candidate remains, use it; else continue to the next step.
 - c. Run through all candidates and keep those that accept preferred types (of the input data type's type category) at the most positions where type conversion will be required. Keep all candidates if none accept preferred types. If only one candidate remains, use it; else continue to the next step.
 - d. If any input arguments are `unknown`, check the type categories accepted at those argument positions by the remaining candidates. At each position, select the `string` category if any candidate accepts that category. (This bias towards `string` is appropriate since an `unknown`-type literal does look like a string.) Otherwise, if all the remaining candidates accept the same type category, select that category; otherwise fail because the correct choice cannot be deduced without more clues. Now discard candidates that do not accept the selected type category. Furthermore, if any candidate accepts a preferred type at a given argument position, discard candidates that accept non-preferred types for that argument.
 - e. If only one candidate remains, use it. If no candidate or more than one candidate remains, then fail.

Note that the “best match” rules are identical for operator and function type resolution. Some examples follow.

Example 10-4. Rounding Function Argument Type Resolution

There is only one `round` function with two arguments. (The first is `numeric`, the second is `integer`.) So the following query automatically converts the first argument of type `integer` to `numeric`:

```
SELECT round(4, 4);

 round
-----
 4.0000
(1 row)
```

That query is actually transformed by the parser to

```
SELECT round(CAST (4 AS numeric), 4);
```

Since numeric constants with decimal points are initially assigned the type `numeric`, the following query will require no type conversion and may therefore be slightly more efficient:

```
SELECT round(4.0, 4);
```

Example 10-5. Substring Function Type Resolution

There are several `substr` functions, one of which takes types `text` and `integer`. If called with a string constant of unspecified type, the system chooses the candidate function that accepts an argument of the preferred category `string` (namely of type `text`).

```
SELECT substr('1234', 3);
```

```
substr
-----
      34
(1 row)
```

If the string is declared to be of type `varchar`, as might be the case if it comes from a table, then the parser will try to convert it to become `text`:

```
SELECT substr(varchar '1234', 3);
```

```
substr
-----
      34
(1 row)
```

This is transformed by the parser to effectively become

```
SELECT substr(CAST (varchar '1234' AS text), 3);
```

Note: The parser learns from the `pg_cast` catalog that `text` and `varchar` are binary-compatible, meaning that one can be passed to a function that accepts the other without doing any physical conversion. Therefore, no explicit type conversion call is really inserted in this case.

And, if the function is called with an argument of type `integer`, the parser will try to convert that to `text`:

```
SELECT substr(1234, 3);
```

```
substr
-----
      34
(1 row)
```

This actually executes as

```
SELECT substr(CAST (1234 AS text), 3);
```

This automatic transformation can succeed because there is an implicitly invocable cast from `integer` to `text`.

10.4. Value Storage

Values to be inserted into a table are converted to the destination column's data type according to the following steps.

Value Storage Type Conversion

1. Check for an exact match with the target.
2. Otherwise, try to convert the expression to the target type. This will succeed if there is a registered cast between the two types. If the expression is an unknown-type literal, the contents of the literal string will be fed to the input conversion routine for the target type.
3. Check to see if there is a sizing cast for the target type. A sizing cast is a cast from that type to itself. If one is found in the `pg_cast` catalog, apply it to the expression before storing into the destination column. The implementation function for such a cast always takes an extra parameter of type `integer`, which receives the destination column's declared length (actually, its `atttypmod` value; the interpretation of `atttypmod` varies for different datatypes). The cast function is responsible for applying any length-dependent semantics such as size checking or truncation.

Example 10-6. character Storage Type Conversion

For a target column declared as `character(20)` the following statement ensures that the stored value is sized correctly:

```
CREATE TABLE vv (v character(20));
INSERT INTO vv SELECT 'abc' || 'def';
SELECT v, length(v) FROM vv;
```

v	length
-----	+-----
abcdef	20
(1 row)	

What has really happened here is that the two unknown literals are resolved to `text` by default, allowing the `||` operator to be resolved as `text` concatenation. Then the `text` result of the operator is converted to `bpchar` (“blank-padded char”, the internal name of the `character` data type) to match the target column type. (Since the types `text` and `bpchar` are binary-compatible, this conversion does not insert any real function call.) Finally, the sizing function `bpchar(bpchar, integer)` is found in the system catalog and applied to the operator's result and the stored column length. This type-specific function performs the required length check and addition of padding spaces.

10.5. UNION, CASE, and ARRAY Constructs

SQL UNION constructs must match up possibly dissimilar types to become a single result set. The resolution algorithm is applied separately to each output column of a union query. The INTERSECT and EXCEPT constructs resolve dissimilar types in the same way as UNION. The CASE and ARRAY constructs use the identical algorithm to match up their component expressions and select a result data type.

UNION, CASE, and ARRAY Type Resolution

1. If all inputs are of type unknown, resolve as type text (the preferred type of the string category). Otherwise, ignore the unknown inputs while choosing the result type.
2. If the non-unknown inputs are not all of the same type category, fail.
3. Choose the first non-unknown input type which is a preferred type in that category or allows all the non-unknown inputs to be implicitly converted to it.
4. Convert all inputs to the selected type.

Some examples follow.

Example 10-7. Type Resolution with Underspecified Types in a Union

```
SELECT text 'a' AS "text" UNION SELECT 'b';

text
-----
a
b
(2 rows)
```

Here, the unknown-type literal 'b' will be resolved as type text.

Example 10-8. Type Resolution in a Simple Union

```
SELECT 1.2 AS "numeric" UNION SELECT 1;

numeric
-----
1
1.2
(2 rows)
```

The literal 1.2 is of type numeric, and the integer value 1 can be cast implicitly to numeric, so that type is used.

Example 10-9. Type Resolution in a Transposed Union

```
SELECT 1 AS "real" UNION SELECT CAST('2.2' AS REAL);
```

```
real  
-----  
  1  
  2.2  
(2 rows)
```

Here, since type `real` cannot be implicitly cast to `integer`, but `integer` can be implicitly cast to `real`, the union result type is resolved as `real`.

Chapter 11. Indexes

Indexes are a common way to enhance database performance. An index allows the database server to find and retrieve specific rows much faster than it could do without an index. But indexes also add overhead to the database system as a whole, so they should be used sensibly.

11.1. Introduction

Suppose we have a table similar to this:

```
CREATE TABLE test1 (  
    id integer,  
    content varchar  
);
```

and the application requires a lot of queries of the form

```
SELECT content FROM test1 WHERE id = constant;
```

With no advance preparation, the system would have to scan the entire `test1` table, row by row, to find all matching entries. If there are a lot of rows in `test1` and only a few rows (perhaps only zero or one) that would be returned by such a query, then this is clearly an inefficient method. But if the system has been instructed to maintain an index on the `id` column, then it can use a more efficient method for locating matching rows. For instance, it might only have to walk a few levels deep into a search tree.

A similar approach is used in most books of non-fiction: terms and concepts that are frequently looked up by readers are collected in an alphabetic index at the end of the book. The interested reader can scan the index relatively quickly and flip to the appropriate page(s), rather than having to read the entire book to find the material of interest. Just as it is the task of the author to anticipate the items that the readers are most likely to look up, it is the task of the database programmer to foresee which indexes would be of advantage.

The following command would be used to create the index on the `id` column, as discussed:

```
CREATE INDEX test1_id_index ON test1 (id);
```

The name `test1_id_index` can be chosen freely, but you should pick something that enables you to remember later what the index was for.

To remove an index, use the `DROP INDEX` command. Indexes can be added to and removed from tables at any time.

Once an index is created, no further intervention is required: the system will update the index when the table is modified, and it will use the index in queries when it thinks this would be more efficient than a sequential table scan. But you may have to run the `ANALYZE` command regularly to update statistics to allow the query planner to make educated decisions. See Chapter 13 for information about how to find out whether an index is used and when and why the planner may choose *not* to use an index.

Indexes can also benefit `UPDATE` and `DELETE` commands with search conditions. Indexes can moreover be used in join queries. Thus, an index defined on a column that is part of a join condition can significantly speed up queries with joins.

When an index is created, the system has to keep it synchronized with the table. This adds overhead to data manipulation operations. Therefore indexes that are non-essential or do not get used at all should be removed. Note that a query or data manipulation command can use at most one index per table.

11.2. Index Types

PostgreSQL provides several index types: B-tree, R-tree, Hash, and GiST. Each index type uses a different algorithm that is best suited to different types of queries. By default, the `CREATE INDEX` command will create a B-tree index, which fits the most common situations.

B-trees can handle equality and range queries on data that can be sorted into some ordering. In particular, the PostgreSQL query planner will consider using a B-tree index whenever an indexed column is involved in a comparison using one of these operators:

```
<
<=
=
>=
>
```

Constructs equivalent to combinations of these operators, such as `BETWEEN` and `IN`, can also be implemented with a B-tree index search. (But note that `IS NULL` is not equivalent to `=` and is not indexable.)

The optimizer can also use a B-tree index for queries involving the pattern matching operators `LIKE`, `ILIKE`, `~`, and `~*`, if the pattern is anchored to the beginning of the string, e.g., `col LIKE 'foo%'` or `col ~ '^foo'`, but not `col LIKE '%bar'`. However, if your server does not use the C locale you will need to create the index with a special operator class to support indexing of pattern-matching queries. See Section 11.6 below.

R-tree indexes are suited for queries on spatial data. To create an R-tree index, use a command of the form

```
CREATE INDEX name ON table USING RTREE (column);
```

The PostgreSQL query planner will consider using an R-tree index whenever an indexed column is involved in a comparison using one of these operators:

```
<<
&<
&>
>>
@
~=
&&
```

(See Section 9.10 for the meaning of these operators.)

Hash indexes can only handle simple equality comparisons. The query planner will consider using a hash index whenever an indexed column is involved in a comparison using the `=` operator. The following command is used to create a hash index:

```
CREATE INDEX name ON table USING HASH (column);
```

Note: Testing has shown PostgreSQL's hash indexes to perform no better than B-tree indexes, and the index size and build time for hash indexes is much worse. For these reasons, hash index use is presently discouraged.

GiST indexes are not a single kind of index, but rather an infrastructure within which many different indexing strategies can be implemented. Accordingly, the particular operators with which a GiST index can be used vary depending on the indexing strategy (the *operator class*). For more information see Chapter 48.

The B-tree index method is an implementation of Lehman-Yao high-concurrency B-trees. The R-tree index method implements standard R-trees using Guttman's quadratic split algorithm. The hash index method is an implementation of Litwin's linear hashing. We mention the algorithms used solely to indicate that all of these index methods are fully dynamic and do not have to be optimized periodically (as is the case with, for example, static hash methods).

11.3. Multicolumn Indexes

An index can be defined on more than one column. For example, if you have a table of this form:

```
CREATE TABLE test2 (
    major int,
    minor int,
    name varchar
);
```

(say, you keep your `/dev` directory in a database...) and you frequently make queries like

```
SELECT name FROM test2 WHERE major = constant AND minor = constant;
```

then it may be appropriate to define an index on the columns `major` and `minor` together, e.g.,

```
CREATE INDEX test2_mm_idx ON test2 (major, minor);
```

Currently, only the B-tree and GiST implementations support multicolumn indexes. Up to 32 columns may be specified. (This limit can be altered when building PostgreSQL; see the file `pg_config_manual.h`.)

The query planner can use a multicolumn index for queries that involve the leftmost column in the index definition plus any number of columns listed to the right of it, without a gap. For example, an index on `(a, b, c)` can be used in queries involving all of `a`, `b`, and `c`, or in queries involving both `a` and `b`, or in queries involving only `a`, but not in other combinations. (In a query involving `a` and `c` the planner could choose to use the index for `a`, while treating `c` like an ordinary unindexed column.) Of course, each column must be used with operators appropriate to the index type; clauses that involve other operators will not be considered.

Multicolumn indexes can only be used if the clauses involving the indexed columns are joined with `AND`. For instance,

```
SELECT name FROM test2 WHERE major = constant OR minor = constant;
```

cannot make use of the index `test2_mm_idx` defined above to look up both columns. (It can be used to look up only the `major` column, however.)

Multicolumn indexes should be used sparingly. Most of the time, an index on a single column is sufficient and saves space and time. Indexes with more than three columns are unlikely to be helpful unless the usage of the table is extremely stylized.

11.4. Unique Indexes

Indexes may also be used to enforce uniqueness of a column's value, or the uniqueness of the combined values of more than one column.

```
CREATE UNIQUE INDEX name ON table (column [, ...]);
```

Currently, only B-tree indexes can be declared unique.

When an index is declared unique, multiple table rows with equal indexed values will not be allowed. Null values are not considered equal. A multicolumn unique index will only reject cases where all of the indexed columns are equal in two rows.

PostgreSQL automatically creates a unique index when a unique constraint or a primary key is defined for a table. The index covers the columns that make up the primary key or unique columns (a multicolumn index, if appropriate), and is the mechanism that enforces the constraint.

Note: The preferred way to add a unique constraint to a table is `ALTER TABLE ... ADD CONSTRAINT`. The use of indexes to enforce unique constraints could be considered an implementation detail that should not be accessed directly. One should, however, be aware that there's no need to manually create indexes on unique columns; doing so would just duplicate the automatically-created index.

11.5. Indexes on Expressions

An index column need not be just a column of the underlying table, but can be a function or scalar expression computed from one or more columns of the table. This feature is useful to obtain fast access to tables based on the results of computations.

For example, a common way to do case-insensitive comparisons is to use the `lower` function:

```
SELECT * FROM test1 WHERE lower(coll) = 'value';
```

This query can use an index, if one has been defined on the result of the `lower(coll)` operation:

```
CREATE INDEX test1_lower_coll_idx ON test1 (lower(coll));
```

If we were to declare this index `UNIQUE`, it would prevent creation of rows whose `coll` values differ only in case, as well as rows whose `coll` values are actually identical. Thus, indexes on expressions can be used to enforce constraints that are not definable as simple unique constraints.

As another example, if one often does queries like this:

```
SELECT * FROM people WHERE (first_name || ' ' || last_name) = 'John Smith';
```

then it might be worth creating an index like this:

```
CREATE INDEX people_names ON people ((first_name || ' ' || last_name));
```

The syntax of the `CREATE INDEX` command normally requires writing parentheses around index expressions, as shown in the second example. The parentheses may be omitted when the expression is just a function call, as in the first example.

Index expressions are relatively expensive to maintain, since the derived expression(s) must be computed for each row upon insertion or whenever it is updated. Therefore they should be used only when queries that can use the index are very frequent.

11.6. Operator Classes

An index definition may specify an *operator class* for each column of an index.

```
CREATE INDEX name ON table (column opclass [, ...]);
```

The operator class identifies the operators to be used by the index for that column. For example, a B-tree index on the type `int4` would use the `int4_ops` class; this operator class includes comparison functions for values of type `int4`. In practice the default operator class for the column's data type is usually sufficient. The main point of having operator classes is that for some data types, there could be more than one meaningful index behavior. For example, we might want to sort a complex-number data type either by absolute value or by real part. We could do this by defining two operator classes for the data type and then selecting the proper class when making an index.

There are also some built-in operator classes besides the default ones:

- The operator classes `text_pattern_ops`, `varchar_pattern_ops`, `bpchar_pattern_ops`, and `name_pattern_ops` support B-tree indexes on the types `text`, `varchar`, `char`, and `name`, respectively. The difference from the ordinary operator classes is that the values are compared strictly character by character rather than according to the locale-specific collation rules. This makes these operator classes suitable for use by queries involving pattern matching expressions (`LIKE` or POSIX regular expressions) if the server does not use the standard “C” locale. As an example, you might index a `varchar` column like this:

```
CREATE INDEX test_index ON test_table (col varchar_pattern_ops);
```

If you do use the C locale, you may instead create an index with the default operator class, and it will still be useful for pattern-matching queries. Also note that you should create an index with the default operator class if you want queries involving ordinary comparisons to use an index. Such queries

cannot use the `xxx_pattern_ops` operator classes. It is allowed to create multiple indexes on the same column with different operator classes.

The following query shows all defined operator classes:

```
SELECT am.amname AS index_method,
       opc.opcname AS opclass_name
FROM pg_am am, pg_opclass opc
WHERE opc.opcamid = am.oid
ORDER BY index_method, opclass_name;
```

It can be extended to show all the operators included in each class:

```
SELECT am.amname AS index_method,
       opc.opcname AS opclass_name,
       opr.oprname AS opclass_operator
FROM pg_am am, pg_opclass opc, pg_amop amop, pg_operator opr
WHERE opc.opcamid = am.oid AND
       amop.amopclaid = opc.oid AND
       amop.amopopr = opr.oid
ORDER BY index_method, opclass_name, opclass_operator;
```

11.7. Partial Indexes

A *partial index* is an index built over a subset of a table; the subset is defined by a conditional expression (called the *predicate* of the partial index). The index contains entries for only those table rows that satisfy the predicate.

A major motivation for partial indexes is to avoid indexing common values. Since a query searching for a common value (one that accounts for more than a few percent of all the table rows) will not use the index anyway, there is no point in keeping those rows in the index at all. This reduces the size of the index, which will speed up queries that do use the index. It will also speed up many table update operations because the index does not need to be updated in all cases. Example 11-1 shows a possible application of this idea.

Example 11-1. Setting up a Partial Index to Exclude Common Values

Suppose you are storing web server access logs in a database. Most accesses originate from the IP address range of your organization but some are from elsewhere (say, employees on dial-up connections). If your searches by IP are primarily for outside accesses, you probably do not need to index the IP range that corresponds to your organization's subnet.

Assume a table like this:

```
CREATE TABLE access_log (
    url varchar,
    client_ip inet,
    ...
);
```

To create a partial index that suits our example, use a command such as this:

```
CREATE INDEX access_log_client_ip_ix ON access_log (client_ip)
WHERE NOT (client_ip > inet '192.168.100.0' AND client_ip < inet '192.168.100.255')
```

A typical query that can use this index would be:

```
SELECT * FROM access_log WHERE url = '/index.html' AND client_ip = inet '212.78.10.32';
```

A query that cannot use this index is:

```
SELECT * FROM access_log WHERE client_ip = inet '192.168.100.23';
```

Observe that this kind of partial index requires that the common values be predetermined. If the distribution of values is inherent (due to the nature of the application) and static (not changing over time), this is not difficult, but if the common values are merely due to the coincidental data load this can require a lot of maintenance work.

Another possibility is to exclude values from the index that the typical query workload is not interested in; this is shown in Example 11-2. This results in the same advantages as listed above, but it prevents the “uninteresting” values from being accessed via that index at all, even if an index scan might be profitable in that case. Obviously, setting up partial indexes for this kind of scenario will require a lot of care and experimentation.

Example 11-2. Setting up a Partial Index to Exclude Uninteresting Values

If you have a table that contains both billed and unbilled orders, where the unbilled orders take up a small fraction of the total table and yet those are the most-accessed rows, you can improve performance by creating an index on just the unbilled rows. The command to create the index would look like this:

```
CREATE INDEX orders_unbilled_index ON orders (order_nr)
WHERE billed is not true;
```

A possible query to use this index would be

```
SELECT * FROM orders WHERE billed is not true AND order_nr < 10000;
```

However, the index can also be used in queries that do not involve `order_nr` at all, e.g.,

```
SELECT * FROM orders WHERE billed is not true AND amount > 5000.00;
```

This is not as efficient as a partial index on the `amount` column would be, since the system has to scan the entire index. Yet, if there are relatively few unbilled orders, using this partial index just to find the unbilled orders could be a win.

Note that this query cannot use this index:

```
SELECT * FROM orders WHERE order_nr = 3501;
```

The order 3501 may be among the billed or among the unbilled orders.

Example 11-2 also illustrates that the indexed column and the column used in the predicate do not need to match. PostgreSQL supports partial indexes with arbitrary predicates, so long as only columns of the table being indexed are involved. However, keep in mind that the predicate must match the conditions used in the queries that are supposed to benefit from the index. To be precise, a partial index can be used in a query only if the system can recognize that the `WHERE` condition of the query mathematically implies the predicate of the index. PostgreSQL does not have a sophisticated theorem prover that can recognize mathematically equivalent expressions that are written in different forms. (Not only is such a general

theorem prover extremely difficult to create, it would probably be too slow to be of any real use.) The system can recognize simple inequality implications, for example “ $x < 1$ ” implies “ $x < 2$ ”; otherwise the predicate condition must exactly match part of the query’s `WHERE` condition or the index will not be recognized to be usable.

A third possible use for partial indexes does not require the index to be used in queries at all. The idea here is to create a unique index over a subset of a table, as in Example 11-3. This enforces uniqueness among the rows that satisfy the index predicate, without constraining those that do not.

Example 11-3. Setting up a Partial Unique Index

Suppose that we have a table describing test outcomes. We wish to ensure that there is only one “successful” entry for a given subject and target combination, but there might be any number of “unsuccessful” entries. Here is one way to do it:

```
CREATE TABLE tests (
    subject text,
    target text,
    success boolean,
    ...
);

CREATE UNIQUE INDEX tests_success_constraint ON tests (subject, target)
WHERE success;
```

This is a particularly efficient way of doing it when there are few successful tests and many unsuccessful ones.

Finally, a partial index can also be used to override the system’s query plan choices. It may occur that data sets with peculiar distributions will cause the system to use an index when it really should not. In that case the index can be set up so that it is not available for the offending query. Normally, PostgreSQL makes reasonable choices about index usage (e.g., it avoids them when retrieving common values, so the earlier example really only saves index size, it is not required to avoid index usage), and grossly incorrect plan choices are cause for a bug report.

Keep in mind that setting up a partial index indicates that you know at least as much as the query planner knows, in particular you know when an index might be profitable. Forming this knowledge requires experience and understanding of how indexes in PostgreSQL work. In most cases, the advantage of a partial index over a regular index will not be much.

More information about partial indexes can be found in *The case for partial indexes*, *Partial indexing in POSTGRES: research project*, and *Generalized Partial Indexes*.

11.8. Examining Index Usage

Although indexes in PostgreSQL do not need maintenance and tuning, it is still important to check which indexes are actually used by the real-life query workload. Examining index usage for an individual query is done with the `EXPLAIN` command; its application for this purpose is illustrated in Section 13.1. It is also possible to gather overall statistics about index usage in a running server, as described in Section 23.2.

It is difficult to formulate a general procedure for determining which indexes to set up. There are a number of typical cases that have been shown in the examples throughout the previous sections. A good deal of experimentation will be necessary in most cases. The rest of this section gives some tips for that.

- Always run *ANALYZE* first. This command collects statistics about the distribution of the values in the table. This information is required to guess the number of rows returned by a query, which is needed by the planner to assign realistic costs to each possible query plan. In absence of any real statistics, some default values are assumed, which are almost certain to be inaccurate. Examining an application's index usage without having run *ANALYZE* is therefore a lost cause.
- Use real data for experimentation. Using test data for setting up indexes will tell you what indexes you need for the test data, but that is all.

It is especially fatal to use very small test data sets. While selecting 1000 out of 100000 rows could be a candidate for an index, selecting 1 out of 100 rows will hardly be, because the 100 rows will probably fit within a single disk page, and there is no plan that can beat sequentially fetching 1 disk page.

Also be careful when making up test data, which is often unavoidable when the application is not in production use yet. Values that are very similar, completely random, or inserted in sorted order will skew the statistics away from the distribution that real data would have.

- When indexes are not used, it can be useful for testing to force their use. There are run-time parameters that can turn off various plan types (described in Section 16.4). For instance, turning off sequential scans (*enable_seqscan*) and nested-loop joins (*enable_nestloop*), which are the most basic plans, will force the system to use a different plan. If the system still chooses a sequential scan or nested-loop join then there is probably a more fundamental problem for why the index is not used, for example, the query condition does not match the index. (What kind of query can use what kind of index is explained in the previous sections.)
- If forcing index usage does use the index, then there are two possibilities: Either the system is right and using the index is indeed not appropriate, or the cost estimates of the query plans are not reflecting reality. So you should time your query with and without indexes. The *EXPLAIN ANALYZE* command can be useful here.
- If it turns out that the cost estimates are wrong, there are, again, two possibilities. The total cost is computed from the per-row costs of each plan node times the selectivity estimate of the plan node. The costs of the plan nodes can be tuned with run-time parameters (described in Section 16.4). An inaccurate selectivity estimate is due to insufficient statistics. It may be possible to help this by tuning the statistics-gathering parameters (see *ALTER TABLE*).

If you do not succeed in adjusting the costs to be more appropriate, then you may have to resort to forcing index usage explicitly. You may also want to contact the PostgreSQL developers to examine the issue.

Chapter 12. Concurrency Control

This chapter describes the behavior of the PostgreSQL database system when two or more sessions try to access the same data at the same time. The goals in that situation are to allow efficient access for all sessions while maintaining strict data integrity. Every developer of database applications should be familiar with the topics covered in this chapter.

12.1. Introduction

Unlike traditional database systems which use locks for concurrency control, PostgreSQL maintains data consistency by using a multiversion model (Multiversion Concurrency Control, MVCC). This means that while querying a database each transaction sees a snapshot of data (a *database version*) as it was some time ago, regardless of the current state of the underlying data. This protects the transaction from viewing inconsistent data that could be caused by (other) concurrent transaction updates on the same data rows, providing *transaction isolation* for each database session.

The main advantage to using the MVCC model of concurrency control rather than locking is that in MVCC locks acquired for querying (reading) data do not conflict with locks acquired for writing data, and so reading never blocks writing and writing never blocks reading.

Table- and row-level locking facilities are also available in PostgreSQL for applications that cannot adapt easily to MVCC behavior. However, proper use of MVCC will generally provide better performance than locks.

12.2. Transaction Isolation

The SQL standard defines four levels of transaction isolation in terms of three phenomena that must be prevented between concurrent transactions. These undesirable phenomena are:

dirty read

A transaction reads data written by a concurrent uncommitted transaction.

nonrepeatable read

A transaction re-reads data it has previously read and finds that data has been modified by another transaction (that committed since the initial read).

phantom read

A transaction re-executes a query returning a set of rows that satisfy a search condition and finds that the set of rows satisfying the condition has changed due to another recently-committed transaction.

The four transaction isolation levels and the corresponding behaviors are described in Table 12-1.

Table 12-1. SQL Transaction Isolation Levels

Isolation Level	Dirty Read	Nonrepeatable Read	Phantom Read
Read uncommitted	Possible	Possible	Possible
Read committed	Not possible	Possible	Possible
Repeatable read	Not possible	Not possible	Possible
Serializable	Not possible	Not possible	Not possible

In PostgreSQL, you can request any of the four standard transaction isolation levels. But internally, there are only two distinct isolation levels, which correspond to the levels Read Committed and Serializable. When you select the level Read Uncommitted you really get Read Committed, and when you select Repeatable Read you really get Serializable, so the actual isolation level may be stricter than what you select. This is permitted by the SQL standard: the four isolation levels only define which phenomena must not happen, they do not define which phenomena must happen. The reason that PostgreSQL only provides two isolation levels is that this is the only sensible way to map the standard isolation levels to the multiversion concurrency control architecture. The behavior of the available isolation levels is detailed in the following subsections.

To set the transaction isolation level of a transaction, use the command `SET TRANSACTION`.

12.2.1. Read Committed Isolation Level

Read Committed is the default isolation level in PostgreSQL. When a transaction runs on this isolation level, a `SELECT` query sees only data committed before the query began; it never sees either uncommitted data or changes committed during query execution by concurrent transactions. (However, the `SELECT` does see the effects of previous updates executed within its own transaction, even though they are not yet committed.) In effect, a `SELECT` query sees a snapshot of the database as of the instant that that query begins to run. Notice that two successive `SELECT` commands can see different data, even though they are within a single transaction, if other transactions commit changes during execution of the first `SELECT`.

`UPDATE`, `DELETE`, and `SELECT FOR UPDATE` commands behave the same as `SELECT` in terms of searching for target rows: they will only find target rows that were committed as of the command start time. However, such a target row may have already been updated (or deleted or marked for update) by another concurrent transaction by the time it is found. In this case, the would-be updater will wait for the first updating transaction to commit or roll back (if it is still in progress). If the first updater rolls back, then its effects are negated and the second updater can proceed with updating the originally found row. If the first updater commits, the second updater will ignore the row if the first updater deleted it, otherwise it will attempt to apply its operation to the updated version of the row. The search condition of the command (the `WHERE` clause) is re-evaluated to see if the updated version of the row still matches the search condition. If so, the second updater proceeds with its operation, starting from the updated version of the row.

Because of the above rule, it is possible for an updating command to see an inconsistent snapshot: it can see the effects of concurrent updating commands that affected the same rows it is trying to update, but it does not see effects of those commands on other rows in the database. This behavior makes Read Committed mode unsuitable for commands that involve complex search conditions. However, it is just right for simpler cases. For example, consider updating bank balances with transactions like

```
BEGIN;
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100.00 WHERE acctnum = 12345;
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance - 100.00 WHERE acctnum = 7534;
COMMIT;
```

If two such transactions concurrently try to change the balance of account 12345, we clearly want the second transaction to start from the updated version of the account's row. Because each command is affecting only a predetermined row, letting it see the updated version of the row does not create any troublesome inconsistency.

Since in Read Committed mode each new command starts with a new snapshot that includes all transactions committed up to that instant, subsequent commands in the same transaction will see the effects of the committed concurrent transaction in any case. The point at issue here is whether or not within a *single* command we see an absolutely consistent view of the database.

The partial transaction isolation provided by Read Committed mode is adequate for many applications, and this mode is fast and simple to use. However, for applications that do complex queries and updates, it may be necessary to guarantee a more rigorously consistent view of the database than the Read Committed mode provides.

12.2.2. Serializable Isolation Level

The level *Serializable* provides the strictest transaction isolation. This level emulates serial transaction execution, as if transactions had been executed one after another, serially, rather than concurrently. However, applications using this level must be prepared to retry transactions due to serialization failures.

When a transaction is on the serializable level, a `SELECT` query sees only data committed before the transaction began; it never sees either uncommitted data or changes committed during transaction execution by concurrent transactions. (However, the `SELECT` does see the effects of previous updates executed within its own transaction, even though they are not yet committed.) This is different from Read Committed in that the `SELECT` sees a snapshot as of the start of the transaction, not as of the start of the current query within the transaction. Thus, successive `SELECT` commands within a single transaction always see the same data.

`UPDATE`, `DELETE`, and `SELECT FOR UPDATE` commands behave the same as `SELECT` in terms of searching for target rows: they will only find target rows that were committed as of the transaction start time. However, such a target row may have already been updated (or deleted or marked for update) by another concurrent transaction by the time it is found. In this case, the serializable transaction will wait for the first updating transaction to commit or roll back (if it is still in progress). If the first updater rolls back, then its effects are negated and the serializable transaction can proceed with updating the originally found row. But if the first updater commits (and actually updated or deleted the row, not just selected it for update) then the serializable transaction will be rolled back with the message

```
ERROR: could not serialize access due to concurrent update
```

because a serializable transaction cannot modify rows changed by other transactions after the serializable transaction began.

When the application receives this error message, it should abort the current transaction and then retry the whole transaction from the beginning. The second time through, the transaction sees the previously-committed change as part of its initial view of the database, so there is no logical conflict in using the new version of the row as the starting point for the new transaction's update.

Note that only updating transactions may need to be retried; read-only transactions will never have serialization conflicts.

The Serializable mode provides a rigorous guarantee that each transaction sees a wholly consistent view of the database. However, the application has to be prepared to retry transactions when concurrent updates make it impossible to sustain the illusion of serial execution. Since the cost of redoing complex transactions may be significant, this mode is recommended only when updating transactions contain logic sufficiently complex that they may give wrong answers in Read Committed mode. Most commonly, Serializable mode is necessary when a transaction executes several successive commands that must see identical views of the database.

12.2.2.1. Serializable Isolation versus True Serializability

The intuitive meaning (and mathematical definition) of “serializable” execution is that any two successfully committed concurrent transactions will appear to have executed strictly serially, one after the other — although which one appeared to occur first may not be predictable in advance. It is important to realize that forbidding the undesirable behaviors listed in Table 12-1 is not sufficient to guarantee true serializability, and in fact PostgreSQL’s Serializable mode *does not guarantee serializable execution in this sense*. As an example, consider a table `mytab`, initially containing

class	value
1	10
1	20
2	100
2	200

Suppose that serializable transaction A computes

```
SELECT SUM(value) FROM mytab WHERE class = 1;
```

and then inserts the result (30) as the `value` in a new row with `class = 2`. Concurrently, serializable transaction B computes

```
SELECT SUM(value) FROM mytab WHERE class = 2;
```

and obtains the result 300, which it inserts in a new row with `class = 1`. Then both transactions commit. None of the listed undesirable behaviors have occurred, yet we have a result that could not have occurred in either order serially. If A had executed before B, B would have computed the sum 330, not 300, and similarly the other order would have resulted in a different sum computed by A.

To guarantee true mathematical serializability, it is necessary for a database system to enforce *predicate locking*, which means that a transaction cannot insert or modify a row that would have matched the `WHERE` condition of a query in another concurrent transaction. For example, once transaction A has executed the query `SELECT ... WHERE class = 1`, a predicate-locking system would forbid transaction B from inserting any new row with `class 1` until A has committed.¹ Such a locking system is complex to implement and extremely expensive in execution, since every session must be aware of the details of every query executed by every concurrent transaction. And this large expense is mostly wasted, since in practice most applications do not do the sorts of things that could result in problems. (Certainly the example above is rather contrived and unlikely to represent real software.) Accordingly, PostgreSQL does not implement predicate locking, and so far as we are aware no other production DBMS does either.

1. Essentially, a predicate-locking system prevents phantom reads by restricting what is written, whereas MVCC prevents them by restricting what is read.

In those cases where the possibility of nonserializable execution is a real hazard, problems can be prevented by appropriate use of explicit locking. Further discussion appears in the following sections.

12.3. Explicit Locking

PostgreSQL provides various lock modes to control concurrent access to data in tables. These modes can be used for application-controlled locking in situations where MVCC does not give the desired behavior. Also, most PostgreSQL commands automatically acquire locks of appropriate modes to ensure that referenced tables are not dropped or modified in incompatible ways while the command executes. (For example, `ALTER TABLE` cannot be executed concurrently with other operations on the same table.)

To examine a list of the currently outstanding locks in a database server, use the `pg_locks` system view (Section 41.33). For more information on monitoring the status of the lock manager subsystem, refer to Chapter 23.

12.3.1. Table-Level Locks

The list below shows the available lock modes and the contexts in which they are used automatically by PostgreSQL. You can also acquire any of these locks explicitly with the command `LOCK`. Remember that all of these lock modes are table-level locks, even if the name contains the word “row”; the names of the lock modes are historical. To some extent the names reflect the typical usage of each lock mode — but the semantics are all the same. The only real difference between one lock mode and another is the set of lock modes with which each conflicts. Two transactions cannot hold locks of conflicting modes on the same table at the same time. (However, a transaction never conflicts with itself. For example, it may acquire `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock and later acquire `ACCESS SHARE` lock on the same table.) Non-conflicting lock modes may be held concurrently by many transactions. Notice in particular that some lock modes are self-conflicting (for example, an `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock cannot be held by more than one transaction at a time) while others are not self-conflicting (for example, an `ACCESS SHARE` lock can be held by multiple transactions). Once acquired, a lock is held till end of transaction.

Table-level lock modes

`ACCESS SHARE`

Conflicts with the `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock mode only.

The commands `SELECT` and `ANALYZE` acquire a lock of this mode on referenced tables. In general, any query that only reads a table and does not modify it will acquire this lock mode.

`ROW SHARE`

Conflicts with the `EXCLUSIVE` and `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock modes.

The `SELECT FOR UPDATE` command acquires a lock of this mode on the target table(s) (in addition to `ACCESS SHARE` locks on any other tables that are referenced but not selected `FOR UPDATE`).

`ROW EXCLUSIVE`

Conflicts with the `SHARE`, `SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE`, `EXCLUSIVE`, and `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock modes.

The commands `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, and `INSERT` acquire this lock mode on the target table (in addition to `ACCESS SHARE` locks on any other referenced tables). In general, this lock mode will be acquired by any command that modifies the data in a table.

`SHARE UPDATE EXCLUSIVE`

Conflicts with the `SHARE UPDATE EXCLUSIVE`, `SHARE`, `SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE`, `EXCLUSIVE`, and `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock modes. This mode protects a table against concurrent schema changes and `VACUUM` runs.

Acquired by `VACUUM` (without `FULL`).

`SHARE`

Conflicts with the `ROW EXCLUSIVE`, `SHARE UPDATE EXCLUSIVE`, `SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE`, `EXCLUSIVE`, and `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock modes. This mode protects a table against concurrent data changes.

Acquired by `CREATE INDEX`.

`SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE`

Conflicts with the `ROW EXCLUSIVE`, `SHARE UPDATE EXCLUSIVE`, `SHARE`, `SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE`, `EXCLUSIVE`, and `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock modes.

This lock mode is not automatically acquired by any PostgreSQL command.

`EXCLUSIVE`

Conflicts with the `ROW SHARE`, `ROW EXCLUSIVE`, `SHARE UPDATE EXCLUSIVE`, `SHARE`, `SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE`, `EXCLUSIVE`, and `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock modes. This mode allows only concurrent `ACCESS SHARE` locks, i.e., only reads from the table can proceed in parallel with a transaction holding this lock mode.

This lock mode is not automatically acquired by any PostgreSQL command.

`ACCESS EXCLUSIVE`

Conflicts with locks of all modes (`ACCESS SHARE`, `ROW SHARE`, `ROW EXCLUSIVE`, `SHARE UPDATE EXCLUSIVE`, `SHARE`, `SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE`, `EXCLUSIVE`, and `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE`). This mode guarantees that the holder is the only transaction accessing the table in any way.

Acquired by the `ALTER TABLE`, `DROP TABLE`, `REINDEX`, `CLUSTER`, and `VACUUM FULL` commands. This is also the default lock mode for `LOCK TABLE` statements that do not specify a mode explicitly.

Tip: Only an `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock blocks a `SELECT` (without `FOR UPDATE`) statement.

12.3.2. Row-Level Locks

In addition to table-level locks, there are row-level locks. A row-level lock on a specific row is automatically acquired when the row is updated (or deleted or marked for update). The lock is held until the transaction commits or rolls back. Row-level locks do not affect data querying; they block *writers to the same row* only. To acquire a row-level lock on a row without actually modifying the row, select the row

with `SELECT FOR UPDATE`. Note that once a particular row-level lock is acquired, the transaction may update the row multiple times without fear of conflicts.

PostgreSQL doesn't remember any information about modified rows in memory, so it has no limit to the number of rows locked at one time. However, locking a row may cause a disk write; thus, for example, `SELECT FOR UPDATE` will modify selected rows to mark them and so will result in disk writes.

In addition to table and row locks, page-level share/exclusive locks are used to control read/write access to table pages in the shared buffer pool. These locks are released immediately after a row is fetched or updated. Application developers normally need not be concerned with page-level locks, but we mention them for completeness.

12.3.3. Deadlocks

The use of explicit locking can increase the likelihood of *deadlocks*, wherein two (or more) transactions each hold locks that the other wants. For example, if transaction 1 acquires an exclusive lock on table A and then tries to acquire an exclusive lock on table B, while transaction 2 has already exclusive-locked table B and now wants an exclusive lock on table A, then neither one can proceed. PostgreSQL automatically detects deadlock situations and resolves them by aborting one of the transactions involved, allowing the other(s) to complete. (Exactly which transaction will be aborted is difficult to predict and should not be relied on.)

Note that deadlocks can also occur as the result of row-level locks (and thus, they can occur even if explicit locking is not used). Consider the case in which there are two concurrent transactions modifying a table. The first transaction executes:

```
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100.00 WHERE acctnum = 11111;
```

This acquires a row-level lock on the row with the specified account number. Then, the second transaction executes:

```
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100.00 WHERE acctnum = 22222;
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance - 100.00 WHERE acctnum = 11111;
```

The first `UPDATE` statement successfully acquires a row-level lock on the specified row, so it succeeds in updating that row. However, the second `UPDATE` statement finds that the row it is attempting to update has already been locked, so it waits for the transaction that acquired the lock to complete. Transaction two is now waiting on transaction one to complete before it continues execution. Now, transaction one executes:

```
UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance - 100.00 WHERE acctnum = 22222;
```

Transaction one attempts to acquire a row-level lock on the specified row, but it cannot: transaction two already holds such a lock. So it waits for transaction two to complete. Thus, transaction one is blocked on transaction two, and transaction two is blocked on transaction one: a deadlock condition. PostgreSQL will detect this situation and abort one of the transactions.

The best defense against deadlocks is generally to avoid them by being certain that all applications using a database acquire locks on multiple objects in a consistent order. In the example above, if both transactions had updated the rows in the same order, no deadlock would have occurred. One should also ensure that the first lock acquired on an object in a transaction is the highest mode that will be needed for that object. If it

is not feasible to verify this in advance, then deadlocks may be handled on-the-fly by retrying transactions that are aborted due to deadlock.

So long as no deadlock situation is detected, a transaction seeking either a table-level or row-level lock will wait indefinitely for conflicting locks to be released. This means it is a bad idea for applications to hold transactions open for long periods of time (e.g., while waiting for user input).

12.4. Data Consistency Checks at the Application Level

Because readers in PostgreSQL do not lock data, regardless of transaction isolation level, data read by one transaction can be overwritten by another concurrent transaction. In other words, if a row is returned by `SELECT` it doesn't mean that the row is still current at the instant it is returned (i.e., sometime after the current query began). The row might have been modified or deleted by an already-committed transaction that committed after this one started. Even if the row is still valid "now", it could be changed or deleted before the current transaction does a commit or rollback.

Another way to think about it is that each transaction sees a snapshot of the database contents, and concurrently executing transactions may very well see different snapshots. So the whole concept of "now" is somewhat ill-defined anyway. This is not normally a big problem if the client applications are isolated from each other, but if the clients can communicate via channels outside the database then serious confusion may ensue.

To ensure the current validity of a row and protect it against concurrent updates one must use `SELECT FOR UPDATE` or an appropriate `LOCK TABLE` statement. (`SELECT FOR UPDATE` locks just the returned rows against concurrent updates, while `LOCK TABLE` locks the whole table.) This should be taken into account when porting applications to PostgreSQL from other environments. (Before version 6.5 PostgreSQL used read locks, and so this above consideration is also relevant when upgrading from PostgreSQL versions prior to 6.5.)

Global validity checks require extra thought under MVCC. For example, a banking application might wish to check that the sum of all credits in one table equals the sum of debits in another table, when both tables are being actively updated. Comparing the results of two successive `SELECT sum(. . .)` commands will not work reliably under Read Committed mode, since the second query will likely include the results of transactions not counted by the first. Doing the two sums in a single serializable transaction will give an accurate picture of the effects of transactions that committed before the serializable transaction started — but one might legitimately wonder whether the answer is still relevant by the time it is delivered. If the serializable transaction itself applied some changes before trying to make the consistency check, the usefulness of the check becomes even more debatable, since now it includes some but not all post-transaction-start changes. In such cases a careful person might wish to lock all tables needed for the check, in order to get an indisputable picture of current reality. A `SHARE` mode (or higher) lock guarantees that there are no uncommitted changes in the locked table, other than those of the current transaction.

Note also that if one is relying on explicit locking to prevent concurrent changes, one should use Read Committed mode, or in Serializable mode be careful to obtain the lock(s) before performing queries. A lock obtained by a serializable transaction guarantees that no other transactions modifying the table are still running, but if the snapshot seen by the transaction predates obtaining the lock, it may predate some now-committed changes in the table. A serializable transaction's snapshot is actually frozen at the start of its first query or data-modification command (`SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE`), so it's possible to obtain locks explicitly before the snapshot is frozen.

12.5. Locking and Indexes

Though PostgreSQL provides nonblocking read/write access to table data, nonblocking read/write access is not currently offered for every index access method implemented in PostgreSQL. The various index types are handled as follows:

B-tree indexes

Short-term share/exclusive page-level locks are used for read/write access. Locks are released immediately after each index row is fetched or inserted. B-tree indexes provide the highest concurrency without deadlock conditions.

GiST and R-tree indexes

Share/exclusive index-level locks are used for read/write access. Locks are released after the command is done.

Hash indexes

Share/exclusive hash-bucket-level locks are used for read/write access. Locks are released after the whole bucket is processed. Bucket-level locks provide better concurrency than index-level ones, but deadlock is possible since the locks are held longer than one index operation.

In short, B-tree indexes offer the best performance for concurrent applications; since they also have more features than hash indexes, they are the recommended index type for concurrent applications that need to index scalar data. When dealing with non-scalar data, B-trees obviously cannot be used; in that situation, application developers should be aware of the relatively poor concurrent performance of GiST and R-tree indexes.

Chapter 13. Performance Tips

Query performance can be affected by many things. Some of these can be manipulated by the user, while others are fundamental to the underlying design of the system. This chapter provides some hints about understanding and tuning PostgreSQL performance.

13.1. Using `EXPLAIN`

PostgreSQL devises a *query plan* for each query it is given. Choosing the right plan to match the query structure and the properties of the data is absolutely critical for good performance. You can use the `EXPLAIN` command to see what query plan the system creates for any query. Plan-reading is an art that deserves an extensive tutorial, which this is not; but here is some basic information.

The numbers that are currently quoted by `EXPLAIN` are:

- Estimated start-up cost (Time expended before output scan can start, e.g., time to do the sorting in a sort node.)
- Estimated total cost (If all rows were to be retrieved, which they may not be: a query with a `LIMIT` clause will stop short of paying the total cost, for example.)
- Estimated number of rows output by this plan node (Again, only if executed to completion)
- Estimated average width (in bytes) of rows output by this plan node

The costs are measured in units of disk page fetches. (CPU effort estimates are converted into disk-page units using some fairly arbitrary fudge factors. If you want to experiment with these factors, see the list of run-time configuration parameters in Section 16.4.5.2.)

It's important to note that the cost of an upper-level node includes the cost of all its child nodes. It's also important to realize that the cost only reflects things that the planner/optimizer cares about. In particular, the cost does not consider the time spent transmitting result rows to the frontend, which could be a pretty dominant factor in the true elapsed time; but the planner ignores it because it cannot change it by altering the plan. (Every correct plan will output the same row set, we trust.)

Rows output is a little tricky because it is *not* the number of rows processed/scanned by the query, it is usually less, reflecting the estimated selectivity of any `WHERE`-clause conditions that are being applied at this node. Ideally the top-level rows estimate will approximate the number of rows actually returned, updated, or deleted by the query.

Here are some examples (using the regression test database after a `VACUUM ANALYZE`, and 7.3 development sources):

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM tenk1;
```

```
QUERY PLAN
```

```
-----  
Seq Scan on tenk1 (cost=0.00..333.00 rows=10000 width=148)
```

This is about as straightforward as it gets. If you do

```
SELECT * FROM pg_class WHERE relname = 'tenk1';
```

you will find out that `tenk1` has 233 disk pages and 10000 rows. So the cost is estimated at 233 page reads, defined as costing 1.0 apiece, plus $10000 * \text{cpu_tuple_cost}$ which is currently 0.01 (try `SHOW cpu_tuple_cost`).

Now let's modify the query to add a `WHERE` condition:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM tenk1 WHERE unique1 < 1000;
```

QUERY PLAN

```
-----
Seq Scan on tenk1 (cost=0.00..358.00 rows=1033 width=148)
  Filter: (unique1 < 1000)
```

The estimate of output rows has gone down because of the `WHERE` clause. However, the scan will still have to visit all 10000 rows, so the cost hasn't decreased; in fact it has gone up a bit to reflect the extra CPU time spent checking the `WHERE` condition.

The actual number of rows this query would select is 1000, but the estimate is only approximate. If you try to duplicate this experiment, you will probably get a slightly different estimate; moreover, it will change after each `ANALYZE` command, because the statistics produced by `ANALYZE` are taken from a randomized sample of the table.

Modify the query to restrict the condition even more:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM tenk1 WHERE unique1 < 50;
```

QUERY PLAN

```
-----
Index Scan using tenk1_unique1 on tenk1 (cost=0.00..179.33 rows=49 width=148)
  Index Cond: (unique1 < 50)
```

and you will see that if we make the `WHERE` condition selective enough, the planner will eventually decide that an index scan is cheaper than a sequential scan. This plan will only have to visit 50 rows because of the index, so it wins despite the fact that each individual fetch is more expensive than reading a whole disk page sequentially.

Add another condition to the `WHERE` clause:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM tenk1 WHERE unique1 < 50 AND stringul = 'xxx';
```

QUERY PLAN

```
-----
Index Scan using tenk1_unique1 on tenk1 (cost=0.00..179.45 rows=1 width=148)
  Index Cond: (unique1 < 50)
  Filter: (stringul = 'xxx'::name)
```

The added condition `stringul = 'xxx'` reduces the output-rows estimate, but not the cost because we still have to visit the same set of rows. Notice that the `stringul` clause cannot be applied as an index condition (since this index is only on the `unique1` column). Instead it is applied as a filter on the rows retrieved by the index. Thus the cost has actually gone up a little bit to reflect this extra checking.

Let's try joining two tables, using the columns we have been discussing:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM tenk1 t1, tenk2 t2 WHERE t1.unique1 < 50 AND t1.unique2 = t2.unique2
```

```

                                QUERY PLAN
-----
Nested Loop  (cost=0.00..327.02 rows=49 width=296)
->  Index Scan using tenk1_unique1 on tenk1 t1
      (cost=0.00..179.33 rows=49 width=148)
    Index Cond: (unique1 < 50)
->  Index Scan using tenk2_unique2 on tenk2 t2
      (cost=0.00..3.01 rows=1 width=148)
    Index Cond: ("outer".unique2 = t2.unique2)

```

In this nested-loop join, the outer scan is the same index scan we had in the example before last, and so its cost and row count are the same because we are applying the `WHERE` clause `unique1 < 50` at that node. The `t1.unique2 = t2.unique2` clause is not relevant yet, so it doesn't affect row count of the outer scan. For the inner scan, the `unique2` value of the current outer-scan row is plugged into the inner index scan to produce an index condition like `t2.unique2 = constant`. So we get the same inner-scan plan and costs that we'd get from, say, `EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM tenk2 WHERE unique2 = 42`. The costs of the loop node are then set on the basis of the cost of the outer scan, plus one repetition of the inner scan for each outer row ($49 * 3.01$, here), plus a little CPU time for join processing.

In this example the join's output row count is the same as the product of the two scans' row counts, but that's not true in general, because in general you can have `WHERE` clauses that mention both tables and so can only be applied at the join point, not to either input scan. For example, if we added `WHERE ... AND t1.hundred < t2.hundred`, that would decrease the output row count of the join node, but not change either input scan.

One way to look at variant plans is to force the planner to disregard whatever strategy it thought was the winner, using the enable/disable flags for each plan type. (This is a crude tool, but useful. See also Section 13.3.)

```
SET enable_nestloop = off;
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM tenk1 t1, tenk2 t2 WHERE t1.unique1 < 50 AND t1.unique2 = t2.unique2
```

```

                                QUERY PLAN
-----
Hash Join  (cost=179.45..563.06 rows=49 width=296)
  Hash Cond: ("outer".unique2 = "inner".unique2)
->  Seq Scan on tenk2 t2  (cost=0.00..333.00 rows=10000 width=148)
->  Hash  (cost=179.33..179.33 rows=49 width=148)
      -> Index Scan using tenk1_unique1 on tenk1 t1
          (cost=0.00..179.33 rows=49 width=148)
      Index Cond: (unique1 < 50)

```

This plan proposes to extract the 50 interesting rows of `tenk1` using the same old index scan, stash them into an in-memory hash table, and then do a sequential scan of `tenk2`, probing into the hash table for possible matches of `t1.unique2 = t2.unique2` at each `tenk2` row. The cost to read `tenk1` and set up the hash table is entirely start-up cost for the hash join, since we won't get any rows out until we can start reading `tenk2`. The total time estimate for the join also includes a hefty charge for the CPU time to

probe the hash table 10000 times. Note, however, that we are *not* charging 10000 times 179.33; the hash table setup is only done once in this plan type.

It is possible to check on the accuracy of the planner's estimated costs by using `EXPLAIN ANALYZE`. This command actually executes the query, and then displays the true run time accumulated within each plan node along with the same estimated costs that a plain `EXPLAIN` shows. For example, we might get a result like this:

```
EXPLAIN ANALYZE SELECT * FROM tenk1 t1, tenk2 t2 WHERE t1.unique1 < 50 AND t1.unique2 =
-----
                        QUERY PLAN
-----
Nested Loop  (cost=0.00..327.02 rows=49 width=296)
              (actual time=1.181..29.822 rows=50 loops=1)
  ->  Index Scan using tenk1_unique1 on tenk1 t1
        (cost=0.00..179.33 rows=49 width=148)
        (actual time=0.630..8.917 rows=50 loops=1)
        Index Cond: (unique1 < 50)
  ->  Index Scan using tenk2_unique2 on tenk2 t2
        (cost=0.00..3.01 rows=1 width=148)
        (actual time=0.295..0.324 rows=1 loops=50)
        Index Cond: ("outer".unique2 = t2.unique2)
Total runtime: 31.604 ms
```

Note that the “actual time” values are in milliseconds of real time, whereas the “cost” estimates are expressed in arbitrary units of disk fetches; so they are unlikely to match up. The thing to pay attention to is the ratios.

In some query plans, it is possible for a subplan node to be executed more than once. For example, the inner index scan is executed once per outer row in the above nested-loop plan. In such cases, the “loops” value reports the total number of executions of the node, and the actual time and rows values shown are averages per-execution. This is done to make the numbers comparable with the way that the cost estimates are shown. Multiply by the “loops” value to get the total time actually spent in the node.

The `Total runtime` shown by `EXPLAIN ANALYZE` includes executor start-up and shut-down time, as well as time spent processing the result rows. It does not include parsing, rewriting, or planning time. For a `SELECT` query, the total run time will normally be just a little larger than the total time reported for the top-level plan node. For `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` commands, the total run time may be considerably larger, because it includes the time spent processing the result rows. In these commands, the time for the top plan node essentially is the time spent computing the new rows and/or locating the old ones, but it doesn't include the time spent making the changes.

It is worth noting that `EXPLAIN` results should not be extrapolated to situations other than the one you are actually testing; for example, results on a toy-sized table can't be assumed to apply to large tables. The planner's cost estimates are not linear and so it may well choose a different plan for a larger or smaller table. An extreme example is that on a table that only occupies one disk page, you'll nearly always get a sequential scan plan whether indexes are available or not. The planner realizes that it's going to take one disk page read to process the table in any case, so there's no value in expending additional page reads to look at an index.

13.2. Statistics Used by the Planner

As we saw in the previous section, the query planner needs to estimate the number of rows retrieved by a query in order to make good choices of query plans. This section provides a quick look at the statistics that the system uses for these estimates.

One component of the statistics is the total number of entries in each table and index, as well as the number of disk blocks occupied by each table and index. This information is kept in the table `pg_class` in the columns `reltuples` and `relpages`. We can look at it with queries similar to this one:

```
SELECT relname, relkind, reltuples, relpages FROM pg_class WHERE relname LIKE 'tenk1%';
```

relname	relkind	reltuples	relpages
tenk1	r	10000	233
tenk1_hundred	i	10000	30
tenk1_unique1	i	10000	30
tenk1_unique2	i	10000	30

(4 rows)

Here we can see that `tenk1` contains 10000 rows, as do its indexes, but the indexes are (unsurprisingly) much smaller than the table.

For efficiency reasons, `reltuples` and `relpages` are not updated on-the-fly, and so they usually contain somewhat out-of-date values. They are updated by `VACUUM`, `ANALYZE`, and a few DDL commands such as `CREATE INDEX`. A stand-alone `ANALYZE`, that is one not part of `VACUUM`, generates an approximate `reltuples` value since it does not read every row of the table. The planner will scale the values it finds in `pg_class` to match the current physical table size, thus obtaining a closer approximation.

Most queries retrieve only a fraction of the rows in a table, due to having `WHERE` clauses that restrict the rows to be examined. The planner thus needs to make an estimate of the *selectivity* of `WHERE` clauses, that is, the fraction of rows that match each condition in the `WHERE` clause. The information used for this task is stored in the `pg_statistic` system catalog. Entries in `pg_statistic` are updated by `ANALYZE` and `VACUUM ANALYZE` commands and are always approximate even when freshly updated.

Rather than look at `pg_statistic` directly, it's better to look at its view `pg_stats` when examining the statistics manually. `pg_stats` is designed to be more easily readable. Furthermore, `pg_stats` is readable by all, whereas `pg_statistic` is only readable by a superuser. (This prevents unprivileged users from learning something about the contents of other people's tables from the statistics. The `pg_stats` view is restricted to show only rows about tables that the current user can read.) For example, we might do:

```
SELECT attname, n_distinct, most_common_vals FROM pg_stats WHERE tablename = 'road';
```

attname	n_distinct	most_common_vals
name	-0.467008	{"I- 580 Ramp", "I- 880
thepath	20	{"[(-122.089, 37.71), (-122.0886, 37.711)]"}

(2 rows)

`pg_stats` is described in detail in Section 41.36.

The amount of information stored in `pg_statistic`, in particular the maximum number of entries in the `most_common_vals` and `histogram_bounds` arrays for each column, can be set on a column-by-column basis using the `ALTER TABLE SET STATISTICS` command, or globally by setting the `default_statistics_target` configuration variable. The default limit is presently 10 entries. Raising the limit may allow more accurate planner estimates to be made, particularly for columns with irregular data distributions, at the price of consuming more space in `pg_statistic` and slightly more time to compute the estimates. Conversely, a lower limit may be appropriate for columns with simple data distributions.

13.3. Controlling the Planner with Explicit JOIN Clauses

It is possible to control the query planner to some extent by using the explicit `JOIN` syntax. To see why this matters, we first need some background.

In a simple join query, such as

```
SELECT * FROM a, b, c WHERE a.id = b.id AND b.ref = c.id;
```

the planner is free to join the given tables in any order. For example, it could generate a query plan that joins A to B, using the `WHERE` condition `a.id = b.id`, and then joins C to this joined table, using the other `WHERE` condition. Or it could join B to C and then join A to that result. Or it could join A to C and then join them with B, but that would be inefficient, since the full Cartesian product of A and C would have to be formed, there being no applicable condition in the `WHERE` clause to allow optimization of the join. (All joins in the PostgreSQL executor happen between two input tables, so it's necessary to build up the result in one or another of these fashions.) The important point is that these different join possibilities give semantically equivalent results but may have hugely different execution costs. Therefore, the planner will explore all of them to try to find the most efficient query plan.

When a query only involves two or three tables, there aren't many join orders to worry about. But the number of possible join orders grows exponentially as the number of tables expands. Beyond ten or so input tables it's no longer practical to do an exhaustive search of all the possibilities, and even for six or seven tables planning may take an annoyingly long time. When there are too many input tables, the PostgreSQL planner will switch from exhaustive search to a *genetic* probabilistic search through a limited number of possibilities. (The switch-over threshold is set by the `geqo_threshold` run-time parameter.) The genetic search takes less time, but it won't necessarily find the best possible plan.

When the query involves outer joins, the planner has much less freedom than it does for plain (inner) joins. For example, consider

```
SELECT * FROM a LEFT JOIN (b JOIN c ON (b.ref = c.id)) ON (a.id = b.id);
```

Although this query's restrictions are superficially similar to the previous example, the semantics are different because a row must be emitted for each row of A that has no matching row in the join of B and C. Therefore the planner has no choice of join order here: it must join B to C and then join A to that result. Accordingly, this query takes less time to plan than the previous query.

Explicit inner join syntax (`INNER JOIN`, `CROSS JOIN`, or unadorned `JOIN`) is semantically the same as listing the input relations in `FROM`, so it does not need to constrain the join order. But it is possible to instruct the PostgreSQL query planner to treat explicit inner `JOINS` as constraining the join order anyway. For example, these three queries are logically equivalent:

```
SELECT * FROM a, b, c WHERE a.id = b.id AND b.ref = c.id;
```

```
SELECT * FROM a CROSS JOIN b CROSS JOIN c WHERE a.id = b.id AND b.ref = c.id;
SELECT * FROM a JOIN (b JOIN c ON (b.ref = c.id)) ON (a.id = b.id);
```

But if we tell the planner to honor the `JOIN` order, the second and third take less time to plan than the first. This effect is not worth worrying about for only three tables, but it can be a lifesaver with many tables.

To force the planner to follow the `JOIN` order for inner joins, set the `join_collapse_limit` run-time parameter to 1. (Other possible values are discussed below.)

You do not need to constrain the join order completely in order to cut search time, because it's OK to use `JOIN` operators within items of a plain `FROM` list. For example, consider

```
SELECT * FROM a CROSS JOIN b, c, d, e WHERE ...;
```

With `join_collapse_limit = 1`, this forces the planner to join A to B before joining them to other tables, but doesn't constrain its choices otherwise. In this example, the number of possible join orders is reduced by a factor of 5.

Constraining the planner's search in this way is a useful technique both for reducing planning time and for directing the planner to a good query plan. If the planner chooses a bad join order by default, you can force it to choose a better order via `JOIN` syntax — assuming that you know of a better order, that is. Experimentation is recommended.

A closely related issue that affects planning time is collapsing of subqueries into their parent query. For example, consider

```
SELECT *
FROM x, y,
      (SELECT * FROM a, b, c WHERE something) AS ss
WHERE somethingelse;
```

This situation might arise from use of a view that contains a join; the view's `SELECT` rule will be inserted in place of the view reference, yielding a query much like the above. Normally, the planner will try to collapse the subquery into the parent, yielding

```
SELECT * FROM x, y, a, b, c WHERE something AND somethingelse;
```

This usually results in a better plan than planning the subquery separately. (For example, the outer `WHERE` conditions might be such that joining X to A first eliminates many rows of A, thus avoiding the need to form the full logical output of the subquery.) But at the same time, we have increased the planning time; here, we have a five-way join problem replacing two separate three-way join problems. Because of the exponential growth of the number of possibilities, this makes a big difference. The planner tries to avoid getting stuck in huge join search problems by not collapsing a subquery if more than `from_collapse_limit` `FROM` items would result in the parent query. You can trade off planning time against quality of plan by adjusting this run-time parameter up or down.

`from_collapse_limit` and `join_collapse_limit` are similarly named because they do almost the same thing: one controls when the planner will “flatten out” subselects, and the other controls when it will flatten out explicit inner joins. Typically you would either set `join_collapse_limit` equal to `from_collapse_limit` (so that explicit joins and subselects act similarly) or set `join_collapse_limit` to 1 (if you want to control join order with explicit joins). But you might set them differently if you are trying to fine-tune the trade off between planning time and run time.

13.4. Populating a Database

One may need to insert a large amount of data when first populating a database. This section contains some suggestions on how to make this process as efficient as possible.

13.4.1. Disable Autocommit

Turn off autocommit and just do one commit at the end. (In plain SQL, this means issuing `BEGIN` at the start and `COMMIT` at the end. Some client libraries may do this behind your back, in which case you need to make sure the library does it when you want it done.) If you allow each insertion to be committed separately, PostgreSQL is doing a lot of work for each row that is added. An additional benefit of doing all insertions in one transaction is that if the insertion of one row were to fail then the insertion of all rows inserted up to that point would be rolled back, so you won't be stuck with partially loaded data.

13.4.2. Use `COPY`

Use `COPY` to load all the rows in one command, instead of using a series of `INSERT` commands. The `COPY` command is optimized for loading large numbers of rows; it is less flexible than `INSERT`, but incurs significantly less overhead for large data loads. Since `COPY` is a single command, there is no need to disable autocommit if you use this method to populate a table.

If you cannot use `COPY`, it may help to use `PREPARE` to create a prepared `INSERT` statement, and then use `EXECUTE` as many times as required. This avoids some of the overhead of repeatedly parsing and planning `INSERT`.

Note that loading a large number of rows using `COPY` is almost always faster than using `INSERT`, even if `PREPARE` is used and multiple insertions are batched into a single transaction.

13.4.3. Remove Indexes

If you are loading a freshly created table, the fastest way is to create the table, bulk load the table's data using `COPY`, then create any indexes needed for the table. Creating an index on pre-existing data is quicker than updating it incrementally as each row is loaded.

If you are augmenting an existing table, you can drop the index, load the table, and then recreate the index. Of course, the database performance for other users may be adversely affected during the time that the index is missing. One should also think twice before dropping unique indexes, since the error checking afforded by the unique constraint will be lost while the index is missing.

13.4.4. Increase `maintenance_work_mem`

Temporarily increasing the `maintenance_work_mem` configuration variable when loading large amounts of data can lead to improved performance. This is because when a B-tree index is created from scratch, the existing content of the table needs to be sorted. Allowing the merge sort to use more memory means that fewer merge passes will be required. A larger setting for `maintenance_work_mem` may also speed up validation of foreign-key constraints.

13.4.5. Increase `checkpoint_segments`

Temporarily increasing the `checkpoint_segments` configuration variable can also make large data loads faster. This is because loading a large amount of data into PostgreSQL can cause checkpoints to occur more often than the normal checkpoint frequency (specified by the `checkpoint_timeout` configuration variable). Whenever a checkpoint occurs, all dirty pages must be flushed to disk. By increasing `checkpoint_segments` temporarily during bulk data loads, the number of checkpoints that are required can be reduced.

13.4.6. Run `ANALYZE` Afterwards

Whenever you have significantly altered the distribution of data within a table, running `ANALYZE` is strongly recommended. This includes bulk loading large amounts of data into the table. Running `ANALYZE` (or `VACUUM ANALYZE`) ensures that the planner has up-to-date statistics about the table. With no statistics or obsolete statistics, the planner may make poor decisions during query planning, leading to poor performance on any tables with inaccurate or nonexistent statistics.

III. Server Administration

This part covers topics that are of interest to a PostgreSQL database administrator. This includes installation of the software, set up and configuration of the server, management of users and databases, and maintenance tasks. Anyone who runs a PostgreSQL server, even for personal use, but especially in production, should be familiar with the topics covered in this part.

The information in this part is arranged approximately in the order in which a new user should read it. But the chapters are self-contained and can be read individually as desired. The information in this part is presented in a narrative fashion in topical units. Readers looking for a complete description of a particular command should look into Part VI.

The first few chapters are written so that they can be understood without prerequisite knowledge, so that new users who need to set up their own server can begin their exploration with this part. The rest of this part is about tuning and management; that material assumes that the reader is familiar with the general use of the PostgreSQL database system. Readers are encouraged to look at Part I and Part II for additional information.

Chapter 14. Installation Instructions

This chapter describes the installation of PostgreSQL from the source code distribution. (If you are installing a pre-packaged distribution, such as an RPM or Debian package, ignore this chapter and read the packager's instructions instead.)

14.1. Short Version

```
./configure
gmake
su
gmake install
adduser postgres
mkdir /usr/local/pgsql/data
chown postgres /usr/local/pgsql/data
su - postgres
/usr/local/pgsql/bin/initdb -D /usr/local/pgsql/data
/usr/local/pgsql/bin/postmaster -D /usr/local/pgsql/data >logfile 2>&1 &
/usr/local/pgsql/bin/createdb test
/usr/local/pgsql/bin/psql test
```

The long version is the rest of this chapter.

14.2. Requirements

In general, a modern Unix-compatible platform should be able to run PostgreSQL. The platforms that had received specific testing at the time of release are listed in Section 14.7 below. In the `doc` subdirectory of the distribution there are several platform-specific FAQ documents you might wish to consult if you are having trouble.

The following software packages are required for building PostgreSQL:

- GNU make is required; other make programs will *not* work. GNU make is often installed under the name `gmake`; this document will always refer to it by that name. (On some systems GNU make is the default tool with the name `make`.) To test for GNU make enter

```
gmake --version
```

It is recommended to use version 3.76.1 or later.

- You need an ISO/ANSI C compiler. Recent versions of GCC are recommendable, but PostgreSQL is known to build with a wide variety of compilers from different vendors.
- `gzip` is needed to unpack the distribution in the first place.
- The GNU Readline library (for comfortable line editing and command history retrieval) will be used by default. If you don't want to use it then you must specify the `--without-readline` option for `configure`. (On NetBSD, the `libedit` library is Readline-compatible and is used if `libreadline` is not found.) If you are using a package-based Linux distribution, be aware that you need both the `readline` and `readline-devel` packages, if those are separate in your distribution.

- Additional software is needed to build PostgreSQL on Windows. You can build PostgreSQL for NT-based versions of Windows (like Windows XP and 2003) using MinGW; see `doc/FAQ_MINGW` for details. You can also build PostgreSQL using Cygwin; see `doc/FAQ_CYGWIN`. A Cygwin-based build will work on older versions of Windows, but if you have a choice, we recommend the MinGW approach. While these are the only tool sets recommended for a complete build, it is possible to build just the C client library (`libpq`) and the interactive terminal (`psql`) using other Windows tool sets. For details of that see Chapter 15.

The following packages are optional. They are not required in the default configuration, but they are needed when certain build options are enabled, as explained below.

- To build the server programming language PL/Perl you need a full Perl installation, including the `libperl` library and the header files. Since PL/Perl will be a shared library, the `libperl` library must be a shared library also on most platforms. This appears to be the default in recent Perl versions, but it was not in earlier versions, and in any case it is the choice of whomever installed Perl at your site.

If you don't have the shared library but you need one, a message like this will appear during the build to point out this fact:

```
*** Cannot build PL/Perl because libperl is not a shared library.
*** You might have to rebuild your Perl installation. Refer to
*** the documentation for details.
```

(If you don't follow the on-screen output you will merely notice that the PL/Perl library object, `plperl.so` or similar, will not be installed.) If you see this, you will have to rebuild and install Perl manually to be able to build PL/Perl. During the configuration process for Perl, request a shared library.

- To build the PL/Python server programming language, you need a Python installation with the header files and the `distutils` module. The `distutils` module is included by default with Python 1.6 and later; users of earlier versions of Python will need to install it.

Since PL/Python will be a shared library, the `libpython` library must be a shared library also on most platforms. This is not the case in a default Python installation. If after building and installing you have a file called `plpython.so` (possibly a different extension), then everything went well. Otherwise you should have seen a notice like this flying by:

```
*** Cannot build PL/Python because libpython is not a shared library.
*** You might have to rebuild your Python installation. Refer to
*** the documentation for details.
```

That means you have to rebuild (part of) your Python installation to supply this shared library.

If you have problems, run Python 2.3 or later's `configure` using the `--enable-shared` flag. On some operating systems you don't have to build a shared library, but you will have to convince the PostgreSQL build system of this. Consult the `Makefile` in the `src/pl/plpython` directory for details.

- If you want to build the PL/Tcl procedural language, you of course need a Tcl installation.
- To enable Native Language Support (NLS), that is, the ability to display a program's messages in a language other than English, you need an implementation of the `Gettext` API. Some operating systems

have this built-in (e.g., Linux, NetBSD, Solaris), for other systems you can download an add-on package from here: <http://developer.postgresql.org/~petere/bsd-gettext/>. If you are using the Gettext implementation in the GNU C library then you will additionally need the GNU Gettext package for some utility programs. For any of the other implementations you will not need it.

- Kerberos, OpenSSL, and/or PAM, if you want to support authentication or encryption using these services.

If you are building from a CVS tree instead of using a released source package, or if you want to do development, you also need the following packages:

- GNU Flex and Bison are needed to build a CVS checkout or if you changed the actual scanner and parser definition files. If you need them, be sure to get Flex 2.5.4 or later and Bison 1.875 or later. Other yacc programs can sometimes be used, but doing so requires extra effort and is not recommended. Other lex programs will definitely not work.

If you need to get a GNU package, you can find it at your local GNU mirror site (see <http://www.gnu.org/order/ftp.html> for a list) or at <ftp://ftp.gnu.org/gnu/>.

Also check that you have sufficient disk space. You will need about 65 MB for the source tree during compilation and about 15 MB for the installation directory. An empty database cluster takes about 25 MB, databases take about five times the amount of space that a flat text file with the same data would take. If you are going to run the regression tests you will temporarily need up to an extra 90 MB. Use the `df` command to check free disk space.

14.3. Getting The Source

The PostgreSQL 8.0.0 sources can be obtained by anonymous FTP from <ftp://ftp.postgresql.org/pub/source/v8.0.0/postgresql-8.0.0.tar.gz>. Use a mirror if possible. After you have obtained the file, unpack it:

```
gunzip postgresql-8.0.0.tar.gz
tar xf postgresql-8.0.0.tar
```

This will create a directory `postgresql-8.0.0` under the current directory with the PostgreSQL sources. Change into that directory for the rest of the installation procedure.

14.4. If You Are Upgrading

The internal data storage format changes with new releases of PostgreSQL. Therefore, if you are upgrading an existing installation that does not have a version number “8.0.x”, you must back up and restore your data as shown here. These instructions assume that your existing installation is under the `/usr/local/pgsql` directory, and that the data area is in `/usr/local/pgsql/data`. Substitute your paths appropriately.

1. Make sure that your database is not updated during or after the backup. This does not affect the integrity of the backup, but the changed data would of course not be included. If necessary, edit the permissions in the file `/usr/local/pgsql/data/pg_hba.conf` (or equivalent) to disallow access from everyone except you.

2. To back up your database installation, type:

```
pg_dumpall > outputfile
```

If you need to preserve OIDs (such as when using them as foreign keys), then use the `-o` option when running `pg_dumpall`.

`pg_dumpall` does not save large objects. Check Section 22.1.4 if you need to do this.

To make the backup, you can use the `pg_dumpall` command from the version you are currently running. For best results, however, try to use the `pg_dumpall` command from PostgreSQL 8.0.0, since this version contains bug fixes and improvements over older versions. While this advice might seem idiosyncratic since you haven't installed the new version yet, it is advisable to follow it if you plan to install the new version in parallel with the old version. In that case you can complete the installation normally and transfer the data later. This will also decrease the downtime.

3. If you are installing the new version at the same location as the old one then shut down the old server, at the latest before you install the new files:

```
pg_ctl stop
```

On systems that have PostgreSQL started at boot time, there is probably a start-up file that will accomplish the same thing. For example, on a Red Hat Linux system one might find that

```
/etc/rc.d/init.d/postgresql stop
```

works.

Very old versions might not have `pg_ctl`. If you can't find it or it doesn't work, find out the process ID of the old server, for example by typing

```
ps ax | grep postmaster
```

and signal it to stop this way:

```
kill -INT processID
```

4. If you are installing in the same place as the old version then it is also a good idea to move the old installation out of the way, in case you have trouble and need to revert to it. Use a command like this:

```
mv /usr/local/pgsql /usr/local/pgsql.old
```

After you have installed PostgreSQL 8.0.0, create a new database directory and start the new server. Remember that you must execute these commands while logged in to the special database user account (which you already have if you are upgrading).

```
/usr/local/pgsql/bin/initdb -D /usr/local/pgsql/data  
/usr/local/pgsql/bin/postmaster -D /usr/local/pgsql/data
```

Finally, restore your data with

```
/usr/local/pgsql/bin/psql -d template1 -f outputfile
```

using the *new* psql.

Further discussion appears in Section 22.4, which you are encouraged to read in any case.

14.5. Installation Procedure

1. Configuration

The first step of the installation procedure is to configure the source tree for your system and choose the options you would like. This is done by running the `configure` script. For a default installation simply enter

```
./configure
```

This script will run a number of tests to guess values for various system dependent variables and detect some quirks of your operating system, and finally will create several files in the build tree to record what it found. (You can also run `configure` in a directory outside the source tree if you want to keep the build directory separate.)

The default configuration will build the server and utilities, as well as all client applications and interfaces that require only a C compiler. All files will be installed under `/usr/local/pgsql` by default.

You can customize the build and installation process by supplying one or more of the following command line options to `configure`:

```
--prefix=PREFIX
```

Install all files under the directory *PREFIX* instead of `/usr/local/pgsql`. The actual files will be installed into various subdirectories; no files will ever be installed directly into the *PREFIX* directory.

If you have special needs, you can also customize the individual subdirectories with the following options. However, if you leave these with their defaults, the installation will be relocatable, meaning you can move the directory after installation. (The `man` and `doc` locations are not affected by this.)

For relocatable installs, you might want to use `configure`'s `--disable-rpath` option. Also, you will need to tell the operating system how to find the shared libraries.

```
--exec-prefix=EXEC-PREFIX
```

You can install architecture-dependent files under a different prefix, *EXEC-PREFIX*, than what *PREFIX* was set to. This can be useful to share architecture-independent files between hosts. If you omit this, then *EXEC-PREFIX* is set equal to *PREFIX* and both architecture-dependent and independent files will be installed under the same tree, which is probably what you want.

```
--bindir=DIRECTORY
```

Specifies the directory for executable programs. The default is *EXEC-PREFIX*/`bin`, which normally means `/usr/local/pgsql/bin`.

```
--datadir=DIRECTORY
```

Sets the directory for read-only data files used by the installed programs. The default is *PREFIX*/`share`. Note that this has nothing to do with where your database files will be placed.

`--sysconfdir=DIRECTORY`

The directory for various configuration files, *PREFIX/etc* by default.

`--libdir=DIRECTORY`

The location to install libraries and dynamically loadable modules. The default is *EXEC-PREFIX/lib*.

`--includedir=DIRECTORY`

The directory for installing C and C++ header files. The default is *PREFIX/include*.

`--mandir=DIRECTORY`

The man pages that come with PostgreSQL will be installed under this directory, in their respective *manx* subdirectories. The default is *PREFIX/man*.

`--with-docdir=DIRECTORY`

`--without-docdir`

Documentation files, except “man” pages, will be installed into this directory. The default is *PREFIX/doc*. If the option `--without-docdir` is specified, the documentation will not be installed by `make install`. This is intended for packaging scripts that have special methods for installing documentation.

Note: Care has been taken to make it possible to install PostgreSQL into shared installation locations (such as */usr/local/include*) without interfering with the namespace of the rest of the system. First, the string “*postgresql*” is automatically appended to *datadir*, *sysconfdir*, and *docdir*, unless the fully expanded directory name already contains the string “*postgres*” or “*pgsql*”. For example, if you choose */usr/local* as prefix, the documentation will be installed in */usr/local/doc/postgresql*, but if the prefix is */opt/postgres*, then it will be in */opt/postgres/doc*. The public C header files of the client interfaces are installed into *includedir* and are namespace-clean. The internal header files and the server header files are installed into private directories under *includedir*. See the documentation of each interface for information about how to get at the its header files. Finally, a private subdirectory will also be created, if appropriate, under *libdir* for dynamically loadable modules.

`--with-includes=DIRECTORIES`

DIRECTORIES is a colon-separated list of directories that will be added to the list the compiler searches for header files. If you have optional packages (such as GNU Readline) installed in a non-standard location, you have to use this option and probably also the corresponding `--with-libraries` option.

Example: `--with-includes=/opt/gnu/include:/usr/sup/include`.

`--with-libraries=DIRECTORIES`

DIRECTORIES is a colon-separated list of directories to search for libraries. You will probably have to use this option (and the corresponding `--with-includes` option) if you have packages installed in non-standard locations.

Example: `--with-libraries=/opt/gnu/lib:/usr/sup/lib`.

`--enable-nls[=LANGUAGES]`

Enables Native Language Support (NLS), that is, the ability to display a program's messages in a language other than English. *LANGUAGES* is a space-separated list of codes of the languages that you want supported, for example `--enable-nls='de fr'`. (The intersection between your list and the set of actually provided translations will be computed automatically.) If you do not specify a list, then all available translations are installed.

To use this option, you will need an implementation of the Gettext API; see above.

`--with-pgport=NUMBER`

Set *NUMBER* as the default port number for server and clients. The default is 5432. The port can always be changed later on, but if you specify it here then both server and clients will have the same default compiled in, which can be very convenient. Usually the only good reason to select a non-default value is if you intend to run multiple PostgreSQL servers on the same machine.

`--with-perl`

Build the PL/Perl server-side language.

`--with-python`

Build the PL/Python server-side language.

`--with-tcl`

Build the PL/Tcl server-side language.

`--with-tclconfig=DIRECTORY`

Tcl installs the file `tclConfig.sh`, which contains configuration information needed to build modules interfacing to Tcl. This file is normally found automatically at a well-known location, but if you want to use a different version of Tcl you can specify the directory in which to look for it.

`--with-krb4`

`--with-krb5`

Build with support for Kerberos authentication. You can use either Kerberos version 4 or 5, but not both. On many systems, the Kerberos system is not installed in a location that is searched by default (e.g., `/usr/include`, `/usr/lib`), so you must use the options `--with-includes` and `--with-libraries` in addition to this option. `configure` will check for the required header files and libraries to make sure that your Kerberos installation is sufficient before proceeding.

`--with-krb-srvnam=NAME`

The name of the Kerberos service principal. `postgres` is the default. There's probably no reason to change this.

`--with-openssl`

Build with support for SSL (encrypted) connections. This requires the OpenSSL package to be installed. `configure` will check for the required header files and libraries to make sure that your OpenSSL installation is sufficient before proceeding.

`--with-pam`

Build with PAM (Pluggable Authentication Modules) support.

`--without-readline`

Prevents use of the Readline library. This disables command-line editing and history in `psql`, so it is not recommended.

`--with-rendezvous`

Build with Rendezvous support. This requires Rendezvous support in your operating system. Recommended on Mac OS X.

`--disable-spinlocks`

Allow the build to succeed even if PostgreSQL has no CPU spinlock support for the platform. The lack of spinlock support will result in poor performance; therefore, this option should only be used if the build aborts and informs you that the platform lacks spinlock support. If this option is required to build PostgreSQL on your platform, please report the problem to the PostgreSQL developers.

`--enable-thread-safety`

Make the client libraries thread-safe. This allows concurrent threads in `libpq` and `ECPG` programs to safely control their private connection handles. This option requires adequate threading support in your operating system.

`--without-zlib`

Prevents use of the Zlib library. This disables support for compressed archives in `pg_dump` and `pg_restore`. This option is only intended for those rare systems where this library is not available.

`--enable-debug`

Compiles all programs and libraries with debugging symbols. This means that you can run the programs through a debugger to analyze problems. This enlarges the size of the installed executables considerably, and on non-GCC compilers it usually also disables compiler optimization, causing slowdowns. However, having the symbols available is extremely helpful for dealing with any problems that may arise. Currently, this option is recommended for production installations only if you use GCC. But you should always have it on if you are doing development work or running a beta version.

`--enable-cassert`

Enables *assertion* checks in the server, which test for many “can’t happen” conditions. This is invaluable for code development purposes, but the tests slow things down a little. Also, having the tests turned on won’t necessarily enhance the stability of your server! The assertion checks are not categorized for severity, and so what might be a relatively harmless bug will still lead to server restarts if it triggers an assertion failure. Currently, this option is not recommended for production use, but you should have it on for development work or when running a beta version.

`--enable-depend`

Enables automatic dependency tracking. With this option, the makefiles are set up so that all affected object files will be rebuilt when any header file is changed. This is useful if you are doing development work, but is just wasted overhead if you intend only to compile once and install. At present, this option will work only if you use GCC.

If you prefer a C compiler different from the one `configure` picks, you can set the environment variable `CC` to the program of your choice. By default, `configure` will pick `gcc` if available, else the platform's default (usually `cc`). Similarly, you can override the default compiler flags if needed with the `CFLAGS` variable.

You can specify environment variables on the `configure` command line, for example:

```
./configure CC=/opt/bin/gcc CFLAGS='-O2 -pipe'
```

2. Build

To start the build, type

```
gmake
```

(Remember to use GNU make.) The build may take anywhere from 5 minutes to half an hour depending on your hardware. The last line displayed should be

```
All of PostgreSQL is successfully made. Ready to install.
```

3. Regression Tests

If you want to test the newly built server before you install it, you can run the regression tests at this point. The regression tests are a test suite to verify that PostgreSQL runs on your machine in the way the developers expected it to. Type

```
gmake check
```

(This won't work as root; do it as an unprivileged user.) Chapter 26 contains detailed information about interpreting the test results. You can repeat this test at any later time by issuing the same command.

4. Installing The Files

Note: If you are upgrading an existing system and are going to install the new files over the old ones, be sure to back up your data and shut down the old server before proceeding, as explained in Section 14.4 above.

To install PostgreSQL enter

```
gmake install
```

This will install files into the directories that were specified in step 1. Make sure that you have appropriate permissions to write into that area. Normally you need to do this step as root. Alternatively, you could create the target directories in advance and arrange for appropriate permissions to be granted.

You can use `gmake install-strip` instead of `gmake install` to strip the executable files and libraries as they are installed. This will save some space. If you built with debugging support, stripping will effectively remove the debugging support, so it should only be done if debugging is no longer needed. `install-strip` tries to do a reasonable job saving space, but it does not have perfect knowledge of how to strip every unneeded byte from an executable file, so if you want to save all the disk space you possibly can, you will have to do manual work.

The standard installation provides all the header files needed for client application development as well as for server-side program development, such as custom functions or data types written in C. (Prior to PostgreSQL 8.0, a separate `gmake install-all-headers` command was needed for the latter, but this step has been folded into the standard install.)

Client-only installation: If you want to install only the client applications and interface libraries, then you can use these commands:

```
gmake -C src/bin install
gmake -C src/include install
gmake -C src/interfaces install
gmake -C doc install
```

Registering eventlog on Windows: To register a Windows eventlog library with the operating system, issue this command after installation:

```
regsvr32 psql_library_directory/pgevent.dll
```

This creates registry entries used by the event viewer.

Uninstallation: To undo the installation use the command `gmake uninstall`. However, this will not remove any created directories.

Cleaning: After the installation you can make room by removing the built files from the source tree with the command `gmake clean`. This will preserve the files made by the `configure` program, so that you can rebuild everything with `gmake` later on. To reset the source tree to the state in which it was distributed, use `gmake distclean`. If you are going to build for several platforms within the same source tree you must do this and re-configure for each build. (Alternatively, use a separate build tree for each platform, so that the source tree remains unmodified.)

If you perform a build and then discover that your `configure` options were wrong, or if you change anything that `configure` investigates (for example, software upgrades), then it's a good idea to do `gmake distclean` before reconfiguring and rebuilding. Without this, your changes in configuration choices may not propagate everywhere they need to.

14.6. Post-Installation Setup

14.6.1. Shared Libraries

On some systems that have shared libraries (which most systems do) you need to tell your system how to find the newly installed shared libraries. The systems on which this is *not* necessary include BSD/OS, FreeBSD, HP-UX, IRIX, Linux, NetBSD, OpenBSD, Tru64 UNIX (formerly Digital UNIX), and Solaris.

The method to set the shared library search path varies between platforms, but the most widely usable method is to set the environment variable `LD_LIBRARY_PATH` like so: In Bourne shells (`sh`, `ksh`, `bash`, `zsh`)

```
LD_LIBRARY_PATH=/usr/local/pgsql/lib
export LD_LIBRARY_PATH
```

or in `csh` or `tcsh`

```
setenv LD_LIBRARY_PATH /usr/local/pgsql/lib
```

Replace `/usr/local/pgsql/lib` with whatever you set `--libdir` to in step 1. You should put these commands into a shell start-up file such as `/etc/profile` or `~/.bash_profile`. Some good information about the caveats associated with this method can be found at <http://www.visi.com/~barr/ldpath.html>.

On some systems it might be preferable to set the environment variable `LD_RUN_PATH` *before* building.

On Cygwin, put the library directory in the `PATH` or move the `.dll` files into the `bin` directory.

If in doubt, refer to the manual pages of your system (perhaps `ld.so` or `rld`). If you later on get a message like

```
psql: error in loading shared libraries
libpq.so.2.1: cannot open shared object file: No such file or directory
```

then this step was necessary. Simply take care of it then.

If you are on BSD/OS, Linux, or SunOS 4 and you have root access you can run

```
/sbin/ldconfig /usr/local/pgsql/lib
```

(or equivalent directory) after installation to enable the run-time linker to find the shared libraries faster. Refer to the manual page of `ldconfig` for more information. On FreeBSD, NetBSD, and OpenBSD the command is

```
/sbin/ldconfig -m /usr/local/pgsql/lib
```

instead. Other systems are not known to have an equivalent command.

14.6.2. Environment Variables

If you installed into `/usr/local/pgsql` or some other location that is not searched for programs by default, you should add `/usr/local/pgsql/bin` (or whatever you set `--bindir` to in step 1) into your `PATH`. Strictly speaking, this is not necessary, but it will make the use of PostgreSQL much more convenient.

To do this, add the following to your shell start-up file, such as `~/.bash_profile` (or `/etc/profile`, if you want it to affect every user):

```
PATH=/usr/local/pgsql/bin:$PATH
export PATH
```

If you are using `csh` or `tcsh`, then use this command:

```
set path = ( /usr/local/pgsql/bin $path )
```

To enable your system to find the man documentation, you need to add lines like the following to a shell start-up file unless you installed into a location that is searched by default.

```
MANPATH=/usr/local/pgsql/man:$MANPATH
export MANPATH
```

The environment variables `PGHOST` and `PGPORT` specify to client applications the host and port of the database server, overriding the compiled-in defaults. If you are going to run client applications remotely then it is convenient if every user that plans to use the database sets `PGHOST`. This is not required, however: the settings can be communicated via command line options to most client programs.

14.7. Supported Platforms

PostgreSQL has been verified by the developer community to work on the platforms listed below. A supported platform generally means that PostgreSQL builds and installs according to these instructions and that the regression tests pass. “Build farm” entries refer to builds reported by the PostgreSQL Build Farm⁶. Platform entries that show an older version of PostgreSQL are those that did not receive explicit testing at the time of release of version 8.0 but that we still expect to work.

Note: If you are having problems with the installation on a supported platform, please write to `<pgsql-bugs@postgresql.org>` or `<pgsql-ports@postgresql.org>`, not to the people listed here.

OS	Processor	Version	Reported	Remarks
AIX	PowerPC	8.0.0	Travis P (<code><twp@castle.fasdoc.mt.com></code>), 2004-12-12	see also doc/FAQ_AIX
AIX	RS6000	8.0.0	Hans-Jürgen Schönig (<code><hs@cybertec.at></code>), 2004-12-06	see also doc/FAQ_AIX
BSD/OS	x86	8.0.0	Bruce Momjian (<code><pgman@candle.pha.pa.us></code>), 2004-12-07	4.3.1
Debian GNU/Linux	Alpha	7.4	Noël Köthe (<code><noel@debian.org></code>), 2003-10-25	
Debian GNU/Linux	AMD64	8.0.0	Build farm panda, snapshot 2004-12-06 01:20:02	sid, kernel 2.6
Debian GNU/Linux	ARM	8.0.0	Jim Buttafuoco (<code><jim@contactbda.com></code>), 2005-01-06	
Debian GNU/Linux	IA64	7.4	Noël Köthe (<code><noel@debian.org></code>), 2003-10-25	

6. <http://www.pgbuildfarm.org/>

OS	Processor	Version	Reported	Remarks
Debian GNU/Linux	m68k	8.0.0	Noël Köthe (noel@debian.org), 2004-12-09	sid
Debian GNU/Linux	MIPS	8.0.0	Build farm lionfish, snapshot 2004-12-06 11:00:08	3.1 (sarge), kernel 2.4
Debian GNU/Linux	PA-RISC	8.0.0	Noël Köthe (noel@debian.org), 2004-12-07	sid
Debian GNU/Linux	PowerPC	8.0.0	Noël Köthe (noel@debian.org), 2004-12-15	sid
Debian GNU/Linux	S/390	7.4	Noël Köthe (noel@debian.org), 2003-10-25	
Debian GNU/Linux	Sparc	8.0.0	Noël Köthe (noel@debian.org), 2004-12-09	sid, 32-bit
Debian GNU/Linux	x86	8.0.0	Peter Eisentraut (peter_e@gmx.net), 2004-12-06	3.1 (sarge), kernel 2.6
Fedora	AMD64	8.0.0	John Gray (jgray@azuli.co.uk), 2004-12-12	FC3
Fedora	x86	8.0.0	Build farm dog, snapshot 2004-12-06 02:06:01	FC1
FreeBSD	Alpha	7.4	Peter Eisentraut (peter_e@gmx.net), 2003-10-25	4.8
FreeBSD	x86	8.0.0	Build farm cockatoo, snapshot 2004-12-06 14:10:01 (4.10); Marc Fournier (scrappy@postgresql.org), 2004-12-07 (5.3)	
Gentoo Linux	AMD64	8.0.0	Jani Averbach (jaa@jaa.iki.fi), 2005-01-13	
Gentoo Linux	x86	8.0.0	Paul Bort (pbort@tmwsystems.com), 2004-12-07	

OS	Processor	Version	Reported	Remarks
HP-UX	IA64	8.0.0	Tom Lane (tgl@sss.pgh.pa.us), 2005-01-06	11.23, gcc and cc; see also doc/FAQ_HPUX
HP-UX	PA-RISC	8.0.0	Tom Lane (tgl@sss.pgh.pa.us), 2005-01-06	10.20 and 11.11, gcc and cc; see also doc/FAQ_HPUX
IRIX	MIPS	7.4	Robert E. Bruccoleri (bruc@stone.com), 2003-11-12	6.5.20, cc only genomics.com),
Mac OS X	PowerPC	8.0.0	Andrew Rawnsley (ronz@ravensfield.com), 2004-12-07	10.3.5
Mandrakelinux	x86	8.0.0	Build farm shrew, snapshot 2004-12-06 02:02:01	10.0
NetBSD	arm32	7.4	Patrick Welche (pirlw1@newn.cam.ac.uk), 2003-11-12	1.6ZE/acorn32
NetBSD	m68k	8.0.0	Rémi Zara (remi_zara@mac.com), 2004-12-14	2.0
NetBSD	Sparc	7.4.1	Peter Eisentraut (peter_e@gmx.net), 2003-11-26	1.6.1, 32-bit
NetBSD	x86	8.0.0	Build farm canary, snapshot 2004-12-06 03:30:00	1.6
OpenBSD	Sparc	8.0.0	Chris Mair (list@1006.org), 2005-01-10	3.3
OpenBSD	Sparc64	8.0.0	Build farm spoonbill, snapshot 2005-01-06 00:50:05	3.6
OpenBSD	x86	8.0.0	Build farm emu, snapshot 2004-12-06 11:35:03	3.6
Red Hat Linux	AMD64	8.0.0	Tom Lane (tgl@sss.pgh.pa.us), 2004-12-07	RHEL 3AS
Red Hat Linux	IA64	8.0.0	Tom Lane (tgl@sss.pgh.pa.us), 2004-12-07	RHEL 3AS

OS	Processor	Version	Reported	Remarks
Red Hat Linux	PowerPC	8.0.0	Tom Lane (tgl@sss.pgh.pa.us), 2004-12-07	RHEL 3AS
Red Hat Linux	PowerPC 64	8.0.0	Tom Lane (tgl@sss.pgh.pa.us), 2004-12-07	RHEL 3AS
Red Hat Linux	S/390	8.0.0	Tom Lane (tgl@sss.pgh.pa.us), 2004-12-07	RHEL 3AS
Red Hat Linux	S/390x	8.0.0	Tom Lane (tgl@sss.pgh.pa.us), 2004-12-07	RHEL 3AS
Red Hat Linux	x86	8.0.0	Tom Lane (tgl@sss.pgh.pa.us), 2004-12-07	RHEL 3AS
Solaris	Sparc	8.0.0	Kenneth Marshall (ktm@is.rice.edu), 2004-12-07	Solaris 8; see also doc/FAQ_Solaris
Solaris	x86	8.0.0	Build farm kudu, snapshot 2004-12-10 02:30:04 (cc); dragonfly, snapshot 2004-12-09 04:30:00 (gcc)	Solaris 9; see also doc/FAQ_Solaris
SUSE Linux	AMD64	8.0.0	Reinhard Max (max@suse.de), 2005-01-03	9.0, 9.1, 9.2, SLES 9
SUSE Linux	IA64	8.0.0	Reinhard Max (max@suse.de), 2005-01-03	SLES 9
SUSE Linux	PowerPC	8.0.0	Reinhard Max (max@suse.de), 2005-01-03	SLES 9
SUSE Linux	PowerPC 64	8.0.0	Reinhard Max (max@suse.de), 2005-01-03	SLES 9
SUSE Linux	S/390	8.0.0	Reinhard Max (max@suse.de), 2005-01-03	SLES 9
SUSE Linux	S/390x	8.0.0	Reinhard Max (max@suse.de), 2005-01-03	SLES 9

OS	Processor	Version	Reported	Remarks
SUSE Linux	x86	8.0.0	Reinhard Max (reinh@max@suse.de), 2005-01-03	9.0, 9.1, 9.2, SLES 9
Tru64 UNIX	Alpha	8.0.0	Honda Shigehiro (honda@fwif0083@mb.infoweb.ne.jp), 2005-01-07	5.0
UnixWare	x86	8.0.0	Peter Eisentraut (peter_e@gmx.net), 2004-12-14	cc, 7.1.4; see also doc/FAQ_SCO
Windows	x86	8.0.0	Dave Page (dpage@vale-house.org), 2004-12-07	XP Pro; see doc/FAQ_WINDOWS
Windows with Cygwin	x86	8.0.0	Build farm gibbon, snapshot 2004-12-11 01:33:01	see doc/FAQ_CYWIN

Unsupported Platforms: The following platforms are either known not to work, or they used to work in a fairly distant previous release. We include these here to let you know that these platforms *could* be supported if given some attention.

OS	Processor	Version	Reported	Remarks
BeOS	x86	7.2	Cyril Velter (cyril.velter@lisa.nyu.edu), 2001-11-29	needs updates to sample code
Linux	PlayStation 2	8.0.0	Chris Mair (cmair@list.1006.org), 2005-01-09	requires -disable-spinlocks (works, but slow)
NetBSD	Alpha	7.2	Thomas Thai (tom@minnesota.com), 2001-11-20	1.5W
NetBSD	MIPS	7.2.1	Warwick Hunter (whunter@agile.tv), 2002-06-13	1.5.3
NetBSD	PowerPC	7.2	Bill Studenmund (wrstuden@netbsd.org), 2001-11-28	1.5
NetBSD	VAX	7.1	Tom I. Helbekkmo (tih@kpnqwest.no), 2001-03-30	1.5
QNX 4 RTOS	x86	7.2	Bernd Tegge (tegge@repas-aes.com), 2001-12-10	needs updates to sample code ; see also doc/FAQ_QNX4

OS	Processor	Version	Reported	Remarks
QNX RTOS v6	x86	7.2	Igor Kovalenko (<Igor.Kovalenko@nortel.com>), 2001-11-20	patches available in archives, but too late for 7.2
SCO OpenServer	x86	7.3.1	Shibashish Satpathy (<shib@postmark.net>), 2002-12-11	5.0.4, gcc; see also FAQ_SCO
SunOS 4	Sparc	7.2	Tatsuo Ishii (<t-ishii@sra.co.jp>), 2001-12-04	

Chapter 15. Client-Only Installation on Windows

Although a complete PostgreSQL installation for Windows can only be built using MinGW or Cygwin, the C client library (`libpq`) and the interactive terminal (`psql`) can be compiled using other Windows tool sets. Makefiles are included in the source distribution for Microsoft Visual C++ and Borland C++. It should be possible to compile the libraries manually for other configurations.

Tip: Using MinGW or Cygwin is preferred. If using one of those tool sets, see Chapter 14.

To build everything that you can on Windows using Microsoft Visual C++, change into the `src` directory and type the command

```
nmake /f win32.mak
```

This assumes that you have Visual C++ in your path.

To build everything using Borland C++, change into the `src` directory and type the command

```
make -DCFG=Release /f bcc32.mak
```

The following files will be built:

```
interfaces\libpq\Release\libpq.dll
```

The dynamically linkable frontend library

```
interfaces\libpq\Release\libpqdll.lib
```

Import library to link your programs to `libpq.dll`

```
interfaces\libpq\Release\libpq.lib
```

Static version of the frontend library

```
bin\psql\Release\psql.exe
```

The PostgreSQL interactive terminal

The only file that really needs to be installed is the `libpq.dll` library. This file should in most cases be placed in the `WINNT\SYSTEM32` directory (or in `WINDOWS\SYSTEM` on a Windows 95/98/ME system). If this file is installed using a setup program, it should be installed with version checking using the `VERSIONINFO` resource included in the file, to ensure that a newer version of the library is not overwritten.

If you plan to do development using `libpq` on this machine, you will have to add the `src\include` and `src\interfaces\libpq` subdirectories of the source tree to the include path in your compiler's settings.

To use the library, you must add the `libpqdll.lib` file to your project. (In Visual C++, just right-click on the project and choose to add it.)

Chapter 16. Server Run-time Environment

This chapter discusses how to set up and run the database server and its interactions with the operating system.

16.1. The PostgreSQL User Account

As with any other server daemon that is accessible to the outside world, it is advisable to run PostgreSQL under a separate user account. This user account should only own the data that is managed by the server, and should not be shared with other daemons. (For example, using the user `nobody` is a bad idea.) It is not advisable to install executables owned by this user because compromised systems could then modify their own binaries.

To add a Unix user account to your system, look for a command `useradd` or `adduser`. The user name `postgres` is often used, and is assumed throughout this book, but you can use another name if you like.

16.2. Creating a Database Cluster

Before you can do anything, you must initialize a database storage area on disk. We call this a *database cluster*. (SQL uses the term *catalog cluster*.) A database cluster is a collection of databases that is managed by a single instance of a running database server. After initialization, a database cluster will contain a database named `template1`. As the name suggests, this will be used as a template for subsequently created databases; it should not be used for actual work. (See Chapter 18 for information about creating new databases within a cluster.)

In file system terms, a database cluster will be a single directory under which all data will be stored. We call this the *data directory* or *data area*. It is completely up to you where you choose to store your data. There is no default, although locations such as `/usr/local/pgsql/data` or `/var/lib/pgsql/data` are popular. To initialize a database cluster, use the command `initdb`, which is installed with PostgreSQL. The desired file system location of your database cluster is indicated by the `-D` option, for example

```
$ initdb -D /usr/local/pgsql/data
```

Note that you must execute this command while logged into the PostgreSQL user account, which is described in the previous section.

Tip: As an alternative to the `-D` option, you can set the environment variable `PGDATA`.

`initdb` will attempt to create the directory you specify if it does not already exist. It is likely that it will not have the permission to do so (if you followed our advice and created an unprivileged account). In that case you should create the directory yourself (as root) and change the owner to be the PostgreSQL user. Here is how this might be done:

```
root# mkdir /usr/local/pgsql/data  
root# chown postgres /usr/local/pgsql/data  
root# su postgres  
postgres$ initdb -D /usr/local/pgsql/data
```

`initdb` will refuse to run if the data directory looks like it has already been initialized.

Because the data directory contains all the data stored in the database, it is essential that it be secured from unauthorized access. `initdb` therefore revokes access permissions from everyone but the PostgreSQL user.

However, while the directory contents are secure, the default client authentication setup allows any local user to connect to the database and even become the database superuser. If you do not trust other local users, we recommend you use one of `initdb`'s `-W`, `--pwprompt` or `--pwfile` options to assign a password to the database superuser. Also, specify `-A md5` or `-A password` so that the default `trust` authentication mode is not used; or modify the generated `pg_hba.conf` file after running `initdb`, *before* you start the server for the first time. (Other reasonable approaches include using `ident` authentication or file system permissions to restrict connections. See Chapter 19 for more information.)

`initdb` also initializes the default locale for the database cluster. Normally, it will just take the locale settings in the environment and apply them to the initialized database. It is possible to specify a different locale for the database; more information about that can be found in Section 20.1. The sort order used within a particular database cluster is set by `initdb` and cannot be changed later, short of dumping all data, rerunning `initdb`, and reloading the data. There is also a performance impact for using locales other than `C` or `POSIX`. Therefore, it is important to make this choice correctly the first time.

`initdb` also sets the default character set encoding for the database cluster. Normally this should be chosen to match the locale setting. For details see Section 20.2.

16.3. Starting the Database Server

Before anyone can access the database, you must start the database server. The database server program is called `postmaster`. The `postmaster` must know where to find the data it is supposed to use. This is done with the `-D` option. Thus, the simplest way to start the server is:

```
$ postmaster -D /usr/local/pgsql/data
```

which will leave the server running in the foreground. This must be done while logged into the PostgreSQL user account. Without `-D`, the server will try to use the data directory named by the environment variable `PGDATA`. If that variable is not provided either, it will fail.

Normally it is better to start the `postmaster` in the background. For this, use the usual shell syntax:

```
$ postmaster -D /usr/local/pgsql/data >logfile 2>&1 &
```

It is important to store the server's `stdout` and `stderr` output somewhere, as shown above. It will help for auditing purposes and to diagnose problems. (See Section 21.3 for a more thorough discussion of log file handling.)

The `postmaster` also takes a number of other command line options. For more information, see the `postmaster` reference page and Section 16.4 below.

This shell syntax can get tedious quickly. Therefore the wrapper program `pg_ctl` is provided to simplify some tasks. For example:

```
pg_ctl start -l logfile
```

will start the server in the background and put the output into the named log file. The `-D` option has the same meaning here as in the `postmaster.pg_ctl` is also capable of stopping the server.

Normally, you will want to start the database server when the computer boots. Autostart scripts are operating-system-specific. There are a few distributed with PostgreSQL in the `contrib/start-scripts` directory. Installing one will require root privileges.

Different systems have different conventions for starting up daemons at boot time. Many systems have a file `/etc/rc.local` or `/etc/rc.d/rc.local`. Others use `rc.d` directories. Whatever you do, the server must be run by the PostgreSQL user account *and not by root* or any other user. Therefore you probably should form your commands using `su -c '...' postgres`. For example:

```
su -c 'pg_ctl start -D /usr/local/pgsql/data -l serverlog' postgres
```

Here are a few more operating-system-specific suggestions. (In each case be sure to use the proper installation directory and user name where we show generic values.)

- For FreeBSD, look at the file `contrib/start-scripts/freebsd` in the PostgreSQL source distribution.
- On OpenBSD, add the following lines to the file `/etc/rc.local`:

```
if [ -x /usr/local/pgsql/bin/pg_ctl -a -x /usr/local/pgsql/bin/postmaster ]; then
    su - -c '/usr/local/pgsql/bin/pg_ctl start -l /var/postgresql/log -s' postgres
    echo -n ' postgresql'
fi
```

- On Linux systems either add

```
/usr/local/pgsql/bin/pg_ctl start -l logfile -D /usr/local/pgsql/data
```

to `/etc/rc.d/rc.local` or look at the file `contrib/start-scripts/linux` in the PostgreSQL source distribution.

- On NetBSD, either use the FreeBSD or Linux start scripts, depending on preference.
- On Solaris, create a file called `/etc/init.d/postgresql` that contains the following line:

```
su - postgres -c "/usr/local/pgsql/bin/pg_ctl start -l logfile -D /usr/local/pgsql/data"
```

Then, create a symbolic link to it in `/etc/rc3.d` as `S99postgresql`.

While the `postmaster` is running, its PID is stored in the file `postmaster.pid` in the data directory. This is used to prevent multiple `postmaster` processes running in the same data directory and can also be used for shutting down the `postmaster` process.

16.3.1. Server Start-up Failures

There are several common reasons the server might fail to start. Check the server's log file, or start it by hand (without redirecting standard output or standard error) and see what error messages appear. Below we explain some of the most common error messages in more detail.

```
LOG:  could not bind IPv4 socket: Address already in use
```

```
HINT:  Is another postmaster already running on port 5432? If not, wait a few seconds a
FATAL:  could not create TCP/IP listen socket
```

This usually means just what it suggests: you tried to start another `postmaster` on the same port where one is already running. However, if the kernel error message is not `Address already in use` or some variant of that, there may be a different problem. For example, trying to start a `postmaster` on a reserved port number may draw something like:

```
$ postmaster -p 666
LOG:   could not bind IPv4 socket: Permission denied
HINT:  Is another postmaster already running on port 666? If not, wait a few seconds an
FATAL:  could not create TCP/IP listen socket
```

A message like

```
FATAL:  could not create shared memory segment: Invalid argument
DETAIL:  Failed system call was shmget(key=5440001, size=4011376640, 03600).
```

probably means your kernel's limit on the size of shared memory is smaller than the work area PostgreSQL is trying to create (4011376640 bytes in this example). Or it could mean that you do not have System-V-style shared memory support configured into your kernel at all. As a temporary workaround, you can try starting the server with a smaller-than-normal number of buffers (`-B` switch). You will eventually want to reconfigure your kernel to increase the allowed shared memory size. You may also see this message when trying to start multiple servers on the same machine, if their total space requested exceeds the kernel limit.

An error like

```
FATAL:  could not create semaphores: No space left on device
DETAIL:  Failed system call was semget(5440126, 17, 03600).
```

does *not* mean you've run out of disk space. It means your kernel's limit on the number of System V semaphores is smaller than the number PostgreSQL wants to create. As above, you may be able to work around the problem by starting the server with a reduced number of allowed connections (`-N` switch), but you'll eventually want to increase the kernel limit.

If you get an "illegal system call" error, it is likely that shared memory or semaphores are not supported in your kernel at all. In that case your only option is to reconfigure the kernel to enable these features.

Details about configuring System V IPC facilities are given in Section 16.5.1.

16.3.2. Client Connection Problems

Although the error conditions possible on the client side are quite varied and application-dependent, a few of them might be directly related to how the server was started up. Conditions other than those shown below should be documented with the respective client application.

```
psql: could not connect to server: Connection refused
        Is the server running on host "server.joe.com" and accepting
        TCP/IP connections on port 5432?
```

This is the generic “I couldn’t find a server to talk to” failure. It looks like the above when TCP/IP communication is attempted. A common mistake is to forget to configure the server to allow TCP/IP connections.

Alternatively, you’ll get this when attempting Unix-domain socket communication to a local server:

```
psql: could not connect to server: No such file or directory
        Is the server running locally and accepting
        connections on Unix domain socket "/tmp/.s.PGSQL.5432"?
```

The last line is useful in verifying that the client is trying to connect to the right place. If there is in fact no server running there, the kernel error message will typically be either `Connection refused` or `No such file or directory`, as illustrated. (It is important to realize that `Connection refused` in this context does *not* mean that the server got your connection request and rejected it. That case will produce a different message, as shown in Section 19.3.) Other error messages such as `Connection timed out` may indicate more fundamental problems, like lack of network connectivity.

16.4. Run-time Configuration

There are a lot of configuration parameters that affect the behavior of the database system. In this subsection, we describe how to set configuration parameters; the following subsections discuss each parameter in detail.

All parameter names are case-insensitive. Every parameter takes a value of one of four types: boolean, integer, floating point, or string. Boolean values may be written as `ON`, `OFF`, `TRUE`, `FALSE`, `YES`, `NO`, `1`, `0` (all case-insensitive) or any unambiguous prefix of these.

One way to set these parameters is to edit the file `postgresql.conf`, which is normally kept in the data directory. (`initdb` installs a default copy there.) An example of what this file might look like is:

```
# This is a comment
log_connections = yes
log_destination = 'syslog'
search_path = '$user, public'
```

One parameter is specified per line. The equal sign between name and value is optional. Whitespace is insignificant and blank lines are ignored. Hash marks (`#`) introduce comments anywhere. Parameter values that are not simple identifiers or numbers must be single-quoted.

The configuration file is reread whenever the `postmaster` process receives a `SIGHUP` signal (which is most easily sent by means of `pg_ctl reload`). The `postmaster` also propagates this signal to all currently running server processes so that existing sessions also get the new value. Alternatively, you can send the signal to a single server process directly. Some parameters can only be set at server start; any changes to their entries in the configuration file will be ignored until the server is restarted.

A second way to set these configuration parameters is to give them as a command line option to the `postmaster`, such as:

```
postmaster -c log_connections=yes -c log_destination='syslog'
```

Command-line options override any conflicting settings in `postgresql.conf`. Note that this means you won't be able to change the value on-the-fly by editing `postgresql.conf`, so while the command-line method may be convenient, it can cost you flexibility later.

Occasionally it is useful to give a command line option to one particular session only. The environment variable `PGOPTIONS` can be used for this purpose on the client side:

```
env PGOPTIONS='-c geqo=off' psql
```

(This works for any libpq-based client application, not just `psql`.) Note that this won't work for parameters that are fixed when the server is started or that must be specified in `postgresql.conf`.

Furthermore, it is possible to assign a set of option settings to a user or a database. Whenever a session is started, the default settings for the user and database involved are loaded. The commands `ALTER USER` and `ALTER DATABASE`, respectively, are used to configure these settings. Per-database settings override anything received from the `postmaster` command-line or the configuration file, and in turn are overridden by per-user settings; both are overridden by per-session options.

Some parameters can be changed in individual SQL sessions with the `SET` command, for example:

```
SET ENABLE_SEQSCAN TO OFF;
```

If `SET` is allowed, it overrides all other sources of values for the parameter. Some parameters cannot be changed via `SET`: for example, if they control behavior that cannot reasonably be changed without restarting PostgreSQL. Also, some parameters can be modified via `SET` or `ALTER` by superusers, but not by ordinary users.

The `SHOW` command allows inspection of the current values of all parameters.

The virtual table `pg_settings` (described in Section 41.35) also allows displaying and updating session run-time parameters. It is equivalent to `SHOW` and `SET`, but can be more convenient to use because it can be joined with other tables, or selected from using any desired selection condition.

16.4.1. File Locations

In addition to the `postgresql.conf` file already mentioned, PostgreSQL uses two other manually-edited configuration files, which control client authentication (their use is discussed in Chapter 19). By default, all three configuration files are stored in the database cluster's data directory. The options described in this subsection allow the configuration files to be placed elsewhere. (Doing so can ease administration. In particular it is often easier to ensure that the configuration files are properly backed-up when they are kept separate.)

`data_directory` (string)

Specifies the directory to use for data storage. This option can only be set at server start.

`config_file` (string)

Specifies the main server configuration file (customarily called `postgresql.conf`). This option can only be set on the `postmaster` command line.

`hba_file` (string)

Specifies the configuration file for host-based authentication (customarily called `pg_hba.conf`). This option can only be set at server start.

`ident_file` (string)

Specifies the configuration file for ident authentication (customarily called `pg_ident.conf`). This option can only be set at server start.

`external_pid_file` (string)

Specifies the name of an additional process-id (PID) file that the postmaster should create for use by server administration programs. This option can only be set at server start.

In a default installation, none of the above options are set explicitly. Instead, the data directory is specified by the `-D` command-line option or the `PGDATA` environment variable, and the configuration files are all found within the data directory.

If you wish to keep the configuration files elsewhere than the data directory, the postmaster's `-D` command-line option or `PGDATA` environment variable must point to the directory containing the configuration files, and the `data_directory` option must be set in `postgresql.conf` (or on the command line) to show where the data directory is actually located. Notice that `data_directory` overrides `-D` and `PGDATA` for the location of the data directory, but not for the location of the configuration files.

If you wish, you can specify the configuration file names and locations individually using the options `config_file`, `hba_file` and/or `ident_file`. `config_file` can only be specified on the postmaster command line, but the others can be set within the main configuration file. If all three options plus `data_directory` are explicitly set, then it is not necessary to specify `-D` or `PGDATA`.

When setting any of these options, a relative path will be interpreted with respect to the directory in which the postmaster is started.

16.4.2. Connections and Authentication

16.4.2.1. Connection Settings

`listen_addresses` (string)

Specifies the TCP/IP address(es) on which the server is to listen for connections from client applications. The value takes the form of a comma-separated list of host names and/or numeric IP addresses. The special entry `*` corresponds to all available IP interfaces. If the list is empty, the server does not listen on any IP interface at all, in which case only Unix-domain sockets can be used to connect to it. The default value is `localhost`, which allows only local “loopback” connections to be made. This parameter can only be set at server start.

`port` (integer)

The TCP port the server listens on; 5432 by default. Note that the same port number is used for all IP addresses the server listens on. This parameter can only be set at server start.

`max_connections` (integer)

Determines the maximum number of concurrent connections to the database server. The default is typically 100, but may be less if your kernel settings will not support it (as determined during `initdb`). This parameter can only be set at server start.

Increasing this parameter may cause PostgreSQL to request more System V shared memory or semaphores than your operating system's default configuration allows. See Section 16.5.1 for information on how to adjust those parameters, if necessary.

`superuser_reserved_connections` (integer)

Determines the number of connection “slots” that are reserved for connections by PostgreSQL superusers. At most `max_connections` connections can ever be active simultaneously. Whenever the number of active concurrent connections is at least `max_connections` minus `superuser_reserved_connections`, new connections will be accepted only for superusers.

The default value is 2. The value must be less than the value of `max_connections`. This parameter can only be set at server start.

`unix_socket_directory` (string)

Specifies the directory of the Unix-domain socket on which the server is to listen for connections from client applications. The default is normally `/tmp`, but can be changed at build time. This parameter can only be set at server start.

`unix_socket_group` (string)

Sets the owning group of the Unix-domain socket. (The owning user of the socket is always the user that starts the server.) In combination with the option `unix_socket_permissions` this can be used as an additional access control mechanism for Unix-domain connections. By default this is the empty string, which uses the default group for the current user. This option can only be set at server start.

`unix_socket_permissions` (integer)

Sets the access permissions of the Unix-domain socket. Unix-domain sockets use the usual Unix file system permission set. The option value is expected to be a numeric mode specification in the form accepted by the `chmod` and `umask` system calls. (To use the customary octal format the number must start with a 0 (zero).)

The default permissions are `0777`, meaning anyone can connect. Reasonable alternatives are `0770` (only user and group, see also `unix_socket_group`) and `0700` (only user). (Note that for a Unix-domain socket, only write permission matters and so there is no point in setting or revoking read or execute permissions.)

This access control mechanism is independent of the one described in Chapter 19.

This option can only be set at server start.

`rendezvous_name` (string)

Specifies the Rendezvous broadcast name. By default, the computer name is used, specified as an empty string. This option is ignored if the server was not compiled with Rendezvous support. This option can only be set at server start.

16.4.2.2. Security and Authentication

`authentication_timeout` (integer)

Maximum time to complete client authentication, in seconds. If a would-be client has not completed the authentication protocol in this much time, the server breaks the connection. This prevents hung

clients from occupying a connection indefinitely. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` file. The default is 60.

`ssl` (boolean)

Enables SSL connections. Please read Section 16.7 before using this. The default is off. This parameter can only be set at server start.

`password_encryption` (boolean)

When a password is specified in `CREATE USER` or `ALTER USER` without writing either `ENCRYPTED` or `UNENCRYPTED`, this option determines whether the password is to be encrypted. The default is on (encrypt the password).

`krb_server_keyfile` (string)

Sets the location of the Kerberos server key file. See Section 19.2.3 for details.

`db_user_namespace` (boolean)

This allows per-database user names. It is off by default.

If this is on, you should create users as `username@dbname`. When `username` is passed by a connecting client, `@` and the database name is appended to the user name and that database-specific user name is looked up by the server. Note that when you create users with names containing `@` within the SQL environment, you will need to quote the user name.

With this option enabled, you can still create ordinary global users. Simply append `@` when specifying the user name in the client. The `@` will be stripped off before the user name is looked up by the server.

Note: This feature is intended as a temporary measure until a complete solution is found. At that time, this option will be removed.

16.4.3. Resource Consumption

16.4.3.1. Memory

`shared_buffers` (integer)

Sets the number of shared memory buffers used by the database server. The default is typically 1000, but may be less if your kernel settings will not support it (as determined during `initdb`). Each buffer is 8192 bytes, unless a different value of `BLCKSZ` was chosen when building the server. This setting must be at least 16, as well as at least twice the value of `max_connections`; however, settings significantly higher than the minimum are usually needed for good performance. Values of a few thousand are recommended for production installations. This option can only be set at server start.

Increasing this parameter may cause PostgreSQL to request more System V shared memory than your operating system's default configuration allows. See Section 16.5.1 for information on how to adjust those parameters, if necessary.

`work_mem (integer)`

Specifies the amount of memory to be used by internal sort operations and hash tables before switching to temporary disk files. The value is specified in kilobytes, and defaults to 1024 kilobytes (1 MB). Note that for a complex query, several sort or hash operations might be running in parallel; each one will be allowed to use as much memory as this value specifies before it starts to put data into temporary files. Also, several running sessions could be doing such operations concurrently. So the total memory used could be many times the value of `work_mem`; it is necessary to keep this fact in mind when choosing the value. Sort operations are used for `ORDER BY`, `DISTINCT`, and merge joins. Hash tables are used in hash joins, hash-based aggregation, and hash-based processing of `IN` subqueries.

`maintenance_work_mem (integer)`

Specifies the maximum amount of memory to be used in maintenance operations, such as `VACUUM`, `CREATE INDEX`, and `ALTER TABLE ADD FOREIGN KEY`. The value is specified in kilobytes, and defaults to 16384 kilobytes (16 MB). Since only one of these operations can be executed at a time by a database session, and an installation normally doesn't have very many of them happening concurrently, it's safe to set this value significantly larger than `work_mem`. Larger settings may improve performance for vacuuming and for restoring database dumps.

`max_stack_depth (integer)`

Specifies the maximum safe depth of the server's execution stack. The ideal setting for this parameter is the actual stack size limit enforced by the kernel (as set by `ulimit -s` or local equivalent), less a safety margin of a megabyte or so. The safety margin is needed because the stack depth is not checked in every routine in the server, but only in key potentially-recursive routines such as expression evaluation. Setting the parameter higher than the actual kernel limit will mean that a runaway recursive function can crash an individual backend process. The default setting is 2048 KB (two megabytes), which is conservatively small and unlikely to risk crashes. However, it may be too small to allow execution of complex functions.

16.4.3.2. Free Space Map

`max_fsm_pages (integer)`

Sets the maximum number of disk pages for which free space will be tracked in the shared free-space map. Six bytes of shared memory are consumed for each page slot. This setting must be more than $16 * \text{max_fsm_relations}$. The default is 20000. This option can only be set at server start.

`max_fsm_relations (integer)`

Sets the maximum number of relations (tables and indexes) for which free space will be tracked in the shared free-space map. Roughly fifty bytes of shared memory are consumed for each slot. The default is 1000. This option can only be set at server start.

16.4.3.3. Kernel Resource Usage

`max_files_per_process` (integer)

Sets the maximum number of simultaneously open files allowed to each server subprocess. The default is 1000. If the kernel is enforcing a safe per-process limit, you don't need to worry about this setting. But on some platforms (notably, most BSD systems), the kernel will allow individual processes to open many more files than the system can really support when a large number of processes all try to open that many files. If you find yourself seeing "Too many open files" failures, try reducing this setting. This option can only be set at server start.

`preload_libraries` (string)

This variable specifies one or more shared libraries that are to be preloaded at server start. A parameterless initialization function can optionally be called for each library. To specify that, add a colon and the name of the initialization function after the library name. For example `'$libdir/mylib:mylib_init'` would cause `mylib` to be preloaded and `mylib_init` to be executed. If more than one library is to be loaded, separate their names with commas.

If a specified library or initialization function is not found, the server will fail to start.

PostgreSQL procedural language libraries may be preloaded in this way, typically by using the syntax `'$libdir/plXXX:plXXX_init'` where `XXX` is `pgsql`, `perl`, `tcl`, or `python`.

By preloading a shared library (and initializing it if applicable), the library startup time is avoided when the library is first used. However, the time to start each new server process may increase slightly, even if that process never uses the library. So this option is recommended only for libraries that will be used in most sessions.

16.4.3.4. Cost-Based Vacuum Delay

During the execution of `VACUUM` and `ANALYZE` commands, the system maintains an internal counter that keeps track of the estimated cost of the various I/O operations that are performed. When the accumulated cost reaches a limit (specified by `vacuum_cost_limit`), the process performing the operation will sleep for a while (specified by `vacuum_cost_delay`). Then it will reset the counter and continue execution.

The intent of this feature is to allow administrators to reduce the I/O impact of these commands on concurrent database activity. There are many situations in which it is not very important that maintenance commands like `VACUUM` and `ANALYZE` finish quickly; however, it is usually very important that these commands do not significantly interfere with the ability of the system to perform other database operations. Cost-based vacuum delay provides a way for administrators to achieve this.

This feature is disabled by default. To enable it, set the `vacuum_cost_delay` variable to a nonzero value.

`vacuum_cost_delay` (integer)

The length of time, in milliseconds, that the process will sleep when the cost limit has been exceeded. The default value is 0, which disables the cost-based vacuum delay feature. Positive values enable cost-based vacuuming. Note that on many systems, the effective resolution of sleep delays is 10 milliseconds; setting `vacuum_cost_delay` to a value that is not a multiple of 10 may have the same results as setting it to the next higher multiple of 10.

`vacuum_cost_page_hit` (integer)

The estimated cost for vacuuming a buffer found in the shared buffer cache. It represents the cost to lock the buffer pool, lookup the shared hash table and scan the content of the page. The default value is 1.

`vacuum_cost_page_miss` (integer)

The estimated cost for vacuuming a buffer that has to be read from disk. This represents the effort to lock the buffer pool, lookup the shared hash table, read the desired block in from the disk and scan its content. The default value is 10.

`vacuum_cost_page_dirty` (integer)

The estimated cost charged when vacuum modifies a block that was previously clean. It represents the extra I/O required to flush the dirty block out to disk again. The default value is 20.

`vacuum_cost_limit` (integer)

The accumulated cost that will cause the vacuuming process to sleep. The default value is 200.

Note: There are certain operations that hold critical locks and should therefore complete as quickly as possible. Cost-based vacuum delays do not occur during such operations. Therefore it is possible that the cost accumulates far higher than the specified limit. To avoid uselessly long delays in such cases, the actual delay is calculated as $\text{vacuum_cost_delay} * \text{accumulated_balance} / \text{vacuum_cost_limit}$ with a maximum of $\text{vacuum_cost_delay} * 4$.

16.4.3.5. Background Writer

Beginning in PostgreSQL 8.0, there is a separate server process called the *background writer*, whose sole function is to issue writes of “dirty” shared buffers. The intent is that server processes handling user queries should seldom or never have to wait for a write to occur, because the background writer will do it. This arrangement also reduces the performance penalty associated with checkpoints. The background writer will continuously trickle out dirty pages to disk, so that only a few pages will need to be forced out when checkpoint time arrives, instead of the storm of dirty-buffer writes that formerly occurred at each checkpoint. However there is a net overall increase in I/O load, because where a repeatedly-dirtied page might before have been written only once per checkpoint interval, the background writer might write it several times in the same interval. In most situations a continuous low load is preferable to periodic spikes, but the parameters discussed in this section can be used to tune the behavior for local needs.

`bgwriter_delay` (integer)

Specifies the delay between activity rounds for the background writer. In each round the writer issues writes for some number of dirty buffers (controllable by the following parameters). The selected buffers will always be the least recently used ones among the currently dirty buffers. It then sleeps for `bgwriter_delay` milliseconds, and repeats. The default value is 200. Note that on many systems, the effective resolution of sleep delays is 10 milliseconds; setting `bgwriter_delay` to a value that is not a multiple of 10 may have the same results as setting it to the next higher multiple of 10. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` file.

`bgwriter_percent` (integer)

In each round, no more than this percentage of the currently dirty buffers will be written (rounding up any fraction to the next whole number of buffers). The default value is 1. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` file.

`bgwriter_maxpages` (integer)

In each round, no more than this many dirty buffers will be written. The default value is 100. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` file.

Smaller values of `bgwriter_percent` and `bgwriter_maxpages` reduce the extra I/O load caused by the background writer, but leave more work to be done at checkpoint time. To reduce load spikes at checkpoints, increase the values. To disable background writing entirely, set `bgwriter_percent` and/or `bgwriter_maxpages` to zero.

16.4.4. Write Ahead Log

See also Section 25.2 for details on WAL tuning.

16.4.4.1. Settings

`fsync` (boolean)

If this option is on, the PostgreSQL server will use the `fsync()` system call in several places to make sure that updates are physically written to disk. This insures that a database cluster will recover to a consistent state after an operating system or hardware crash.

However, using `fsync()` results in a performance penalty: when a transaction is committed, PostgreSQL must wait for the operating system to flush the write-ahead log to disk. When `fsync` is disabled, the operating system is allowed to do its best in buffering, ordering, and delaying writes. This can result in significantly improved performance. However, if the system crashes, the results of the last few committed transactions may be lost in part or whole. In the worst case, unrecoverable data corruption may occur. (Crashes of the database server itself are *not* a risk factor here. Only an operating-system-level crash creates a risk of corruption.)

Due to the risks involved, there is no universally correct setting for `fsync`. Some administrators always disable `fsync`, while others only turn it off for bulk loads, where there is a clear restart point if something goes wrong, whereas some administrators always leave `fsync` enabled. The default is to enable `fsync`, for maximum reliability. If you trust your operating system, your hardware, and your utility company (or your battery backup), you can consider disabling `fsync`.

This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` file.

`wal_sync_method` (string)

Method used for forcing WAL updates out to disk. Possible values are `fsync` (call `fsync()` at each commit), `fdatasync` (call `fdatasync()` at each commit), `open_sync` (write WAL files with `open()` option `O_SYNC`), and `open_dasync` (write WAL files with `open()` option `O_DSYNC`). Not all of these choices are available on all platforms. If `fsync` is off then this setting is irrelevant. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` file.

`wal_buffers (integer)`

Number of disk-page buffers allocated in shared memory for WAL data. The default is 8. The setting need only be large enough to hold the amount of WAL data generated by one typical transaction. This option can only be set at server start.

`commit_delay (integer)`

Time delay between writing a commit record to the WAL buffer and flushing the buffer out to disk, in microseconds. A nonzero delay can allow multiple transactions to be committed with only one `fsync()` system call, if system load is high enough that additional transactions become ready to commit within the given interval. But the delay is just wasted if no other transactions become ready to commit. Therefore, the delay is only performed if at least `commit_siblings` other transactions are active at the instant that a server process has written its commit record. The default is zero (no delay).

`commit_siblings (integer)`

Minimum number of concurrent open transactions to require before performing the `commit_delay` delay. A larger value makes it more probable that at least one other transaction will become ready to commit during the delay interval. The default is five.

16.4.4.2. Checkpoints

`checkpoint_segments (integer)`

Maximum distance between automatic WAL checkpoints, in log file segments (each segment is normally 16 megabytes). The default is three. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` file.

`checkpoint_timeout (integer)`

Maximum time between automatic WAL checkpoints, in seconds. The default is 300 seconds. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` file.

`checkpoint_warning (integer)`

Write a message to the server log if checkpoints caused by the filling of checkpoint segment files happen closer together than this many seconds. The default is 30 seconds. Zero turns off the warning.

16.4.4.3. Archiving

`archive_command (string)`

The shell command to execute to archive a completed segment of the WAL file series. If this is an empty string (the default), WAL archiving is disabled. Any `%p` in the string is replaced by the absolute path of the file to archive, and any `%f` is replaced by the file name only. Use `%%` to embed an actual `%` character in the command. For more information see Section 22.3.1. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` file.

It is important for the command to return a zero exit status if and only if it succeeds. Examples:

```
archive_command = 'cp "%p" /mnt/server/archivedir/"%f" '
archive_command = 'copy "%p" /mnt/server/archivedir/"%f" ' # Windows
```

16.4.5. Query Planning

16.4.5.1. Planner Method Configuration

These configuration parameters provide a crude method of influencing the query plans chosen by the query optimizer. If the default plan chosen by the optimizer for a particular query is not optimal, a temporary solution may be found by using one of these configuration parameters to force the optimizer to choose a different plan. Turning one of these settings off permanently is seldom a good idea, however. Better ways to improve the quality of the plans chosen by the optimizer include adjusting the *Planner Cost Constants*, running *ANALYZE* more frequently, increasing the value of the `default_statistics_target` configuration parameter, and increasing the amount of statistics collected for specific columns using `ALTER TABLE SET STATISTICS`.

`enable_hashagg` (boolean)

Enables or disables the query planner's use of hashed aggregation plan types. The default is on.

`enable_hashjoin` (boolean)

Enables or disables the query planner's use of hash-join plan types. The default is on.

`enable_indexscan` (boolean)

Enables or disables the query planner's use of index-scan plan types. The default is on.

`enable_mergejoin` (boolean)

Enables or disables the query planner's use of merge-join plan types. The default is on.

`enable_nestloop` (boolean)

Enables or disables the query planner's use of nested-loop join plans. It's not possible to suppress nested-loop joins entirely, but turning this variable off discourages the planner from using one if there are other methods available. The default is on.

`enable_seqscan` (boolean)

Enables or disables the query planner's use of sequential scan plan types. It's not possible to suppress sequential scans entirely, but turning this variable off discourages the planner from using one if there are other methods available. The default is on.

`enable_sort` (boolean)

Enables or disables the query planner's use of explicit sort steps. It's not possible to suppress explicit sorts entirely, but turning this variable off discourages the planner from using one if there are other methods available. The default is on.

`enable_tidscan` (boolean)

Enables or disables the query planner's use of TID scan plan types. The default is on.

16.4.5.2. Planner Cost Constants

Note: Unfortunately, there is no well-defined method for determining ideal values for the family of “cost” variables that appear below. You are encouraged to experiment and share your findings.

`effective_cache_size` (floating point)

Sets the planner's assumption about the effective size of the disk cache that is available to a single index scan. This is factored into estimates of the cost of using an index; a higher value makes it more likely index scans will be used, a lower value makes it more likely sequential scans will be used. When setting this parameter you should consider both PostgreSQL's shared buffers and the portion of the kernel's disk cache that will be used for PostgreSQL data files. Also, take into account the expected number of concurrent queries using different indexes, since they will have to share the available space. This parameter has no effect on the size of shared memory allocated by PostgreSQL, nor does it reserve kernel disk cache; it is used only for estimation purposes. The value is measured in disk pages, which are normally 8192 bytes each. The default is 1000.

`random_page_cost` (floating point)

Sets the planner's estimate of the cost of a nonsequentially fetched disk page. This is measured as a multiple of the cost of a sequential page fetch. A higher value makes it more likely a sequential scan will be used, a lower value makes it more likely an index scan will be used. The default is four.

`cpu_tuple_cost` (floating point)

Sets the planner's estimate of the cost of processing each row during a query. This is measured as a fraction of the cost of a sequential page fetch. The default is 0.01.

`cpu_index_tuple_cost` (floating point)

Sets the planner's estimate of the cost of processing each index row during an index scan. This is measured as a fraction of the cost of a sequential page fetch. The default is 0.001.

`cpu_operator_cost` (floating point)

Sets the planner's estimate of the cost of processing each operator in a `WHERE` clause. This is measured as a fraction of the cost of a sequential page fetch. The default is 0.0025.

16.4.5.3. Genetic Query Optimizer

`geqo` (boolean)

Enables or disables genetic query optimization, which is an algorithm that attempts to do query planning without exhaustive searching. This is on by default. The `geqo_threshold` variable provides a

more granular way to disable GEQO for certain classes of queries.

`geqo_threshold` (integer)

Use genetic query optimization to plan queries with at least this many `FROM` items involved. (Note that an outer `JOIN` construct counts as only one `FROM` item.) The default is 12. For simpler queries it is usually best to use the deterministic, exhaustive planner, but for queries with many tables the deterministic planner takes too long.

`geqo_effort` (integer)

Controls the trade off between planning time and query plan efficiency in GEQO. This variable must be an integer in the range from 1 to 10. The default value is 5. Larger values increase the time spent doing query planning, but also increase the likelihood that an efficient query plan will be chosen.

`geqo_effort` doesn't actually do anything directly; it is only used to compute the default values for the other variables that influence GEQO behavior (described below). If you prefer, you can set the other parameters by hand instead.

`geqo_pool_size` (integer)

Controls the pool size used by GEQO. The pool size is the number of individuals in the genetic population. It must be at least two, and useful values are typically 100 to 1000. If it is set to zero (the default setting) then a suitable default is chosen based on `geqo_effort` and the number of tables in the query.

`geqo_generations` (integer)

Controls the number of generations used by GEQO. `Generations` specifies the number of iterations of the algorithm. It must be at least one, and useful values are in the same range as the pool size. If it is set to zero (the default setting) then a suitable default is chosen based on `geqo_pool_size`.

`geqo_selection_bias` (floating point)

Controls the selection bias used by GEQO. The selection bias is the selective pressure within the population. Values can be from 1.50 to 2.00; the latter is the default.

16.4.5.4. Other Planner Options

`default_statistics_target` (integer)

Sets the default statistics target for table columns that have not had a column-specific target set via `ALTER TABLE SET STATISTICS`. Larger values increase the time needed to do `ANALYZE`, but may improve the quality of the planner's estimates. The default is 10. For more information on the use of statistics by the PostgreSQL query planner, refer to Section 13.2.

`from_collapse_limit` (integer)

The planner will merge sub-queries into upper queries if the resulting `FROM` list would have no more than this many items. Smaller values reduce planning time but may yield inferior query plans. The default is 8. It is usually wise to keep this less than `geqo_threshold`.

`join_collapse_limit` (integer)

The planner will rewrite explicit inner `JOIN` constructs into lists of `FROM` items whenever a list of no more than this many items in total would result. Prior to PostgreSQL 7.4, joins specified via the

`JOIN` construct would never be reordered by the query planner. The query planner has subsequently been improved so that inner joins written in this form can be reordered; this configuration parameter controls the extent to which this reordering is performed.

Note: At present, the order of outer joins specified via the `JOIN` construct is never adjusted by the query planner; therefore, `join_collapse_limit` has no effect on this behavior. The planner may be improved to reorder some classes of outer joins in a future release of PostgreSQL.

By default, this variable is set the same as `from_collapse_limit`, which is appropriate for most uses. Setting it to 1 prevents any reordering of inner `JOINS`. Thus, the explicit join order specified in the query will be the actual order in which the relations are joined. The query planner does not always choose the optimal join order; advanced users may elect to temporarily set this variable to 1, and then specify the join order they desire explicitly. Another consequence of setting this variable to 1 is that the query planner will behave more like the PostgreSQL 7.3 query planner, which some users might find useful for backward compatibility reasons.

Setting this variable to a value between 1 and `from_collapse_limit` might be useful to trade off planning time against the quality of the chosen plan (higher values produce better plans).

16.4.6. Error Reporting and Logging

16.4.6.1. Where to log

`log_destination` (string)

PostgreSQL supports several methods for logging server messages, including `stderr` and `syslog`. On Windows, `eventlog` is also supported. Set this option to a list of desired log destinations separated by commas. The default is to log to `stderr` only. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

`redirect_stderr` (boolean)

This option allows messages sent to `stderr` to be captured and redirected into log files. This option, in combination with logging to `stderr`, is often more useful than logging to `syslog`, since some types of messages may not appear in `syslog` output (a common example is dynamic-linker failure messages). This option can only be set at server start.

`log_directory` (string)

When `redirect_stderr` is enabled, this option determines the directory in which log files will be created. It may be specified as an absolute path, or relative to the cluster data directory. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

`log_filename` (string)

When `redirect_stderr` is enabled, this option sets the file names of the created log files. The value is treated as a strftime pattern, so `%`-escapes can be used to specify time-varying file

names. If no %-escapes are present, PostgreSQL will append the epoch of the new log file's open time. For example, if `log_filename` were `server_log`, then the chosen file name would be `server_log.1093827753` for a log starting at Sun Aug 29 19:02:33 2004 MST. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

`log_rotation_age` (integer)

When `redirect_stderr` is enabled, this option determines the maximum lifetime of an individual log file. After this many minutes have elapsed, a new log file will be created. Set to zero to disable time-based creation of new log files. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

`log_rotation_size` (integer)

When `redirect_stderr` is enabled, this option determines the maximum size of an individual log file. After this many kilobytes have been emitted into a log file, a new log file will be created. Set to zero to disable size-based creation of new log files. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

`log_truncate_on_rotation` (boolean)

When `redirect_stderr` is enabled, this option will cause PostgreSQL to truncate (overwrite), rather than append to, any existing log file of the same name. However, truncation will occur only when a new file is being opened due to time-based rotation, not during server startup or size-based rotation. When false, pre-existing files will be appended to in all cases. For example, using this option in combination with a `log_filename` like `postgresql-%H.log` would result in generating twenty-four hourly log files and then cyclically overwriting them. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

Example: To keep 7 days of logs, one log file per day named `server_log.Mon`, `server_log.Tue`, etc, and automatically overwrite last week's log with this week's log, set `log_filename` to `server_log.%a`, `log_truncate_on_rotation` to true, and `log_rotation_age` to 1440.

Example: To keep 24 hours of logs, one log file per hour, but also rotate sooner if the log file size exceeds 1GB, set `log_filename` to `server_log.%H%M`, `log_truncate_on_rotation` to true, `log_rotation_age` to 60, and `log_rotation_size` to 1000000. Including %M in `log_filename` allows any size-driven rotations that may occur to select a filename different from the hour's initial filename.

`syslog_facility` (string)

When logging to syslog is enabled, this option determines the syslog "facility" to be used. You may choose from LOCAL0, LOCAL1, LOCAL2, LOCAL3, LOCAL4, LOCAL5, LOCAL6, LOCAL7; the default is LOCAL0. See also the documentation of your system's syslog daemon. This option can only be set at server start.

`syslog_ident` (string)

When logging to syslog is enabled, this option determines the program name used to identify PostgreSQL messages in syslog logs. The default is `postgres`. This option can only be set at server start.

16.4.6.2. When To Log`client_min_messages (string)`

Controls which message levels are sent to the client. Valid values are `DEBUG5`, `DEBUG4`, `DEBUG3`, `DEBUG2`, `DEBUG1`, `LOG`, `NOTICE`, `WARNING`, and `ERROR`. Each level includes all the levels that follow it. The later the level, the fewer messages are sent. The default is `NOTICE`. Note that `LOG` has a different rank here than in `log_min_messages`.

`log_min_messages (string)`

Controls which message levels are written to the server log. Valid values are `DEBUG5`, `DEBUG4`, `DEBUG3`, `DEBUG2`, `DEBUG1`, `INFO`, `NOTICE`, `WARNING`, `ERROR`, `LOG`, `FATAL`, and `PANIC`. Each level includes all the levels that follow it. The later the level, the fewer messages are sent to the log. The default is `NOTICE`. Note that `LOG` has a different rank here than in `client_min_messages`. Only superusers can change this setting.

`log_error_verbosity (string)`

Controls the amount of detail written in the server log for each message that is logged. Valid values are `TERSE`, `DEFAULT`, and `VERBOSE`, each adding more fields to displayed messages. Only superusers can change this setting.

`log_min_error_statement (string)`

Controls whether or not the SQL statement that causes an error condition will also be recorded in the server log. All SQL statements that cause an error of the specified level or higher are logged. The default is `PANIC` (effectively turning this feature off for normal use). Valid values are `DEBUG5`, `DEBUG4`, `DEBUG3`, `DEBUG2`, `DEBUG1`, `INFO`, `NOTICE`, `WARNING`, `ERROR`, `FATAL`, and `PANIC`. For example, if you set this to `ERROR` then all SQL statements causing errors, fatal errors, or panics will be logged. Enabling this option can be helpful in tracking down the source of any errors that appear in the server log. Only superusers can change this setting.

`log_min_duration_statement (integer)`

Sets a minimum statement execution time (in milliseconds) that causes a statement to be logged. All SQL statements that run for the time specified or longer will be logged with their duration. Setting this to zero will print all queries and their durations. Minus-one (the default) disables the feature. For example, if you set it to 250 then all SQL statements that run 250ms or longer will be logged. Enabling this option can be useful in tracking down unoptimized queries in your applications. Only superusers can change this setting.

`silent_mode (boolean)`

Runs the server silently. If this option is set, the server will automatically run in background and any controlling terminals are disassociated (same effect as `postmaster`'s `-s` option). The server's standard output and standard error are redirected to `/dev/null`, so any messages sent to them will be lost. Unless `syslog` logging is selected or `redirect_stderr` is enabled, using this option is discouraged because it makes it impossible to see error messages.

Here is a list of the various message severity levels used in these settings:

`DEBUG[1-5]`

Provides information for use by developers.

INFO

Provides information implicitly requested by the user, e.g., during `VACUUM VERBOSE`.

NOTICE

Provides information that may be helpful to users, e.g., truncation of long identifiers and the creation of indexes as part of primary keys.

WARNING

Provides warnings to the user, e.g., `COMMIT` outside a transaction block.

ERROR

Reports an error that caused the current command to abort.

LOG

Reports information of interest to administrators, e.g., checkpoint activity.

FATAL

Reports an error that caused the current session to abort.

PANIC

Reports an error that caused all sessions to abort.

16.4.6.3. What To Log

`debug_print_parse` (boolean)

`debug_print_rewritten` (boolean)

`debug_print_plan` (boolean)

`debug_pretty_print` (boolean)

These options enable various debugging output to be emitted. For each executed query, they print the resulting parse tree, the query rewriter output, or the execution plan. `debug_pretty_print` indents these displays to produce a more readable but much longer output format. `client_min_messages` or `log_min_messages` must be `DEBUG1` or lower to actually send this output to the client or the server log, respectively. These options are off by default.

`log_connections` (boolean)

This outputs a line to the server log detailing each successful connection. This is off by default, although it is probably very useful. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

`log_disconnections` (boolean)

This outputs a line in the server log similar to `log_connections` but at session termination, and includes the duration of the session. This is off by default. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

`log_duration` (boolean)

Causes the duration of every completed statement which satisfies `log_statement` to be logged. When using this option, if you are not using `syslog`, it is recommended that you log the PID or session ID using `log_line_prefix` so that you can link the statement to the duration using the process ID or session ID. The default is off. Only superusers can change this setting.

`log_line_prefix` (string)

This is a `printf`-style string that is output at the beginning of each log line. The default is an empty string. Each recognized escape is replaced as outlined below - anything else that looks like an escape is ignored. Other characters are copied straight to the log line. Some escapes are only recognised by session processes, and do not apply to background processes such as the postmaster. `syslog` produces its own time stamp and process ID information, so you probably do not want to use those escapes if you are using `syslog`. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

Escape	Effect	Session only
<code>%u</code>	User name	yes
<code>%d</code>	Database name	yes
<code>%r</code>	Remote host name or IP address, and remote port	yes
<code>%p</code>	Process ID	no
<code>%t</code>	Time stamp	no
<code>%i</code>	Command tag: This is the command that generated the log line.	yes
<code>%c</code>	Session ID: A unique identifier for each session. It is 2 4-byte hexadecimal numbers (without leading zeros) separated by a dot. The numbers are the session start time and the process ID, so this can also be used as a space saving way of printing these items.	yes
<code>%l</code>	Number of the log line for each process, starting at 1	no
<code>%s</code>	Session start time stamp	yes
<code>%x</code>	Transaction ID	yes
<code>%q</code>	Does not produce any output, but tells non-session processes to stop at this point in the string. Ignored by session processes.	no
<code>%%</code>	Literal %	no

`log_statement` (string)

Controls which SQL statements are logged. Valid values are `none`, `ddl`, `mod`, and `all`. `ddl` logs all data definition commands like `CREATE`, `ALTER`, and `DROP` commands. `mod` logs all `ddl` statements, plus `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, `TRUNCATE`, and `COPY FROM`. `PREPARE` and `EXPLAIN ANALYZE` statements are also logged if their contained command is of an appropriate type.

The default is `none`. Only superusers can change this setting.

Note: The `EXECUTE` statement is not considered a `ddl` or `mod` statement. When it is logged, only the name of the prepared statement is reported, not the actual prepared statement.

When a function is defined in the PL/pgSQL server-side language, any queries executed by the function will only be logged the first time that the function is invoked in a particular session. This is because PL/pgSQL keeps a cache of the query plans produced for the SQL statements in the function.

`log_hostname` (boolean)

By default, connection log messages only show the IP address of the connecting host. Turning on this option causes logging of the host name as well. Note that depending on your host name resolution setup this might impose a non-negligible performance penalty. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` file.

16.4.7. Runtime Statistics

16.4.7.1. Statistics Monitoring

`log_statement_stats` (boolean)

`log_parser_stats` (boolean)

`log_planner_stats` (boolean)

`log_executor_stats` (boolean)

For each query, write performance statistics of the respective module to the server log. This is a crude profiling instrument. `log_statement_stats` reports total statement statistics, while the others report per-module statistics. `log_statement_stats` cannot be enabled together with any of the per-module options. All of these options are disabled by default. Only superusers can change these settings.

16.4.7.2. Query and Index Statistics Collector

`stats_start_collector` (boolean)

Controls whether the server should start the statistics-collection subprocess. This is on by default, but may be turned off if you know you have no interest in collecting statistics. This option can only

be set at server start.

`stats_command_string` (boolean)

Enables the collection of statistics on the currently executing command of each session, along with the time at which that command began execution. This option is off by default. Note that even when enabled, this information is not visible to all users, only to superusers and the user owning the session being reported on; so it should not represent a security risk. This data can be accessed via the `pg_stat_activity` system view; refer to Chapter 23 for more information.

`stats_block_level` (boolean)

Enables the collection of block-level statistics on database activity. This option is disabled by default. If this option is enabled, the data that is produced can be accessed via the `pg_stat` and `pg_statio` family of system views; refer to Chapter 23 for more information.

`stats_row_level` (boolean)

Enables the collection of row-level statistics on database activity. This option is disabled by default. If this option is enabled, the data that is produced can be accessed via the `pg_stat` and `pg_statio` family of system views; refer to Chapter 23 for more information.

`stats_reset_on_server_start` (boolean)

If on, collected statistics are zeroed out whenever the server is restarted. If off, statistics are accumulated across server restarts. The default is on. This option can only be set at server start.

16.4.8. Client Connection Defaults

16.4.8.1. Statement Behavior

`search_path` (string)

This variable specifies the order in which schemas are searched when an object (table, data type, function, etc.) is referenced by a simple name with no schema component. When there are objects of identical names in different schemas, the one found first in the search path is used. An object that is not in any of the schemas in the search path can only be referenced by specifying its containing schema with a qualified (dotted) name.

The value for `search_path` has to be a comma-separated list of schema names. If one of the list items is the special value `$user`, then the schema having the name returned by `SESSION_USER` is substituted, if there is such a schema. (If not, `$user` is ignored.)

The system catalog schema, `pg_catalog`, is always searched, whether it is mentioned in the path or not. If it is mentioned in the path then it will be searched in the specified order. If `pg_catalog` is not in the path then it will be searched *before* searching any of the path items. It should also be noted that the temporary-table schema, `pg_temp_nnn`, is implicitly searched before any of these.

When objects are created without specifying a particular target schema, they will be placed in the first schema listed in the search path. An error is reported if the search path is empty.

The default value for this parameter is `'$user, public'` (where the second part will be ignored if there is no schema named `public`). This supports shared use of a database (where no users have private schemas, and all share use of `public`), private per-user schemas, and combinations of these. Other effects can be obtained by altering the default search path setting, either globally or per-user.

The current effective value of the search path can be examined via the SQL function `current_schemas()`. This is not quite the same as examining the value of `search_path`, since `current_schemas()` shows how the requests appearing in `search_path` were resolved.

For more information on schema handling, see Section 5.8.

`default_tablespace (string)`

This variable specifies the default tablespace in which to create objects (tables and indexes) when a `CREATE` command does not explicitly specify a tablespace.

The value is either the name of a tablespace, or an empty string to specify using the default tablespace of the current database. If the value does not match the name of any existing tablespace, PostgreSQL will automatically use the default tablespace of the current database.

For more information on tablespaces, see Section 18.6.

`check_function_bodies (boolean)`

This parameter is normally true. When set to false, it disables validation of the function body string during `CREATE FUNCTION`. Disabling validation is occasionally useful to avoid problems such as forward references when restoring function definitions from a dump.

`default_transaction_isolation (string)`

Each SQL transaction has an isolation level, which can be either “read uncommitted”, “read committed”, “repeatable read”, or “serializable”. This parameter controls the default isolation level of each new transaction. The default is “read committed”.

Consult Chapter 12 and `SET TRANSACTION` for more information.

`default_transaction_read_only (boolean)`

A read-only SQL transaction cannot alter non-temporary tables. This parameter controls the default read-only status of each new transaction. The default is false (read/write).

Consult `SET TRANSACTION` for more information.

`statement_timeout (integer)`

Abort any statement that takes over the specified number of milliseconds. A value of zero (the default) turns off the limitation.

16.4.8.2. Locale and Formatting

`DateStyle (string)`

Sets the display format for date and time values, as well as the rules for interpreting ambiguous date input values. For historical reasons, this variable contains two independent components: the output format specification (`ISO`, `Postgres`, `SQL`, or `German`) and the input/output specification for year/month/day ordering (`DMY`, `MDY`, or `YMD`). These can be set separately or together. The keywords

Euro and European are synonyms for DMY; the keywords US, NonEuro, and NonEuropean are synonyms for MDY. See Section 8.5 for more information. The default is ISO, MDY.

`timezone` (string)

Sets the time zone for displaying and interpreting time stamps. The default is 'unknown', which means to use whatever the system environment specifies as the time zone. See Section 8.5 for more information.

`australian_timezones` (boolean)

If set to true, ACST, CST, EST, and SAT are interpreted as Australian time zones rather than as North/South American time zones and Saturday. The default is false.

`extra_float_digits` (integer)

This parameter adjusts the number of digits displayed for floating-point values, including `float4`, `float8`, and geometric data types. The parameter value is added to the standard number of digits (`FLT_DIG` or `DBL_DIG` as appropriate). The value can be set as high as 2, to include partially-significant digits; this is especially useful for dumping float data that needs to be restored exactly. Or it can be set negative to suppress unwanted digits.

`client_encoding` (string)

Sets the client-side encoding (character set). The default is to use the database encoding.

`lc_messages` (string)

Sets the language in which messages are displayed. Acceptable values are system-dependent; see Section 20.1 for more information. If this variable is set to the empty string (which is the default) then the value is inherited from the execution environment of the server in a system-dependent way.

On some systems, this locale category does not exist. Setting this variable will still work, but there will be no effect. Also, there is a chance that no translated messages for the desired language exist. In that case you will continue to see the English messages.

`lc_monetary` (string)

Sets the locale to use for formatting monetary amounts, for example with the `to_char` family of functions. Acceptable values are system-dependent; see Section 20.1 for more information. If this variable is set to the empty string (which is the default) then the value is inherited from the execution environment of the server in a system-dependent way.

`lc_numeric` (string)

Sets the locale to use for formatting numbers, for example with the `to_char` family of functions. Acceptable values are system-dependent; see Section 20.1 for more information. If this variable is set to the empty string (which is the default) then the value is inherited from the execution environment of the server in a system-dependent way.

`lc_time` (string)

Sets the locale to use for formatting date and time values. (Currently, this setting does nothing, but it may in the future.) Acceptable values are system-dependent; see Section 20.1 for more information. If this variable is set to the empty string (which is the default) then the value is inherited from the execution environment of the server in a system-dependent way.

16.4.8.3. Other Defaults

`explain_pretty_print` (boolean)

Determines whether `EXPLAIN VERBOSE` uses the indented or non-indented format for displaying detailed query-tree dumps. The default is on.

`dynamic_library_path` (string)

If a dynamically loadable module needs to be opened and the file name specified in the `CREATE FUNCTION` or `LOAD` command does not have a directory component (i.e. the name does not contain a slash), the system will search this path for the required file.

The value for `dynamic_library_path` has to be a list of absolute directory paths separated by colons (or semi-colons on Windows). If a list element starts with the special string `$libdir`, the compiled-in PostgreSQL package library directory is substituted for `$libdir`. This is where the modules provided by the standard PostgreSQL distribution are installed. (Use `pg_config --pkglibdir` to find out the name of this directory.) For example:

```
dynamic_library_path = '/usr/local/lib/postgresql:/home/my_project/lib:$libdir'
```

or, in a Windows environment:

```
dynamic_library_path = 'C:\tools\postgresql;H:\my_project\lib;$libdir'
```

The default value for this parameter is `'$libdir'`. If the value is set to an empty string, the automatic path search is turned off.

This parameter can be changed at run time by superusers, but a setting done that way will only persist until the end of the client connection, so this method should be reserved for development purposes. The recommended way to set this parameter is in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

16.4.9. Lock Management

`deadlock_timeout` (integer)

This is the amount of time, in milliseconds, to wait on a lock before checking to see if there is a deadlock condition. The check for deadlock is relatively slow, so the server doesn't run it every time it waits for a lock. We (optimistically?) assume that deadlocks are not common in production applications and just wait on the lock for a while before starting the check for a deadlock. Increasing this value reduces the amount of time wasted in needless deadlock checks, but slows down reporting of real deadlock errors. The default is 1000 (i.e., one second), which is probably about the smallest value you would want in practice. On a heavily loaded server you might want to raise it. Ideally the setting should exceed your typical transaction time, so as to improve the odds that a lock will be released before the waiter decides to check for deadlock.

`max_locks_per_transaction` (integer)

The shared lock table is sized on the assumption that at most `max_locks_per_transaction * max_connections` distinct objects will need to be locked at any one time. (Thus, this parameter's name may be confusing: it is not a hard limit on the number of locks taken by any one transaction, but

rather a maximum average value.) The default, 64, has historically proven sufficient, but you might need to raise this value if you have clients that touch many different tables in a single transaction. This option can only be set at server start.

16.4.10. Version and Platform Compatibility

16.4.10.1. Previous PostgreSQL Versions

`add_missing_from` (boolean)

When `true`, tables that are referenced by a query will be automatically added to the `FROM` clause if not already present. The default is `true` for compatibility with previous releases of PostgreSQL. However, this behavior is not SQL-standard, and many people dislike it because it can mask mistakes (such as referencing a table where you should have referenced its alias). Set to `false` for the SQL-standard behavior of rejecting references to tables that are not listed in `FROM`.

`regex_flavor` (string)

The regular expression “flavor” can be set to `advanced`, `extended`, or `basic`. The default is `advanced`. The `extended` setting may be useful for exact backwards compatibility with pre-7.4 releases of PostgreSQL. See Section 9.7.3.1 for details.

`sql_inheritance` (boolean)

This controls the inheritance semantics, in particular whether subtables are included by various commands by default. They were not included in versions prior to 7.1. If you need the old behavior you can set this variable to `off`, but in the long run you are encouraged to change your applications to use the `ONLY` key word to exclude subtables. See Section 5.5 for more information about inheritance.

`default_with_oids` (boolean)

This controls whether `CREATE TABLE` and `CREATE TABLE AS` include an `OID` column in newly-created tables, if neither `WITH OIDS` nor `WITHOUT OIDS` is specified. It also determines whether `OIDs` will be included in tables created by `SELECT INTO`. In PostgreSQL 8.0.0 `default_with_oids` defaults to `true`. This is also the behavior of previous versions of PostgreSQL. However, assuming that tables will contain `OIDs` by default is not encouraged. This option will probably default to `false` in a future release of PostgreSQL.

To ease compatibility with applications that make use of `OIDs`, this option should left enabled. To ease compatibility with future versions of PostgreSQL, this option should be disabled, and applications that require `OIDs` on certain tables should explicitly specify `WITH OIDS` when those tables are created.

16.4.10.2. Platform and Client Compatibility

`transform_null_equals` (boolean)

When turned on, expressions of the form `expr = NULL` (or `NULL = expr`) are treated as `expr IS NULL`, that is, they return `true` if `expr` evaluates to the null value, and `false` otherwise. The correct

SQL-spec-compliant behavior of `expr = NULL` is to always return null (unknown). Therefore this option defaults to off.

However, filtered forms in Microsoft Access generate queries that appear to use `expr = NULL` to test for null values, so if you use that interface to access the database you might want to turn this option on. Since expressions of the form `expr = NULL` always return the null value (using the correct interpretation) they are not very useful and do not appear often in normal applications, so this option does little harm in practice. But new users are frequently confused about the semantics of expressions involving null values, so this option is not on by default.

Note that this option only affects the exact form `= NULL`, not other comparison operators or other expressions that are computationally equivalent to some expression involving the equals operator (such as `IN`). Thus, this option is not a general fix for bad programming.

Refer to Section 9.2 for related information.

16.4.11. Preset Options

The following “parameters” are read-only, and are determined when PostgreSQL is compiled or when it is installed. As such, they have been excluded from the sample `postgresql.conf` file. These options report various aspects of PostgreSQL behavior that may be of interest to certain applications, particularly administrative front-ends.

`block_size` (integer)

Shows the size of a disk block. It is determined by the value of `BLCKSZ` when building the server. The default value is 8192 bytes. The meaning of some configuration variables (such as `shared_buffers`) is influenced by `block_size`. See Section 16.4.3 for information.

`integer_datetimes` (boolean)

Shows whether PostgreSQL was built with support for 64-bit-integer dates and times. It is set by configuring with `--enable-integer-datetimes` when building PostgreSQL. The default value is off.

`lc_collate` (string)

Shows the locale in which sorting of textual data is done. See Section 20.1 for more information. The value is determined when the database cluster is initialized.

`lc_ctype` (string)

Shows the locale that determines character classifications. See Section 20.1 for more information. The value is determined when the database cluster is initialized. Ordinarily this will be the same as `lc_collate`, but for special applications it might be set differently.

`max_function_args` (integer)

Shows the maximum number of function arguments. It is determined by the value of `FUNC_MAX_ARGS` when building the server. The default value is 32.

`max_identifier_length` (integer)

Shows the maximum identifier length. It is determined as one less than the value of `NAMEDATALEN` when building the server. The default value of `NAMEDATALEN` is 64; therefore the default `max_identifier_length` is 63.

`max_index_keys` (integer)

Shows the maximum number of index keys. It is determined by the value of `INDEX_MAX_KEYS` when building the server. The default value is 32.

`server_encoding` (string)

Shows the database encoding (character set). It is determined when the database is created. Ordinarily, clients need only be concerned with the value of `client_encoding`.

`server_version` (string)

Shows the version number of the server. It is determined by the value of `PG_VERSION` when building the server.

16.4.12. Customized Options

This feature was designed to allow options not normally known to PostgreSQL to be added by add-on modules (such as procedural languages). This allows add-on modules to be configured in the standard ways.

`custom_variable_classes` (string)

This variable specifies one or several class names to be used for custom variables, in the form of a comma-separated list. A custom variable is a variable not normally known to PostgreSQL proper but used by some add-on module. Such variables must have names consisting of a class name, a dot, and a variable name. `custom_variable_classes` specifies all the class names in use in a particular installation. This option can only be set at server start or in the `postgresql.conf` configuration file.

The difficulty with setting custom variables in `postgresql.conf` is that the file must be read before add-on modules have been loaded, and so custom variables would ordinarily be rejected as unknown. When `custom_variable_classes` is set, the server will accept definitions of arbitrary variables within each specified class. These variables will be treated as placeholders and will have no function until the module that defines them is loaded. When a module for a specific class is loaded, it will add the proper variable definitions for its class name, convert any placeholder values according to those definitions, and issue warnings for any placeholders of its class that remain (which presumably would be misspelled configuration variables).

Here is an example of what `postgresql.conf` might contain when using custom variables:

```
custom_variable_classes = 'plr,pljava'
plr.path = '/usr/lib/R'
pljava.foo = 1
plruby.bar = true          # generates error, unknown class name
```

16.4.13. Developer Options

The following options are intended for work on the PostgreSQL source, and in some cases to assist with recovery of severely damaged databases. There should be no reason to use them in a production database setup. As such, they have been excluded from the sample `postgresql.conf` file. Note that many of these options require special source compilation flags to work at all.

`debug_assertions` (boolean)

Turns on various assertion checks. This is a debugging aid. If you are experiencing strange problems or crashes you might want to turn this on, as it might expose programming mistakes. To use this option, the macro `USE_ASSERT_CHECKING` must be defined when PostgreSQL is built (accomplished by the configure option `--enable-cassert`). Note that `debug_assertions` defaults to on if PostgreSQL has been built with assertions enabled.

`debug_shared_buffers` (integer)

Number of seconds between ARC reports. If set greater than zero, emit ARC statistics to the log every so many seconds. Zero (the default) disables reporting.

`pre_auth_delay` (integer)

If nonzero, a delay of this many seconds occurs just after a new server process is forked, before it conducts the authentication process. This is intended to give an opportunity to attach to the server process with a debugger to trace down misbehavior in authentication.

`trace_notify` (boolean)

Generates a great amount of debugging output for the `LISTEN` and `NOTIFY` commands. `client_min_messages` or `log_min_messages` must be `DEBUG1` or lower to send this output to the client or server log, respectively.

`trace_locks` (boolean)

`trace_lwlocks` (boolean)

`trace_userlocks` (boolean)

`trace_lock_oidmin` (boolean)

`trace_lock_table` (boolean)

`debug_deadlocks` (boolean)

`log_btree_build_stats` (boolean)

Various other code tracing and debugging options.

`wal_debug` (boolean)

If true, emit WAL-related debugging output. This option is only available if the `WAL_DEBUG` macro was defined when PostgreSQL was compiled.

`zero_damaged_pages` (boolean)

Detection of a damaged page header normally causes PostgreSQL to report an error, aborting the current command. Setting `zero_damaged_pages` to true causes the system to instead report a warning, zero out the damaged page, and continue processing. This behavior *will destroy data*, namely all the

rows on the damaged page. But it allows you to get past the error and retrieve rows from any undamaged pages that may be present in the table. So it is useful for recovering data if corruption has occurred due to hardware or software error. You should generally not set this true until you have given up hope of recovering data from the damaged page(s) of a table. The default setting is off, and it can only be changed by a superuser.

16.4.14. Short Options

For convenience there are also single letter command-line option switches available for some parameters. They are described in Table 16-1.

Table 16-1. Short option key

Short option	Equivalent
-B x	shared_buffers = x
-d x	log_min_messages = DEBUGx
-F	fsync = off
-h x	listen_addresses = x
-i	listen_addresses = '*'
-k x	unix_socket_directory = x
-l	ssl = on
-N x	max_connections = x
-p x	port = x
-fi, -fh, -fm, -fn, -fs, -ft _a	enable_indexscan = off, enable_hashjoin = off, enable_mergejoin = off, enable_nestloop = off, enable_seqscan = off, enable_tidscan = off
-S _a	log_statement_stats = on
-S x _a	work_mem = x
-tpa, -tpl, -tea	log_parser_stats = on, log_planner_stats = on, log_executor_stats = on

Notes: a. For historical reasons, these options must be passed to the individual server process via the `-o postmaster opt`

16.5. Managing Kernel Resources

A large PostgreSQL installation can quickly exhaust various operating system resource limits. (On some systems, the factory defaults are so low that you don't even need a really "large" installation.) If you have encountered this kind of problem, keep reading.

16.5.1. Shared Memory and Semaphores

Shared memory and semaphores are collectively referred to as “System V IPC” (together with message queues, which are not relevant for PostgreSQL). Almost all modern operating systems provide these features, but not all of them have them turned on or sufficiently sized by default, especially systems with BSD heritage. (For the QNX and BeOS ports, PostgreSQL provides its own replacement implementation of these facilities.)

The complete lack of these facilities is usually manifested by an Illegal system call error upon server start. In that case there’s nothing left to do but to reconfigure your kernel. PostgreSQL won’t work without them.

When PostgreSQL exceeds one of the various hard IPC limits, the server will refuse to start and should leave an instructive error message describing the problem encountered and what to do about it. (See also Section 16.3.1.) The relevant kernel parameters are named consistently across different systems; Table 16-2 gives an overview. The methods to set them, however, vary. Suggestions for some platforms are given below. Be warned that it is often necessary to reboot your machine, and possibly even recompile the kernel, to change these settings.

Table 16-2. System V IPC parameters

Name	Description	Reasonable values
SHMMAX	Maximum size of shared memory segment (bytes)	250 kB + 8.2 kB * shared_buffers + 14.2 kB * max_connections up to infinity
SHMMIN	Minimum size of shared memory segment (bytes)	1
SHMALL	Total amount of shared memory available (bytes or pages)	if bytes, same as SHMMAX; if pages, $\text{ceil}(\text{SHMMAX}/\text{PAGE_SIZE})$
SHMSEG	Maximum number of shared memory segments per process	only 1 segment is needed, but the default is much higher
SHMMNI	Maximum number of shared memory segments system-wide	like SHMSEG plus room for other applications
SEMMNI	Maximum number of semaphore identifiers (i.e., sets)	at least $\text{ceil}(\text{max_connections} / 16)$
SEMMNS	Maximum number of semaphores system-wide	$\text{ceil}(\text{max_connections} / 16) * 17$ plus room for other applications
SEMMSL	Maximum number of semaphores per set	at least 17
SEMMAP	Number of entries in semaphore map	see text
SEMVMX	Maximum value of semaphore	at least 1000 (The default is often 32767, don’t change unless forced to)

The most important shared memory parameter is SHMMAX, the maximum size, in bytes, of a shared memory segment. If you get an error message from shmget like Invalid argument, it is likely that this limit has

been exceeded. The size of the required shared memory segment varies both with the number of requested buffers (`-B` option) and the number of allowed connections (`-N` option), although the former is the most significant. (You can, as a temporary solution, lower these settings to eliminate the failure.) As a rough approximation, you can estimate the required segment size as suggested in Table 16-2. Any error message you might get will contain the size of the failed allocation request.

Some systems also have a limit on the total amount of shared memory in the system (`SHMALL`). Make sure this is large enough for PostgreSQL plus any other applications that are using shared memory segments. (Caution: `SHMALL` is measured in pages rather than bytes on many systems.)

Less likely to cause problems is the minimum size for shared memory segments (`SHMMIN`), which should be at most approximately 256 kB for PostgreSQL (it is usually just 1). The maximum number of segments system-wide (`SHMMNI`) or per-process (`SHMSEG`) are unlikely to cause a problem unless your system has them set to zero.

PostgreSQL uses one semaphore per allowed connection (`-N` option), in sets of 16. Each such set will also contain a 17th semaphore which contains a “magic number”, to detect collision with semaphore sets used by other applications. The maximum number of semaphores in the system is set by `SEMMNS`, which consequently must be at least as high as `max_connections` plus one extra for each 16 allowed connections (see the formula in Table 16-2). The parameter `SEMMNI` determines the limit on the number of semaphore sets that can exist on the system at one time. Hence this parameter must be at least `ceil(max_connections / 16)`. Lowering the number of allowed connections is a temporary workaround for failures, which are usually confusingly worded `No space left on device`, from the function `semget`.

In some cases it might also be necessary to increase `SEMMAP` to be at least on the order of `SEMMNS`. This parameter defines the size of the semaphore resource map, in which each contiguous block of available semaphores needs an entry. When a semaphore set is freed it is either added to an existing entry that is adjacent to the freed block or it is registered under a new map entry. If the map is full, the freed semaphores get lost (until reboot). Fragmentation of the semaphore space could over time lead to fewer available semaphores than there should be.

The `SEMMSL` parameter, which determines how many semaphores can be in a set, must be at least 17 for PostgreSQL.

Various other settings related to “semaphore undo”, such as `SEMMNU` and `SEMUME`, are not of concern for PostgreSQL.

BSD/OS

Shared Memory. By default, only 4 MB of shared memory is supported. Keep in mind that shared memory is not pageable; it is locked in RAM. To increase the amount of shared memory supported by your system, add something like the following to your kernel configuration file:

```
options "SHMALL=8192"
options "SHMMAX=\(SHMALL*PAGE_SIZE\)"
```

`SHMALL` is measured in 4KB pages, so a value of 1024 represents 4 MB of shared memory. Therefore the above increases the maximum shared memory area to 32 MB. For those running 4.3 or later, you will probably also need to increase `KERNEL_VIRTUAL_MB` above the default 248. Once all changes have been made, recompile the kernel, and reboot.

For those running 4.0 and earlier releases, use `bpatch` to find the `sysptsize` value in the current kernel. This is computed dynamically at boot time.

```
$ bpatch -r sysptsize
```

```
0x9 = 9
```

Next, add `SYSPTSIZE` as a hard-coded value in the kernel configuration file. Increase the value you found using `bpatch`. Add 1 for every additional 4 MB of shared memory you desire.

```
options "SYSPTSIZE=16"
```

`sysptsize` cannot be changed by `sysctl`.

Semaphores. You will probably want to increase the number of semaphores as well; the default system total of 60 will only allow about 50 PostgreSQL connections. Set the values you want in your kernel configuration file, e.g.:

```
options "SEMMNI=40"
options "SEMMNS=240"
```

FreeBSD

NetBSD

OpenBSD

The options `SYSVSHM` and `SYSVSEM` need to be enabled when the kernel is compiled. (They are by default.) The maximum size of shared memory is determined by the option `SHMMAXPGS` (in pages). The following shows an example of how to set the various parameters:

```
options          SYSVSHM
options          SHMMAXPGS=4096
options          SHMSEG=256

options          SYSVSEM
options          SEMMNI=256
options          SEMMNS=512
options          SEMMNU=256
options          SEMMAP=256
```

(On NetBSD and OpenBSD the key word is actually `option` singular.)

You might also want to configure your kernel to lock shared memory into RAM and prevent it from being paged out to swap. Use the `sysctl` setting `kern.ipc.shm_use_phys`.

HP-UX

The default settings tend to suffice for normal installations. On HP-UX 10, the factory default for `SEMMNS` is 128, which might be too low for larger database sites.

IPC parameters can be set in the System Administration Manager (SAM) under Kernel Configuration—>Configurable Parameters. Hit Create A New Kernel when you're done.

Linux

The default shared memory limit (both `SHMMAX` and `SHMALL`) is 32 MB in 2.2 kernels, but it can be changed in the `proc` file system (without reboot). For example, to allow 128 MB:

```
$ echo 134217728 >/proc/sys/kernel/shmall
$ echo 134217728 >/proc/sys/kernel/shmmax
```

You could put these commands into a script run at boot-time.

Alternatively, you can use `sysctl`, if available, to control these parameters. Look for a file called `/etc/sysctl.conf` and add lines like the following to it:

```
kernel.shmall = 134217728
```

```
kernel.shmmax = 134217728
```

This file is usually processed at boot time, but `sysctl` can also be called explicitly later.

Other parameters are sufficiently sized for any application. If you want to see for yourself look in `/usr/src/linux/include/asm-xxx/shmparam.h` and `/usr/src/linux/include/linux/sem.h`.

MacOS X

In OS X 10.2 and earlier, edit the file `/System/Library/StartupItems/SystemTuning/SystemTuning` and change the values in the following commands:

```
sysctl -w kern.sysv.shmmax
sysctl -w kern.sysv.shmmin
sysctl -w kern.sysv.shmmni
sysctl -w kern.sysv.shmseg
sysctl -w kern.sysv.shmall
```

In OS X 10.3, these commands have been moved to `/etc/rc` and must be edited there. You'll need to reboot to make changes take effect. Note that `/etc/rc` is usually overwritten by OS X updates (such as 10.3.6 to 10.3.7) so you should expect to have to redo your editing after each update.

`SHMALL` is measured in 4KB pages on this platform.

SCO OpenServer

In the default configuration, only 512 kB of shared memory per segment is allowed, which is about enough for `-B 24 -N 12`. To increase the setting, first change to the directory `/etc/conf/cf.d`. To display the current value of `SHMMAX`, run

```
./configure -y SHMMAX
```

To set a new value for `SHMMAX`, run

```
./configure SHMMAX=value
```

where `value` is the new value you want to use (in bytes). After setting `SHMMAX`, rebuild the kernel:

```
./link_unix
```

and reboot.

AIX

At least as of version 5.1, it should not be necessary to do any special configuration for such parameters as `SHMMAX`, as it appears this is configured to allow all memory to be used as shared memory. That is the sort of configuration commonly used for other databases such as DB/2.

It may, however, be necessary to modify the global `ulimit` information in `/etc/security/limits`, as the default hard limits for file sizes (`fsize`) and numbers of files (`nofiles`) may be too low.

Solaris

At least in version 2.6, the default maximum size of a shared memory segments is too low for PostgreSQL. The relevant settings can be changed in `/etc/system`, for example:

```
set shmsys:shminfo_shmmax=0x2000000
set shmsys:shminfo_shmmin=1
set shmsys:shminfo_shmmni=256
set shmsys:shminfo_shmseg=256
```

```
set semsys:seminfo_semmap=256
set semsys:seminfo_semmni=512
set semsys:seminfo_semmns=512
set semsys:seminfo_semmsl=32
```

You need to reboot for the changes to take effect.

See also <http://sunsite.uakom.sk/sunworldonline/swol-09-1997/swol-09-insidesolaris.html> for information on shared memory under Solaris.

UnixWare

On UnixWare 7, the maximum size for shared memory segments is 512 kB in the default configuration. This is enough for about `-B 24 -N 12`. To display the current value of `SHMMAX`, run

```
/etc/conf/bin/idtune -g SHMMAX
```

which displays the current, default, minimum, and maximum values. To set a new value for `SHMMAX`, run

```
/etc/conf/bin/idtune SHMMAX value
```

where *value* is the new value you want to use (in bytes). After setting `SHMMAX`, rebuild the kernel:

```
/etc/conf/bin/idbuild -B
```

and reboot.

16.5.2. Resource Limits

Unix-like operating systems enforce various kinds of resource limits that might interfere with the operation of your PostgreSQL server. Of particular importance are limits on the number of processes per user, the number of open files per process, and the amount of memory available to each process. Each of these have a “hard” and a “soft” limit. The soft limit is what actually counts but it can be changed by the user up to the hard limit. The hard limit can only be changed by the root user. The system call `setrlimit` is responsible for setting these parameters. The shell’s built-in command `ulimit` (Bourne shells) or `limit` (csh) is used to control the resource limits from the command line. On BSD-derived systems the file `/etc/login.conf` controls the various resource limits set during login. See the operating system documentation for details. The relevant parameters are `maxproc`, `openfiles`, and `datasize`. For example:

```
default:\
...
:datasize-cur=256M:\
:maxproc-cur=256:\
:openfiles-cur=256:\
...
```

(`-cur` is the soft limit. Append `-max` to set the hard limit.)

Kernels can also have system-wide limits on some resources.

- On Linux `/proc/sys/fs/file-max` determines the maximum number of open files that the kernel will support. It can be changed by writing a different number into the file or by adding an assignment in `/etc/sysctl.conf`. The maximum limit of files per process is fixed at the time the kernel is compiled; see `/usr/src/linux/Documentation/proc.txt` for more information.

The PostgreSQL server uses one process per connection so you should provide for at least as many processes as allowed connections, in addition to what you need for the rest of your system. This is usually not a problem but if you run several servers on one machine things might get tight.

The factory default limit on open files is often set to “socially friendly” values that allow many users to coexist on a machine without using an inappropriate fraction of the system resources. If you run many servers on a machine this is perhaps what you want, but on dedicated servers you may want to raise this limit.

On the other side of the coin, some systems allow individual processes to open large numbers of files; if more than a few processes do so then the system-wide limit can easily be exceeded. If you find this happening, and you do not want to alter the system-wide limit, you can set PostgreSQL’s `max_files_per_process` configuration parameter to limit the consumption of open files.

16.5.3. Linux Memory Overcommit

In Linux 2.4 and later, the default virtual memory behavior is not optimal for PostgreSQL. Because of the way that the kernel implements memory overcommit, the kernel may terminate the PostgreSQL server (the `postmaster` process) if the memory demands of another process cause the system to run out of virtual memory.

If this happens, you will see a kernel message that looks like this (consult your system documentation and configuration on where to look for such a message):

```
Out of Memory: Killed process 12345 (postmaster).
```

This indicates that the `postmaster` process has been terminated due to memory pressure. Although existing database connections will continue to function normally, no new connections will be accepted. To recover, PostgreSQL will need to be restarted.

One way to avoid this problem is to run PostgreSQL on a machine where you can be sure that other processes will not run the machine out of memory.

On Linux 2.6 and later, a better solution is to modify the kernel’s behavior so that it will not “overcommit” memory. This is done by selecting strict overcommit mode via `sysctl`:

```
sysctl -w vm.overcommit_memory=2
```

or placing an equivalent entry in `/etc/sysctl.conf`. You may also wish to modify the related setting `vm.overcommit_ratio`. For details see the kernel documentation file `Documentation/vm/overcommit-accounting`.

Some vendors’ Linux 2.4 kernels are reported to have early versions of the 2.6 overcommit `sysctl` parameter. However, setting `vm.overcommit_memory` to 2 on a kernel that does not have the relevant code will make things worse not better. It is recommended that you inspect the actual kernel source code (see the function `vm_enough_memory` in the file `mm/mmap.c`) to verify what is supported in your copy

before you try this in a 2.4 installation. The presence of the `overcommit-accounting` documentation file should *not* be taken as evidence that the feature is there. If in any doubt, consult a kernel expert or your kernel vendor.

16.6. Shutting Down the Server

There are several ways to shut down the database server. You control the type of shutdown by sending different signals to the `postmaster` process.

SIGTERM

After receiving `SIGTERM`, the server disallows new connections, but lets existing sessions end their work normally. It shuts down only after all of the sessions terminate normally. This is the *Smart Shutdown*.

SIGINT

The server disallows new connections and sends all existing server processes `SIGTERM`, which will cause them to abort their current transactions and exit promptly. It then waits for the server processes to exit and finally shuts down. This is the *Fast Shutdown*.

SIGQUIT

This is the *Immediate Shutdown*, which will cause the `postmaster` process to send a `SIGQUIT` to all child processes and exit immediately, without properly shutting itself down. The child processes likewise exit immediately upon receiving `SIGQUIT`. This will lead to recovery (by replaying the WAL log) upon next start-up. This is recommended only in emergencies.

The `pg_ctl` program provides a convenient interface for sending these signals to shut down the server.

Alternatively, you can send the signal directly using `kill`. The PID of the `postmaster` process can be found using the `ps` program, or from the file `postmaster.pid` in the data directory. For example, to do a fast shutdown:

```
$ kill -INT `head -1 /usr/local/pgsql/data/postmaster.pid`
```

Important: It is best not to use `SIGKILL` to shut down the server. Doing so will prevent the server from releasing shared memory and semaphores, which may then have to be done manually before a new server can be started. Furthermore, `SIGKILL` kills the `postmaster` process without letting it relay the signal to its subprocesses, so it will be necessary to kill the individual subprocesses by hand as well.

16.7. Secure TCP/IP Connections with SSL

PostgreSQL has native support for using SSL connections to encrypt client/server communications for increased security. This requires that OpenSSL is installed on both client and server systems and that support in PostgreSQL is enabled at build time (see Chapter 14).

With SSL support compiled in, the PostgreSQL server can be started with SSL enabled by setting the parameter `ssl` to `on` in `postgresql.conf`. When starting in SSL mode, the server will look for the files `server.key` and `server.crt` in the data directory, which must contain the server private key and certificate, respectively. These files must be set up correctly before an SSL-enabled server can start. If the private key is protected with a passphrase, the server will prompt for the passphrase and will not start until it has been entered.

The server will listen for both standard and SSL connections on the same TCP port, and will negotiate with any connecting client on whether to use SSL. By default, this is at the client's option; see Section 19.1 about how to set up the server to require use of SSL for some or all connections.

For details on how to create your server private key and certificate, refer to the OpenSSL documentation. A self-signed certificate can be used for testing, but a certificate signed by a certificate authority (CA) (either one of the global CAs or a local one) should be used in production so the client can verify the server's identity. To create a quick self-signed certificate, use the following OpenSSL command:

```
openssl req -new -text -out server.req
```

Fill out the information that `openssl` asks for. Make sure that you enter the local host name as “Common Name”; the challenge password can be left blank. The program will generate a key that is passphrase protected; it will not accept a passphrase that is less than four characters long. To remove the passphrase (as you must if you want automatic start-up of the server), run the commands

```
openssl rsa -in privkey.pem -out server.key
rm privkey.pem
```

Enter the old passphrase to unlock the existing key. Now do

```
openssl req -x509 -in server.req -text -key server.key -out server.crt
chmod og-rwx server.key
```

to turn the certificate into a self-signed certificate and to copy the key and certificate to where the server will look for them.

If verification of client certificates is required, place the certificates of the CA(s) you wish to check for in the file `root.crt` in the data directory. When present, a client certificate will be requested from the client during SSL connection startup, and it must have been signed by one of the certificates present in `root.crt`.

When the `root.crt` file is not present, client certificates will not be requested or checked. In this mode, SSL provides communication security but not authentication.

The files `server.key`, `server.crt`, and `root.crt` are only examined during server start; so you must restart the server to make changes in them take effect.

16.8. Secure TCP/IP Connections with SSH Tunnels

One can use SSH to encrypt the network connection between clients and a PostgreSQL server. Done properly, this provides an adequately secure network connection, even for non-SSL-capable clients.

First make sure that an SSH server is running properly on the same machine as the PostgreSQL server and that you can log in using `ssh` as some user. Then you can establish a secure tunnel with a command like this from the client machine:

```
ssh -L 3333:foo.com:5432 joe@foo.com
```

The first number in the `-L` argument, 3333, is the port number of your end of the tunnel; it can be chosen freely. The second number, 5432, is the remote end of the tunnel: the port number your server is using. The name or IP address between the port numbers is the host with the database server you are going to connect to. In order to connect to the database server using this tunnel, you connect to port 3333 on the local machine:

```
psql -h localhost -p 3333 template1
```

To the database server it will then look as though you are really user `joe@foo.com` and it will use whatever authentication procedure was configured for connections from this user and host. Note that the server will not think the connection is SSL-encrypted, since in fact it is not encrypted between the SSH server and the PostgreSQL server. This should not pose any extra security risk as long as they are on the same machine.

In order for the tunnel setup to succeed you must be allowed to connect via `ssh` as `joe@foo.com`, just as if you had attempted to use `ssh` to set up a terminal session.

Tip: Several other applications exist that can provide secure tunnels using a procedure similar in concept to the one just described.

Chapter 17. Database Users and Privileges

Every database cluster contains a set of database users. Those users are separate from the users managed by the operating system on which the server runs. Users own database objects (for example, tables) and can assign privileges on those objects to other users to control who has access to which object.

This chapter describes how to create and manage users and introduces the privilege system. More information about the various types of database objects and the effects of privileges can be found in Chapter 5.

17.1. Database Users

Database users are conceptually completely separate from operating system users. In practice it might be convenient to maintain a correspondence, but this is not required. Database user names are global across a database cluster installation (and not per individual database). To create a user use the *CREATE USER* SQL command:

```
CREATE USER name ;
```

name follows the rules for SQL identifiers: either unadorned without special characters, or double-quoted. To remove an existing user, use the analogous *DROP USER* command:

```
DROP USER name ;
```

For convenience, the programs *createuser* and *dropuser* are provided as wrappers around these SQL commands that can be called from the shell command line:

```
createuser name  
dropuser name
```

To determine the set of existing users, examine the *pg_user* system catalog, for example

```
SELECT username FROM pg_user ;
```

The *psql* program's `\du` meta-command is also useful for listing the existing users.

In order to bootstrap the database system, a freshly initialized system always contains one predefined user. This user will have the fixed ID 1, and by default (unless altered when running *initdb*) it will have the same name as the operating system user that initialized the database cluster. Customarily, this user will be named *postgres*. In order to create more users you first have to connect as this initial user.

Exactly one user identity is active for a connection to the database server. The user name to use for a particular database connection is indicated by the client that is initiating the connection request in an application-specific fashion. For example, the *psql* program uses the `-U` command line option to indicate the user to connect as. Many applications assume the name of the current operating system user by default (including *createuser* and *psql*). Therefore it is convenient to maintain a naming correspondence between the two user sets.

The set of database users a given client connection may connect as is determined by the client authentication setup, as explained in Chapter 19. (Thus, a client is not necessarily limited to connect as the user with the same name as its operating system user, just as a person's login name need not match her real name.) Since the user identity determines the set of privileges available to a connected client, it is important to carefully configure this when setting up a multiuser environment.

17.2. User Attributes

A database user may have a number of attributes that define its privileges and interact with the client authentication system.

superuser

A database superuser bypasses all permission checks. Also, only a superuser can create new users. To create a database superuser, use `CREATE USER name CREATEUSER`.

database creation

A user must be explicitly given permission to create databases (except for superusers, since those bypass all permission checks). To create such a user, use `CREATE USER name CREATEDB`.

password

A password is only significant if the client authentication method requires the user to supply a password when connecting to the database. The `password`, `md5`, and `crypt` authentication methods make use of passwords. Database passwords are separate from operating system passwords. Specify a password upon user creation with `CREATE USER name PASSWORD 'string'`.

A user's attributes can be modified after creation with `ALTER USER`. See the reference pages for the `CREATE USER` and `ALTER USER` commands for details.

A user can also set personal defaults for many of the run-time configuration settings described in Section 16.4. For example, if for some reason you want to disable index scans (hint: not a good idea) anytime you connect, you can use

```
ALTER USER myname SET enable_indexscan TO off;
```

This will save the setting (but not set it immediately). In subsequent connections by this user it will appear as though `SET enable_indexscan TO off;` had been executed just before the session started. You can still alter this setting during the session; it will only be the default. To undo any such setting, use `ALTER USER username RESET varname;`

17.3. Groups

As in Unix, groups are a way of logically grouping users to ease management of privileges: privileges can be granted to, or revoked from, a group as a whole. To create a group, use the `CREATE GROUP SQL` command:

```
CREATE GROUP name;
```

To add users to or remove users from an existing group, use *ALTER GROUP*:

```
ALTER GROUP name ADD USER uname1, ... ;
ALTER GROUP name DROP USER uname1, ... ;
```

To destroy a group, use *DROP GROUP*:

```
DROP GROUP name ;
```

This only drops the group, not its member users.

To determine the set of existing groups, examine the `pg_group` system catalog, for example

```
SELECT groname FROM pg_group ;
```

The `psql` program's `\dg` meta-command is also useful for listing the existing groups.

17.4. Privileges

When a database object is created, it is assigned an owner. The owner is the user that executed the creation statement. To change the owner of a table, index, sequence, or view, use the `ALTER TABLE` command. By default, only an owner (or a superuser) can do anything with the object. In order to allow other users to use it, *privileges* must be granted.

There are several different privileges: `SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, `RULE`, `REFERENCES`, `TRIGGER`, `CREATE`, `TEMPORARY`, `EXECUTE`, `USAGE`, and `ALL PRIVILEGES`. For more information on the different types of privileges supported by PostgreSQL, see the *GRANT* reference page. The right to modify or destroy an object is always the privilege of the owner only. To assign privileges, the `GRANT` command is used. So, if `joe` is an existing user, and `accounts` is an existing table, the privilege to update the table can be granted with

```
GRANT UPDATE ON accounts TO joe ;
```

The user executing this command must be the owner of the table. To grant a privilege to a group, use

```
GRANT SELECT ON accounts TO GROUP staff ;
```

The special “user” name `PUBLIC` can be used to grant a privilege to every user on the system. Writing `ALL` in place of a specific privilege specifies that all privileges will be granted.

To revoke a privilege, use the fittingly named `REVOKE` command:

```
REVOKE ALL ON accounts FROM PUBLIC ;
```

The special privileges of the table owner (i.e., the right to do `DROP`, `GRANT`, `REVOKE`, etc) are always implicit in being the owner, and cannot be granted or revoked. But the table owner can choose to revoke his own ordinary privileges, for example to make a table read-only for himself as well as others.

17.5. Functions and Triggers

Functions and triggers allow users to insert code into the backend server that other users may execute without knowing it. Hence, both mechanisms permit users to “Trojan horse” others with relative ease. The only real protection is tight control over who can define functions.

Functions run inside the backend server process with the operating system permissions of the database server daemon. If the programming language used for the function allows unchecked memory accesses, it is possible to change the server’s internal data structures. Hence, among many other things, such functions can circumvent any system access controls. Function languages that allow such access are considered “untrusted”, and PostgreSQL allows only superusers to create functions written in those languages.

Chapter 18. Managing Databases

Every instance of a running PostgreSQL server manages one or more databases. Databases are therefore the topmost hierarchical level for organizing SQL objects (“database objects”). This chapter describes the properties of databases, and how to create, manage, and destroy them.

18.1. Overview

A database is a named collection of SQL objects (“database objects”). Generally, every database object (tables, functions, etc.) belongs to one and only one database. (But there are a few system catalogs, for example `pg_database`, that belong to a whole cluster and are accessible from each database within the cluster.) More accurately, a database is a collection of schemas and the schemas contain the tables, functions, etc. So the full hierarchy is: server, database, schema, table (or some other kind of object, such as a function).

When connecting to the database server, a client must specify in its connection request the name of the database it wants to connect to. It is not possible to access more than one database per connection. (But an application is not restricted in the number of connections it opens to the same or other databases.) Databases are physically separated and access control is managed at the connection level. If one PostgreSQL server instance is to house projects or users that should be separate and for the most part unaware of each other, it is therefore recommendable to put them into separate databases. If the projects or users are interrelated and should be able to use each other’s resources they should be put in the same database, but possibly into separate schemas. Schemas are a purely logical structure and who can access what is managed by the privilege system. More information about managing schemas is in Section 5.8.

Databases are created with the `CREATE DATABASE` command (see Section 18.2) and destroyed with the `DROP DATABASE` command (see Section 18.5). To determine the set of existing databases, examine the `pg_database` system catalog, for example

```
SELECT datname FROM pg_database;
```

The `psql` program’s `\l` meta-command and `-l` command-line option are also useful for listing the existing databases.

Note: The SQL standard calls databases “catalogs”, but there is no difference in practice.

18.2. Creating a Database

In order to create a database, the PostgreSQL server must be up and running (see Section 16.3).

Databases are created with the SQL command `CREATE DATABASE`:

```
CREATE DATABASE name;
```

where *name* follows the usual rules for SQL identifiers. The current user automatically becomes the owner of the new database. It is the privilege of the owner of a database to remove it later on (which also removes all the objects in it, even if they have a different owner).

The creation of databases is a restricted operation. See Section 17.2 for how to grant permission.

Since you need to be connected to the database server in order to execute the `CREATE DATABASE` command, the question remains how the *first* database at any given site can be created. The first database is always created by the `initdb` command when the data storage area is initialized. (See Section 16.2.) This database is called `template1`. So to create the first “real” database you can connect to `template1`.

The name `template1` is no accident: when a new database is created, the template database is essentially cloned. This means that any changes you make in `template1` are propagated to all subsequently created databases. This implies that you should not use the template database for real work, but when used judiciously this feature can be convenient. More details appear in Section 18.3.

As a convenience, there is a program that you can execute from the shell to create new databases, `createdb`.

```
createdb dbname
```

`createdb` does no magic. It connects to the `template1` database and issues the `CREATE DATABASE` command, exactly as described above. The `createdb` reference page contains the invocation details. Note that `createdb` without any arguments will create a database with the current user name, which may or may not be what you want.

Note: Chapter 19 contains information about how to restrict who can connect to a given database.

Sometimes you want to create a database for someone else. That user should become the owner of the new database, so he can configure and manage it himself. To achieve that, use one of the following commands:

```
CREATE DATABASE dbname OWNER username;
```

from the SQL environment, or

```
createdb -O username dbname
```

You must be a superuser to be allowed to create a database for someone else.

18.3. Template Databases

`CREATE DATABASE` actually works by copying an existing database. By default, it copies the standard system database named `template1`. Thus that database is the “template” from which new databases are made. If you add objects to `template1`, these objects will be copied into subsequently created user databases. This behavior allows site-local modifications to the standard set of objects in databases. For example, if you install the procedural language PL/pgSQL in `template1`, it will automatically be available in user databases without any extra action being taken when those databases are made.

There is a second standard system database named `template0`. This database contains the same data as the initial contents of `template1`, that is, only the standard objects predefined by your version of PostgreSQL. `template0` should never be changed after `initdb`. By instructing `CREATE DATABASE` to copy `template0` instead of `template1`, you can create a “virgin” user database that contains none of the site-local additions in `template1`. This is particularly handy when restoring a `pg_dump` dump: the

dump script should be restored in a virgin database to ensure that one recreates the correct contents of the dumped database, without any conflicts with additions that may now be present in `template1`.

To create a database by copying `template0`, use

```
CREATE DATABASE dbname TEMPLATE template0;
```

from the SQL environment, or

```
createdb -T template0 dbname
```

from the shell.

It is possible to create additional template databases, and indeed one might copy any database in a cluster by specifying its name as the template for `CREATE DATABASE`. It is important to understand, however, that this is not (yet) intended as a general-purpose “COPY DATABASE” facility. In particular, it is essential that the source database be idle (no data-altering transactions in progress) for the duration of the copying operation. `CREATE DATABASE` will check that no session (other than itself) is connected to the source database at the start of the operation, but this does not guarantee that changes cannot be made while the copy proceeds, which would result in an inconsistent copied database. Therefore, we recommend that databases used as templates be treated as read-only.

Two useful flags exist in `pg_database` for each database: the columns `datistemplate` and `dataallowconn`. `datistemplate` may be set to indicate that a database is intended as a template for `CREATE DATABASE`. If this flag is set, the database may be cloned by any user with `CREATEDB` privileges; if it is not set, only superusers and the owner of the database may clone it. If `dataallowconn` is false, then no new connections to that database will be allowed (but existing sessions are not killed simply by setting the flag false). The `template0` database is normally marked `dataallowconn = false` to prevent modification of it. Both `template0` and `template1` should always be marked with `datistemplate = true`.

After preparing a template database, or making any changes to one, it is a good idea to perform `VACUUM FREEZE` in that database. If this is done when there are no other open transactions in the same database, then it is guaranteed that all rows in the database are “frozen” and will not be subject to transaction ID wraparound problems. This is particularly important for a database that will have `dataallowconn` set to false, since it will be impossible to do routine maintenance `VACUUM` in such a database. See Section 21.1.3 for more information.

Note: `template1` and `template0` do not have any special status beyond the fact that the name `template1` is the default source database name for `CREATE DATABASE` and the default database-to-connect-to for various programs such as `createdb`. For example, one could drop `template1` and recreate it from `template0` without any ill effects. This course of action might be advisable if one has carelessly added a bunch of junk in `template1`.

18.4. Database Configuration

Recall from Section 16.4 that the PostgreSQL server provides a large number of run-time configuration variables. You can set database-specific default values for many of these settings.

For example, if for some reason you want to disable the GEQO optimizer for a given database, you'd ordinarily have to either disable it for all databases or make sure that every connecting client is careful to issue `SET geqo TO off;`. To make this setting the default within a particular database, you can execute the command

```
ALTER DATABASE mydb SET geqo TO off;
```

This will save the setting (but not set it immediately). In subsequent connections to this database it will appear as though `SET geqo TO off;` had been executed just before the session started. Note that users can still alter this setting during their sessions; it will only be the default. To undo any such setting, use `ALTER DATABASE dbname RESET varname;`.

18.5. Destroying a Database

Databases are destroyed with the command `DROP DATABASE`:

```
DROP DATABASE name;
```

Only the owner of the database (i.e., the user that created it), or a superuser, can drop a database. Dropping a database removes all objects that were contained within the database. The destruction of a database cannot be undone.

You cannot execute the `DROP DATABASE` command while connected to the victim database. You can, however, be connected to any other database, including the `template1` database. `template1` would be the only option for dropping the last user database of a given cluster.

For convenience, there is also a shell program to drop databases, `dropdb`:

```
dropdb dbname
```

(Unlike `createdb`, it is not the default action to drop the database with the current user name.)

18.6. Tablespaces

Tablespaces in PostgreSQL allow database administrators to define locations in the file system where the files representing database objects can be stored. Once created, a tablespace can be referred to by name when creating database objects.

By using tablespaces, an administrator can control the disk layout of a PostgreSQL installation. This is useful in at least two ways. First, if the partition or volume on which the cluster was initialized runs out of space and cannot be extended, a tablespace can be created on a different partition and used until the system can be reconfigured.

Second, tablespaces allow an administrator to use knowledge of the usage pattern of database objects to optimize performance. For example, an index which is very heavily used can be placed on a very fast, highly available disk, such as an expensive solid state device. At the same time a table storing archived data which is rarely used or not performance critical could be stored on a less expensive, slower disk system.

To define a tablespace, use the `CREATE TABLESPACE` command, for example:

```
CREATE TABLESPACE fastspace LOCATION '/mnt/sda1/postgresql/data';
```

The location must be an existing, empty directory that is owned by the PostgreSQL system user. All objects subsequently created within the tablespace will be stored in files underneath this directory.

Note: There is usually not much point in making more than one tablespace per logical file system, since you cannot control the location of individual files within a logical file system. However, PostgreSQL does not enforce any such limitation, and indeed it is not directly aware of the file system boundaries on your system. It just stores files in the directories you tell it to use.

Creation of the tablespace itself must be done as a database superuser, but after that you can allow ordinary database users to make use of it. To do that, grant them the `CREATE` privilege on it.

Tables, indexes, and entire databases can be assigned to particular tablespaces. To do so, a user with the `CREATE` privilege on a given tablespace must pass the tablespace name as a parameter to the relevant command. For example, the following creates a table in the tablespace `space1`:

```
CREATE TABLE foo(i int) TABLESPACE space1;
```

Alternatively, use the `default_tablespace` parameter:

```
SET default_tablespace = space1;
CREATE TABLE foo(i int);
```

When `default_tablespace` is set to anything but an empty string, it supplies an implicit `TABLESPACE` clause for `CREATE TABLE` and `CREATE INDEX` commands that do not have an explicit one.

The tablespace associated with a database is used to store the system catalogs of that database, as well as any temporary files created by server processes using that database. Furthermore, it is the default tablespace selected for tables and indexes created within the database, if no `TABLESPACE` clause is given (either explicitly or via `default_tablespace`) when the objects are created. If a database is created without specifying a tablespace for it, it uses the same tablespace as the template database it is copied from.

Two tablespaces are automatically created by `initdb`. The `pg_global` tablespace is used for shared system catalogs. The `pg_default` tablespace is the default tablespace of the `template1` and `template0` databases (and, therefore, will be the default tablespace for other databases as well, unless overridden by a `TABLESPACE` clause in `CREATE DATABASE`).

Once created, a tablespace can be used from any database, provided the requesting user has sufficient privilege. This means that a tablespace cannot be dropped until all objects in all databases using the tablespace have been removed.

To remove an empty tablespace, use the `DROP TABLESPACE` command.

To determine the set of existing tablespaces, examine the `pg_tablespace` system catalog, for example

```
SELECT spcname FROM pg_tablespace;
```

The `psql` program's `\db` meta-command is also useful for listing the existing tablespaces.

PostgreSQL makes extensive use of symbolic links to simplify the implementation of tablespaces. This means that tablespaces can be used *only* on systems that support symbolic links.

The directory `$PGDATA/pg_tblspc` contains symbolic links that point to each of the non-built-in tablespaces defined in the cluster. Although not recommended, it is possible to adjust the tablespace layout by hand by redefining these links. Two warnings: do not do so while the postmaster is running; and after you restart the postmaster, update the `pg_tablespace` catalog to show the new locations. (If you do not, `pg_dump` will continue to show the old tablespace locations.)

Chapter 19. Client Authentication

When a client application connects to the database server, it specifies which PostgreSQL user name it wants to connect as, much the same way one logs into a Unix computer as a particular user. Within the SQL environment the active database user name determines access privileges to database objects — see Chapter 17 for more information. Therefore, it is essential to restrict which database users can connect.

Authentication is the process by which the database server establishes the identity of the client, and by extension determines whether the client application (or the user who runs the client application) is permitted to connect with the user name that was requested.

PostgreSQL offers a number of different client authentication methods. The method used to authenticate a particular client connection can be selected on the basis of (client) host address, database, and user.

PostgreSQL user names are logically separate from user names of the operating system in which the server runs. If all the users of a particular server also have accounts on the server's machine, it makes sense to assign database user names that match their operating system user names. However, a server that accepts remote connections may have many database users who have no local operating system account, and in such cases there need be no connection between database user names and OS user names.

19.1. The `pg_hba.conf` file

Client authentication is controlled by a configuration file, which traditionally is named `pg_hba.conf` and is stored in the database cluster's data directory. (HBA stands for host-based authentication.) A default `pg_hba.conf` file is installed when the data directory is initialized by `initdb`. It is possible to place the authentication configuration file elsewhere, however; see the `hba_file` configuration parameter.

The general format of the `pg_hba.conf` file is a set of records, one per line. Blank lines are ignored, as is any text after the `#` comment character. A record is made up of a number of fields which are separated by spaces and/or tabs. Fields can contain white space if the field value is quoted. Records cannot be continued across lines.

Each record specifies a connection type, a client IP address range (if relevant for the connection type), a database name, a user name, and the authentication method to be used for connections matching these parameters. The first record with a matching connection type, client address, requested database, and user name is used to perform authentication. There is no “fall-through” or “backup”: if one record is chosen and the authentication fails, subsequent records are not considered. If no record matches, access is denied.

A record may have one of the seven formats

```
local      database user authentication-method [authentication-option]
host       database user CIDR-address authentication-method [authentication-option]
hostssl    database user CIDR-address authentication-method [authentication-option]
hostnossl  database user CIDR-address authentication-method [authentication-option]
host       database user IP-address IP-mask authentication-method [authentication-
hostssl    database user IP-address IP-mask authentication-method [authentication-
hostnossl  database user IP-address IP-mask authentication-method [authentication-
```

The meaning of the fields is as follows:

local

This record matches connection attempts using Unix-domain sockets. Without a record of this type, Unix-domain socket connections are disallowed.

host

This record matches connection attempts made using TCP/IP. *host* records match either SSL or non-SSL connection attempts.

Note: Remote TCP/IP connections will not be possible unless the server is started with an appropriate value for the `listen_addresses` configuration parameter, since the default behavior is to listen for TCP/IP connections only on the local loopback address `localhost`.

hostssl

This record matches connection attempts made using TCP/IP, but only when the connection is made with SSL encryption.

To make use of this option the server must be built with SSL support. Furthermore, SSL must be enabled at server start time by setting the `ssl` configuration parameter (see Section 16.7 for more information).

hostnossl

This record type has the opposite logic to *hostssl*: it only matches connection attempts made over TCP/IP that do not use SSL.

database

Specifies which databases this record matches. The value `all` specifies that it matches all databases. The value `sameuser` specifies that the record matches if the requested database has the same name as the requested user. The value `samegroup` specifies that the requested user must be a member of the group with the same name as the requested database. Otherwise, this is the name of a specific PostgreSQL database. Multiple database names can be supplied by separating them with commas. A file containing database names can be specified by preceding the file name with `@`.

user

Specifies which PostgreSQL users this record matches. The value `all` specifies that it matches all users. Otherwise, this is the name of a specific PostgreSQL user. Multiple user names can be supplied by separating them with commas. Group names can be specified by preceding the group name with `+`. A file containing user names can be specified by preceding the file name with `@`.

CIDR-address

Specifies the client machine IP address range that this record matches. It contains an IP address in standard dotted decimal notation and a CIDR mask length. (IP addresses can only be specified numerically, not as domain or host names.) The mask length indicates the number of high-order bits of the client IP address that must match. Bits to the right of this must be zero in the given IP address. There must not be any white space between the IP address, the `/`, and the CIDR mask length.

A typical *CIDR-address* is `172.20.143.89/32` for a single host, or `172.20.143.0/24` for a network. To specify a single host, use a CIDR mask of 32 for IPv4 or 128 for IPv6.

An IP address given in IPv4 format will match IPv6 connections that have the corresponding address, for example `127.0.0.1` will match the IPv6 address `::ffff:127.0.0.1`. An entry given in IPv6 format will match only IPv6 connections, even if the represented address is in the IPv4-in-IPv6 range. Note that entries in IPv6 format will be rejected if the system's C library does not have support for IPv6 addresses.

This field only applies to `host`, `hostssl`, and `hostnossl` records.

IP-address

IP-mask

These fields may be used as an alternative to the *CIDR-address* notation. Instead of specifying the mask length, the actual mask is specified in a separate column. For example, `255.0.0.0` represents an IPv4 CIDR mask length of 8, and `255.255.255.255` represents a CIDR mask length of 32.

These fields only apply to `host`, `hostssl`, and `hostnossl` records.

authentication-method

Specifies the authentication method to use when connecting via this record. The possible choices are summarized here; details are in Section 19.2.

`trust`

Allow the connection unconditionally. This method allows anyone that can connect to the PostgreSQL database server to login as any PostgreSQL user they like, without the need for a password. See Section 19.2.1 for details.

`reject`

Reject the connection unconditionally. This is useful for “filtering out” certain hosts from a group.

`md5`

Require the client to supply an MD5-encrypted password for authentication. See Section 19.2.2 for details.

`crypt`

Require the client to supply a `crypt()`-encrypted password for authentication. `md5` is preferred for 7.2 and later clients, but pre-7.2 clients only support `crypt`. See Section 19.2.2 for details.

`password`

Require the client to supply an unencrypted password for authentication. Since the password is sent in clear text over the network, this should not be used on untrusted networks. See Section 19.2.2 for details.

`krb4`

Use Kerberos V4 to authenticate the user. This is only available for TCP/IP connections. See Section 19.2.3 for details.

`krb5`

Use Kerberos V5 to authenticate the user. This is only available for TCP/IP connections. See Section 19.2.3 for details.

`ident`

Obtain the operating system user name of the client (for TCP/IP connections by contacting the `ident` server on the client, for local connections by getting it from the operating system) and check if the user is allowed to connect as the requested database user by consulting the map specified after the `ident` key word. See Section 19.2.4 for details.

`pam`

Authenticate using the Pluggable Authentication Modules (PAM) service provided by the operating system. See Section 19.2.5 for details.

authentication-option

The meaning of this optional field depends on the chosen authentication method. Details appear below.

Files included by `@` constructs are read as lists of names, which can be separated by either whitespace or commas. Comments are introduced by `#`, just as in `pg_hba.conf`, and nested `@` constructs are allowed. Unless the file name following `@` is an absolute path, it is taken to be relative to the directory containing the referencing file.

Since the `pg_hba.conf` records are examined sequentially for each connection attempt, the order of the records is significant. Typically, earlier records will have tight connection match parameters and weaker authentication methods, while later records will have looser match parameters and stronger authentication methods. For example, one might wish to use `trust` authentication for local TCP/IP connections but require a password for remote TCP/IP connections. In this case a record specifying `trust` authentication for connections from 127.0.0.1 would appear before a record specifying password authentication for a wider range of allowed client IP addresses.

The `pg_hba.conf` file is read on start-up and when the main server process (`postmaster`) receives a `SIGHUP` signal. If you edit the file on an active system, you will need to signal the `postmaster` (using `pg_ctl reload` or `kill -HUP`) to make it re-read the file.

Some examples of `pg_hba.conf` entries are shown in Example 19-1. See the next section for details on the different authentication methods.

Example 19-1. Example `pg_hba.conf` entries

```
# Allow any user on the local system to connect to any database under
# any user name using Unix-domain sockets (the default for local
# connections).
#
# TYPE      DATABASE      USER      CIDR-ADDRESS      METHOD
local      all           all              trust

# The same using local loopback TCP/IP connections.
#
# TYPE      DATABASE      USER      CIDR-ADDRESS      METHOD
```

```

host    all          all          127.0.0.1/32      trust

# The same as the last line but using a separate netmask column
#
# TYPE  DATABASE  USER      IP-ADDRESS  IP-MASK      METHOD
host    all          all        127.0.0.1   255.255.255.255  trust

# Allow any user from any host with IP address 192.168.93.x to connect
# to database "template1" as the same user name that ident reports for
# the connection (typically the Unix user name).
#
# TYPE  DATABASE  USER      CIDR-ADDRESS  METHOD
host    template1  all        192.168.93.0/24  ident sameuser

# Allow a user from host 192.168.12.10 to connect to database
# "template1" if the user's password is correctly supplied.
#
# TYPE  DATABASE  USER      CIDR-ADDRESS  METHOD
host    template1  all        192.168.12.10/32  md5

# In the absence of preceding "host" lines, these two lines will
# reject all connection from 192.168.54.1 (since that entry will be
# matched first), but allow Kerberos 5 connections from anywhere else
# on the Internet. The zero mask means that no bits of the host IP
# address are considered so it matches any host.
#
# TYPE  DATABASE  USER      CIDR-ADDRESS  METHOD
host    all          all        192.168.54.1/32  reject
host    all          all        0.0.0.0/0       krb5

# Allow users from 192.168.x.x hosts to connect to any database, if
# they pass the ident check. If, for example, ident says the user is
# "bryanh" and he requests to connect as PostgreSQL user "guest1", the
# connection is allowed if there is an entry in pg_ident.conf for map
# "omicron" that says "bryanh" is allowed to connect as "guest1".
#
# TYPE  DATABASE  USER      CIDR-ADDRESS  METHOD
host    all          all        192.168.0.0/16  ident omicron

# If these are the only three lines for local connections, they will
# allow local users to connect only to their own databases (databases
# with the same name as their user name) except for administrators and
# members of group "support" who may connect to all databases. The file
# $PGDATA/admins contains a list of user names. Passwords are required in
# all cases.
#
# TYPE  DATABASE  USER      CIDR-ADDRESS  METHOD
local  sameuser  all        md5
local  all        @admins    md5
local  all        +support   md5

# The last two lines above can be combined into a single line:
local  all        @admins,+support  md5

```

```
# The database column can also use lists and file names, but not groups:
local  db1,db2,@demodbs  all          md5
```

19.2. Authentication methods

The following subsections describe the authentication methods in more detail.

19.2.1. Trust authentication

When `trust` authentication is specified, PostgreSQL assumes that anyone who can connect to the server is authorized to access the database with whatever database user they specify (including the database superuser). Of course, restrictions made in the `database` and `user` columns still apply. This method should only be used when there is adequate operating-system-level protection on connections to the server.

`trust` authentication is appropriate and very convenient for local connections on a single-user workstation. It is usually *not* appropriate by itself on a multiuser machine. However, you may be able to use `trust` even on a multiuser machine, if you restrict access to the server's Unix-domain socket file using file-system permissions. To do this, set the `unix_socket_permissions` (and possibly `unix_socket_group`) configuration parameters as described in Section 16.4.2. Or you could set the `unix_socket_directory` configuration parameter to place the socket file in a suitably restricted directory.

Setting file-system permissions only helps for Unix-socket connections. Local TCP/IP connections are not restricted by it; therefore, if you want to use file-system permissions for local security, remove the `host ... 127.0.0.1 ...` line from `pg_hba.conf`, or change it to a non-`trust` authentication method.

`trust` authentication is only suitable for TCP/IP connections if you trust every user on every machine that is allowed to connect to the server by the `pg_hba.conf` lines that specify `trust`. It is seldom reasonable to use `trust` for any TCP/IP connections other than those from localhost (127.0.0.1).

19.2.2. Password authentication

The password-based authentication methods are `md5`, `crypt`, and `password`. These methods operate similarly except for the way that the password is sent across the connection. But only `md5` supports encrypted passwords stored in `pg_shadow`; the other two require unencrypted passwords to be stored there.

If you are at all concerned about password “sniffing” attacks then `md5` is preferred, with `crypt` a second choice if you must support pre-7.2 clients. Plain `password` should especially be avoided for connections over the open Internet (unless you use SSL, SSH, or other communications security wrappers around the connection).

PostgreSQL database passwords are separate from operating system user passwords. The password for each database user is stored in the `pg_shadow` system catalog table. Passwords can be managed with the SQL commands `CREATE USER` and `ALTER USER`, e.g., `CREATE USER foo WITH PASSWORD 'secret'`; . By default, that is, if no password has been set up, the stored password is null and password authentication will always fail for that user.

19.2.3. Kerberos authentication

Kerberos is an industry-standard secure authentication system suitable for distributed computing over a public network. A description of the Kerberos system is far beyond the scope of this document; in full generality it can be quite complex (yet powerful). The Kerberos FAQ¹ or MIT Project Athena² can be a good starting point for exploration. Several sources for Kerberos distributions exist.

While PostgreSQL supports both Kerberos 4 and Kerberos 5, only Kerberos 5 is recommended. Kerberos 4 is considered insecure and no longer recommended for general use.

In order to use Kerberos, support for it must be enabled at build time. See Chapter 14 for more information. Both Kerberos 4 and 5 are supported, but only one version can be supported in any one build.

PostgreSQL operates like a normal Kerberos service. The name of the service principal is *servicename/hostname@realm*, where *servicename* is *postgres* (unless a different service name was selected at configure time with `./configure --with-krb-srvnam=whatever`). *hostname* is the fully qualified host name of the server machine. The service principal's realm is the preferred realm of the server machine.

Client principals must have their PostgreSQL user name as their first component, for example *pgusername/otherstuff@realm*. At present the realm of the client is not checked by PostgreSQL; so if you have cross-realm authentication enabled, then any principal in any realm that can communicate with yours will be accepted.

Make sure that your server key file is readable (and preferably only readable) by the PostgreSQL server account. (See also Section 16.1.) The location of the key file is specified by the `krb_server_keyfile` configuration parameter. (See also Section 16.4.) The default is `/etc/srvtab` if you are using Kerberos 4 and `/usr/local/pgsql/etc/krb5.keytab` (or whichever directory was specified as `sysconfdir` at build time) with Kerberos 5.

To generate the keytab file, use for example (with version 5)

```
kadmin% ank -randkey postgres/server.my.domain.org
kadmin% ktadd -k krb5.keytab postgres/server.my.domain.org
```

Read the Kerberos documentation for details.

When connecting to the database make sure you have a ticket for a principal matching the requested database user name. An example: For database user name *fred*, both principal *fred@EXAMPLE.COM* and *fred/users.example.com@EXAMPLE.COM* can be used to authenticate to the database server.

If you use `mod_auth_kerb` from <http://modauthkerb.sf.net> and `mod_perl` on your Apache web server, you can use `AuthType KerberosV5SaveCredentials` with a `mod_perl` script. This gives secure database access over the web, no extra passwords required.

19.2.4. Ident-based authentication

The ident authentication method works by obtaining the client's operating system user name and determining the allowed database user names using a map file that lists the permitted corresponding pairs of names. The determination of the client's user name is the security-critical point, and it works differently depending on the connection type.

1. <http://www.nrl.navy.mil/CCS/people/kenh/kerberos-faq.html>
 2. <ftp://athena-dist.mit.edu>

19.2.4.1. Ident Authentication over TCP/IP

The “Identification Protocol” is described in *RFC 1413*. Virtually every Unix-like operating system ships with an ident server that listens on TCP port 113 by default. The basic functionality of an ident server is to answer questions like “What user initiated the connection that goes out of your port *X* and connects to my port *Y*?”. Since PostgreSQL knows both *X* and *Y* when a physical connection is established, it can interrogate the ident server on the host of the connecting client and could theoretically determine the operating system user for any given connection this way.

The drawback of this procedure is that it depends on the integrity of the client: if the client machine is untrusted or compromised an attacker could run just about any program on port 113 and return any user name he chooses. This authentication method is therefore only appropriate for closed networks where each client machine is under tight control and where the database and system administrators operate in close contact. In other words, you must trust the machine running the ident server. Heed the warning:

RFC 1413

The Identification Protocol is not intended as an authorization or access control protocol.

19.2.4.2. Ident Authentication over Local Sockets

On systems supporting `SO_PEERCREC` requests for Unix-domain sockets (currently Linux, FreeBSD, NetBSD, OpenBSD, and BSD/OS), ident authentication can also be applied to local connections. In this case, no security risk is added by using ident authentication; indeed it is a preferable choice for local connections on such systems.

On systems without `SO_PEERCREC` requests, ident authentication is only available for TCP/IP connections. As a work-around, it is possible to specify the localhost address 127.0.0.1 and make connections to this address. This method is trustworthy to the extent that you trust the local ident server.

19.2.4.3. Ident Maps

When using ident-based authentication, after having determined the name of the operating system user that initiated the connection, PostgreSQL checks whether that user is allowed to connect as the database user he is requesting to connect as. This is controlled by the ident map argument that follows the `ident` key word in the `pg_hba.conf` file. There is a predefined ident map `sameuser`, which allows any operating system user to connect as the database user of the same name (if the latter exists). Other maps must be created manually.

Ident maps other than `sameuser` are defined in the ident map file, which by default is named `pg_ident.conf` and is stored in the cluster’s data directory. (It is possible to place the map file elsewhere, however; see the `ident_file` configuration parameter.) The ident map file contains lines of the general form:

```
map-name ident-username database-username
```

Comments and whitespace are handled in the same way as in `pg_hba.conf`. The *map-name* is an arbitrary name that will be used to refer to this mapping in `pg_hba.conf`. The other two fields specify which operating system user is allowed to connect as which database user. The same *map-name* can be

used repeatedly to specify more user-mappings within a single map. There is no restriction regarding how many database users a given operating system user may correspond to, nor vice versa.

The `pg_ident.conf` file is read on start-up and when the main server process (`postmaster`) receives a `SIGHUP` signal. If you edit the file on an active system, you will need to signal the `postmaster` (using `pg_ctl reload` or `kill -HUP`) to make it re-read the file.

A `pg_ident.conf` file that could be used in conjunction with the `pg_hba.conf` file in Example 19-1 is shown in Example 19-2. In this example setup, anyone logged in to a machine on the 192.168 network that does not have the Unix user name `bryanh`, `ann`, or `robert` would not be granted access. Unix user `robert` would only be allowed access when he tries to connect as PostgreSQL user `bob`, not as `robert` or anyone else. `ann` would only be allowed to connect as `ann`. User `bryanh` would be allowed to connect as either `bryanh` himself or as `guest1`.

Example 19-2. An example `pg_ident.conf` file

```
# MAPNAME      IDENT-USERNAME  PG-USERNAME

omicron       bryanh          bryanh
omicron       ann             ann
# bob has user name robert on these machines
omicron       robert         bob
# bryanh can also connect as guest1
omicron       bryanh        guest1
```

19.2.5. PAM authentication

This authentication method operates similarly to `password` except that it uses PAM (Pluggable Authentication Modules) as the authentication mechanism. The default PAM service name is `postgresql`. You can optionally supply your own service name after the `pam` key word in the file `pg_hba.conf`. For more information about PAM, please read the Linux-PAM Page⁴ and the Solaris PAM Page⁵.

19.3. Authentication problems

Genuine authentication failures and related problems generally manifest themselves through error messages like the following.

```
FATAL: no pg_hba.conf entry for host "123.123.123.123", user "andym", database "testdb"
```

This is what you are most likely to get if you succeed in contacting the server, but it does not want to talk to you. As the message suggests, the server refused the connection request because it found no authorizing entry in its `pg_hba.conf` configuration file.

```
FATAL: Password authentication failed for user "andym"
```

4. <http://www.kernel.org/pub/linux/libs/pam/>

5. <http://www.sun.com/software/solaris/pam/>

Messages like this indicate that you contacted the server, and it is willing to talk to you, but not until you pass the authorization method specified in the `pg_hba.conf` file. Check the password you are providing, or check your Kerberos or ident software if the complaint mentions one of those authentication types.

```
FATAL:  user "andym" does not exist
```

The indicated user name was not found.

```
FATAL:  database "testdb" does not exist
```

The database you are trying to connect to does not exist. Note that if you do not specify a database name, it defaults to the database user name, which may or may not be the right thing.

Tip: The server log may contain more information about an authentication failure than is reported to the client. If you are confused about the reason for a failure, check the log.

Chapter 20. Localization

This chapter describes the available localization features from the point of view of the administrator. PostgreSQL supports localization with two approaches:

- Using the locale features of the operating system to provide locale-specific collation order, number formatting, translated messages, and other aspects.
- Providing a number of different character sets defined in the PostgreSQL server, including multiple-byte character sets, to support storing text in all kinds of languages, and providing character set translation between client and server.

20.1. Locale Support

Locale support refers to an application respecting cultural preferences regarding alphabets, sorting, number formatting, etc. PostgreSQL uses the standard ISO C and POSIX locale facilities provided by the server operating system. For additional information refer to the documentation of your system.

20.1.1. Overview

Locale support is automatically initialized when a database cluster is created using `initdb`. `initdb` will initialize the database cluster with the locale setting of its execution environment by default, so if your system is already set to use the locale that you want in your database cluster then there is nothing else you need to do. If you want to use a different locale (or you are not sure which locale your system is set to), you can instruct `initdb` exactly which locale to use by specifying the `--locale` option. For example:

```
initdb --locale=sv_SE
```

This example sets the locale to Swedish (`sv`) as spoken in Sweden (`SE`). Other possibilities might be `en_US` (U.S. English) and `fr_CA` (French Canadian). If more than one character set can be useful for a locale then the specifications look like this: `cs_CZ.ISO8859-2`. What locales are available under what names on your system depends on what was provided by the operating system vendor and what was installed. (On most systems, the command `locale -a` will provide a list of available locales.)

Occasionally it is useful to mix rules from several locales, e.g., use English collation rules but Spanish messages. To support that, a set of locale subcategories exist that control only a certain aspect of the localization rules:

<code>LC_COLLATE</code>	String sort order
<code>LC_CTYPE</code>	Character classification (What is a letter? Its upper-case equivalent?)
<code>LC_MESSAGES</code>	Language of messages
<code>LC_MONETARY</code>	Formatting of currency amounts

LC_NUMERIC	Formatting of numbers
LC_TIME	Formatting of dates and times

The category names translate into names of `initdb` options to override the locale choice for a specific category. For instance, to set the locale to French Canadian, but use U.S. rules for formatting currency, use `initdb --locale=fr_CA --lc-monetary=en_US`.

If you want the system to behave as if it had no locale support, use the special locale `C` or `POSIX`.

The nature of some locale categories is that their value has to be fixed for the lifetime of a database cluster. That is, once `initdb` has run, you cannot change them anymore. `LC_COLLATE` and `LC_CTYPE` are those categories. They affect the sort order of indexes, so they must be kept fixed, or indexes on text columns will become corrupt. PostgreSQL enforces this by recording the values of `LC_COLLATE` and `LC_CTYPE` that are seen by `initdb`. The server automatically adopts those two values when it is started.

The other locale categories can be changed as desired whenever the server is running by setting the runtime configuration variables that have the same name as the locale categories (see Section 16.4.8.2 for details). The defaults that are chosen by `initdb` are actually only written into the configuration file `postgresql.conf` to serve as defaults when the server is started. If you delete the assignments from `postgresql.conf` then the server will inherit the settings from the execution environment.

Note that the locale behavior of the server is determined by the environment variables seen by the server, not by the environment of any client. Therefore, be careful to configure the correct locale settings before starting the server. A consequence of this is that if client and server are set up in different locales, messages may appear in different languages depending on where they originated.

Note: When we speak of inheriting the locale from the execution environment, this means the following on most operating systems: For a given locale category, say the collation, the following environment variables are consulted in this order until one is found to be set: `LC_ALL`, `LC_COLLATE` (the variable corresponding to the respective category), `LANG`. If none of these environment variables are set then the locale defaults to `C`.

Some message localization libraries also look at the environment variable `LANGUAGE` which overrides all other locale settings for the purpose of setting the language of messages. If in doubt, please refer to the documentation of your operating system, in particular the documentation about `gettext`, for more information.

To enable messages to be translated to the user's preferred language, NLS must have been enabled at build time. This choice is independent of the other locale support.

20.1.2. Behavior

Locale support influences the following features:

- Sort order in queries using `ORDER BY`
- The ability to use indexes with `LIKE` clauses
- The `to_char` family of functions

The drawback of using locales other than `C` or `POSIX` in PostgreSQL is its performance impact. It slows character handling and prevents ordinary indexes from being used by `LIKE`. For this reason use locales only if you actually need them.

20.1.3. Problems

If locale support doesn't work in spite of the explanation above, check that the locale support in your operating system is correctly configured. To check what locales are installed on your system, you may use the command `locale -a` if your operating system provides it.

Check that PostgreSQL is actually using the locale that you think it is. `LC_COLLATE` and `LC_CTYPE` settings are determined at `initdb` time and cannot be changed without repeating `initdb`. Other locale settings including `LC_MESSAGES` and `LC_MONETARY` are initially determined by the environment the server is started in, but can be changed on-the-fly. You can check the active locale settings using the `SHOW` command.

The directory `src/test/locale` in the source distribution contains a test suite for PostgreSQL's locale support.

Client applications that handle server-side errors by parsing the text of the error message will obviously have problems when the server's messages are in a different language. Authors of such applications are advised to make use of the error code scheme instead.

Maintaining catalogs of message translations requires the on-going efforts of many volunteers that want to see PostgreSQL speak their preferred language well. If messages in your language are currently not available or not fully translated, your assistance would be appreciated. If you want to help, refer to Chapter 44 or write to the developers' mailing list.

20.2. Character Set Support

The character set support in PostgreSQL allows you to store text in a variety of character sets, including single-byte character sets such as the ISO 8859 series and multiple-byte character sets such as EUC (Extended Unix Code), Unicode, and Mule internal code. All character sets can be used transparently throughout the server. (If you use extension functions from other sources, it depends on whether they wrote their code correctly.) The default character set is selected while initializing your PostgreSQL database cluster using `initdb`. It can be overridden when you create a database using `createdb` or by using the SQL command `CREATE DATABASE`. So you can have multiple databases each with a different character set.

20.2.1. Supported Character Sets

Table 20-1 shows the character sets available for use in the server.

Table 20-1. Server Character Sets

Name	Description
------	-------------

Name	Description
SQL_ASCII	ASCII
EUC_JP	Japanese EUC
EUC_CN	Chinese EUC
EUC_KR	Korean EUC
JOHAB	Korean EUC (Hangle base)
EUC_TW	Taiwan EUC
UNICODE	Unicode (UTF-8)
MULE_INTERNAL	Mule internal code
LATIN1	ISO 8859-1/ECMA 94 (Latin alphabet no.1)
LATIN2	ISO 8859-2/ECMA 94 (Latin alphabet no.2)
LATIN3	ISO 8859-3/ECMA 94 (Latin alphabet no.3)
LATIN4	ISO 8859-4/ECMA 94 (Latin alphabet no.4)
LATIN5	ISO 8859-9/ECMA 128 (Latin alphabet no.5)
LATIN6	ISO 8859-10/ECMA 144 (Latin alphabet no.6)
LATIN7	ISO 8859-13 (Latin alphabet no.7)
LATIN8	ISO 8859-14 (Latin alphabet no.8)
LATIN9	ISO 8859-15 (Latin alphabet no.9)
LATIN10	ISO 8859-16/ASRO SR 14111 (Latin alphabet no.10)
ISO_8859_5	ISO 8859-5/ECMA 113 (Latin/Cyrillic)
ISO_8859_6	ISO 8859-6/ECMA 114 (Latin/Arabic)
ISO_8859_7	ISO 8859-7/ECMA 118 (Latin/Greek)
ISO_8859_8	ISO 8859-8/ECMA 121 (Latin/Hebrew)
KOI8	KOI8-R(U)
ALT	Windows CP866
WIN874	Windows CP874 (Thai)
WIN1250	Windows CP1250
WIN	Windows CP1251
WIN1256	Windows CP1256 (Arabic)
TCVN	TCVN-5712/Windows CP1258 (Vietnamese)

Important: Before PostgreSQL 7.2, `LATIN5` mistakenly meant ISO 8859-5. From 7.2 on, `LATIN5` means ISO 8859-9. If you have a `LATIN5` database created on 7.1 or earlier and want to migrate to 7.2 or later, you should be careful about this change.

Not all APIs support all the listed character sets. For example, the PostgreSQL JDBC driver does not support `MULE_INTERNAL`, `LATIN6`, `LATIN8`, and `LATIN10`.

20.2.2. Setting the Character Set

`initdb` defines the default character set for a PostgreSQL cluster. For example,

```
initdb -E EUC_JP
```

sets the default character set (encoding) to `EUC_JP` (Extended Unix Code for Japanese). You can use `--encoding` instead of `-E` if you prefer to type longer option strings. If no `-E` or `--encoding` option is given, `SQL_ASCII` is used.

You can create a database with a different character set:

```
createdb -E EUC_KR korean
```

This will create a database named `korean` that uses the character set `EUC_KR`. Another way to accomplish this is to use this SQL command:

```
CREATE DATABASE korean WITH ENCODING 'EUC_KR';
```

The encoding for a database is stored in the system catalog `pg_database`. You can see that by using the `-l` option or the `\l` command of `psql`.

```
$ psql -l
          List of databases
 Database | Owner  | Encoding
-----+-----+-----
 euc_cn   | t-ishii | EUC_CN
 euc_jp   | t-ishii | EUC_JP
 euc_kr   | t-ishii | EUC_KR
 euc_tw   | t-ishii | EUC_TW
 mule_internal | t-ishii | MULE_INTERNAL
 regression | t-ishii | SQL_ASCII
 template1 | t-ishii | EUC_JP
 test     | t-ishii | EUC_JP
 unicode  | t-ishii | UNICODE
(9 rows)
```

Important: Although you can specify any encoding you want for a database, it is unwise to choose an encoding that is not what is expected by the locale you have selected. The `LC_COLLATE` and `LC_CTYPE` settings imply a particular encoding, and locale-dependent operations (such as sorting) are likely to misinterpret data that is in an incompatible encoding.

Since these locale settings are frozen by `initdb`, the apparent flexibility to use different encodings in different databases of a cluster is more theoretical than real. It is likely that these mechanisms will be revisited in future versions of PostgreSQL.

One way to use multiple encodings safely is to set the locale to `C` or `POSIX` during `initdb`, thus disabling any real locale awareness.

20.2.3. Automatic Character Set Conversion Between Server and Client

PostgreSQL supports automatic character set conversion between server and client for certain character sets. The conversion information is stored in the `pg_conversion` system catalog. You can create a new conversion by using the SQL command `CREATE CONVERSION`. PostgreSQL comes with some predefined conversions. They are listed in Table 20-2.

Table 20-2. Client/Server Character Set Conversions

Server Character Set	Available Client Character Sets
SQL_ASCII	SQL_ASCII, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
EUC_JP	EUC_JP, SJIS, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
EUC_CN	EUC_CN, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
EUC_KR	EUC_KR, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
JOHAB	JOHAB, UNICODE
EUC_TW	EUC_TW, BIG5, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
LATIN1	LATIN1, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
LATIN2	LATIN2, WIN1250, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
LATIN3	LATIN3, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
LATIN4	LATIN4, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
LATIN5	LATIN5, UNICODE
LATIN6	LATIN6, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
LATIN7	LATIN7, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
LATIN8	LATIN8, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
LATIN9	LATIN9, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
LATIN10	LATIN10, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
ISO_8859_5	ISO_8859_5, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL, WIN, ALT, KOI8
ISO_8859_6	ISO_8859_6, UNICODE
ISO_8859_7	ISO_8859_7, UNICODE
ISO_8859_8	ISO_8859_8, UNICODE
UNICODE	EUC_JP, SJIS, EUC_KR, UHC, JOHAB, EUC_CN, GBK, EUC_TW, BIG5, LATIN1 to LATIN10, ISO_8859_5, ISO_8859_6, ISO_8859_7, ISO_8859_8, WIN, ALT, KOI8, WIN1256, TCVN, WIN874, GB18030, WIN1250
MULE_INTERNAL	EUC_JP, SJIS, EUC_KR, EUC_CN, EUC_TW, BIG5, LATIN1 to LATIN5, WIN, ALT, WIN1250, BIG5, ISO_8859_5, KOI8
KOI8	ISO_8859_5, WIN, ALT, KOI8, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
ALT	ISO_8859_5, WIN, ALT, KOI8, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL

Server Character Set	Available Client Character Sets
WIN874	WIN874, UNICODE
WIN1250	LATIN2, WIN1250, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
WIN	ISO_8859_5, WIN, ALT, KOI8, UNICODE, MULE_INTERNAL
WIN1256	WIN1256, UNICODE
TCVN	TCVN, UNICODE

To enable the automatic character set conversion, you have to tell PostgreSQL the character set (encoding) you would like to use in the client. There are several ways to accomplish this:

- Using the `\encoding` command in `psql`. `\encoding` allows you to change client encoding on the fly. For example, to change the encoding to `SJIS`, type:

```
\encoding SJIS
```

- Using `libpq` functions. `\encoding` actually calls `PQsetClientEncoding()` for its purpose.

```
int PQsetClientEncoding(PGconn *conn, const char *encoding);
```

where `conn` is a connection to the server, and `encoding` is the encoding you want to use. If the function successfully sets the encoding, it returns 0, otherwise -1. The current encoding for this connection can be determined by using:

```
int PQclientEncoding(const PGconn *conn);
```

Note that it returns the encoding ID, not a symbolic string such as `EUC_JP`. To convert an encoding ID to an encoding name, you can use:

```
char *pg_encoding_to_char(int encoding_id);
```

- Using `SET client_encoding TO`. Setting the client encoding can be done with this SQL command:

```
SET CLIENT_ENCODING TO 'value';
```

Also you can use the more standard SQL syntax `SET NAMES` for this purpose:

```
SET NAMES 'value';
```

To query the current client encoding:

```
SHOW client_encoding;
```

To return to the default encoding:

```
RESET client_encoding;
```

- Using `PGCLIENTENCODING`. If the environment variable `PGCLIENTENCODING` is defined in the client's environment, that client encoding is automatically selected when a connection to the server is made. (This can subsequently be overridden using any of the other methods mentioned above.)
- Using the configuration variable `client_encoding`. If the `client_encoding` variable is set, that client encoding is automatically selected when a connection to the server is made. (This can subsequently be overridden using any of the other methods mentioned above.)

If the conversion of a particular character is not possible — suppose you chose `EUC_JP` for the server and `LATIN1` for the client, then some Japanese characters cannot be converted to `LATIN1` — it is transformed to its hexadecimal byte values in parentheses, e.g., `(826C)`.

20.2.4. Further Reading

These are good sources to start learning about various kinds of encoding systems.

<ftp://ftp.ora.com/pub/examples/nutshell/ujip/doc/cjk.inf>

Detailed explanations of `EUC_JP`, `EUC_CN`, `EUC_KR`, `EUC_TW` appear in section 3.2.

<http://www.unicode.org/>

The web site of the Unicode Consortium

RFC 2044

UTF-8 is defined here.

Chapter 21. Routine Database Maintenance Tasks

There are a few routine maintenance chores that must be performed on a regular basis to keep a PostgreSQL server running smoothly. The tasks discussed here are repetitive in nature and can easily be automated using standard Unix tools such as cron scripts. But it is the database administrator's responsibility to set up appropriate scripts, and to check that they execute successfully.

One obvious maintenance task is creation of backup copies of the data on a regular schedule. Without a recent backup, you have no chance of recovery after a catastrophe (disk failure, fire, mistakenly dropping a critical table, etc.). The backup and recovery mechanisms available in PostgreSQL are discussed at length in Chapter 22.

The other main category of maintenance task is periodic “vacuuming” of the database. This activity is discussed in Section 21.1.

Something else that might need periodic attention is log file management. This is discussed in Section 21.3.

PostgreSQL is low-maintenance compared to some other database management systems. Nonetheless, appropriate attention to these tasks will go far towards ensuring a pleasant and productive experience with the system.

21.1. Routine Vacuuming

PostgreSQL's `VACUUM` command must be run on a regular basis for several reasons:

1. To recover disk space occupied by updated or deleted rows.
2. To update data statistics used by the PostgreSQL query planner.
3. To protect against loss of very old data due to *transaction ID wraparound*.

The frequency and scope of the `VACUUM` operations performed for each of these reasons will vary depending on the needs of each site. Therefore, database administrators must understand these issues and develop an appropriate maintenance strategy. This section concentrates on explaining the high-level issues; for details about command syntax and so on, see the `VACUUM` reference page.

Beginning in PostgreSQL 7.2, the standard form of `VACUUM` can run in parallel with normal database operations (selects, inserts, updates, deletes, but not changes to table definitions). Routine vacuuming is therefore not nearly as intrusive as it was in prior releases, and it is not as critical to try to schedule it at low-usage times of day.

Beginning in PostgreSQL 8.0, there are configuration parameters that can be adjusted to further reduce the performance impact of background vacuuming. See Section 16.4.3.4.

21.1.1. Recovering disk space

In normal PostgreSQL operation, an `UPDATE` or `DELETE` of a row does not immediately remove the old version of the row. This approach is necessary to gain the benefits of multiversion concurrency control (see

Chapter 12): the row version must not be deleted while it is still potentially visible to other transactions. But eventually, an outdated or deleted row version is no longer of interest to any transaction. The space it occupies must be reclaimed for reuse by new rows, to avoid infinite growth of disk space requirements. This is done by running `VACUUM`.

Clearly, a table that receives frequent updates or deletes will need to be vacuumed more often than tables that are seldom updated. It may be useful to set up periodic cron tasks that `VACUUM` only selected tables, skipping tables that are known not to change often. This is only likely to be helpful if you have both large heavily-updated tables and large seldom-updated tables — the extra cost of vacuuming a small table isn't enough to be worth worrying about.

There are two variants of the `VACUUM` command. The first form, known as “lazy vacuum” or just `VACUUM`, marks expired data in tables and indexes for future reuse; it does *not* attempt to reclaim the space used by this expired data immediately. Therefore, the table file is not shortened, and any unused space in the file is not returned to the operating system. This variant of `VACUUM` can be run concurrently with normal database operations.

The second form is the `VACUUM FULL` command. This uses a more aggressive algorithm for reclaiming the space consumed by expired row versions. Any space that is freed by `VACUUM FULL` is immediately returned to the operating system. Unfortunately, this variant of the `VACUUM` command acquires an exclusive lock on each table while `VACUUM FULL` is processing it. Therefore, frequently using `VACUUM FULL` can have an extremely negative effect on the performance of concurrent database queries.

The standard form of `VACUUM` is best used with the goal of maintaining a fairly level steady-state usage of disk space. If you need to return disk space to the operating system you can use `VACUUM FULL` — but what's the point of releasing disk space that will only have to be allocated again soon? Moderately frequent standard `VACUUM` runs are a better approach than infrequent `VACUUM FULL` runs for maintaining heavily-updated tables.

Recommended practice for most sites is to schedule a database-wide `VACUUM` once a day at a low-usage time of day, supplemented by more frequent vacuuming of heavily-updated tables if necessary. (Some installations with an extremely high rate of data modification vacuum busy tables as often as once every few minutes.) If you have multiple databases in a cluster, don't forget to `VACUUM` each one; the program `vacuumdb` may be helpful.

Tip: The `contrib/pg_autovacuum` program can be useful for automating high-frequency vacuuming operations.

`VACUUM FULL` is recommended for cases where you know you have deleted the majority of rows in a table, so that the steady-state size of the table can be shrunk substantially with `VACUUM FULL`'s more aggressive approach. Use plain `VACUUM`, not `VACUUM FULL`, for routine vacuuming for space recovery.

If you have a table whose contents are deleted on a periodic basis, consider doing it with `TRUNCATE` rather than using `DELETE` followed by `VACUUM`. `TRUNCATE` removes the entire content of the table immediately, without requiring a subsequent `VACUUM` or `VACUUM FULL` to reclaim the now-unused disk space.

21.1.2. Updating planner statistics

The PostgreSQL query planner relies on statistical information about the contents of tables in order to generate good plans for queries. These statistics are gathered by the `ANALYZE` command, which can be

invoked by itself or as an optional step in `VACUUM`. It is important to have reasonably accurate statistics, otherwise poor choices of plans may degrade database performance.

As with vacuuming for space recovery, frequent updates of statistics are more useful for heavily-updated tables than for seldom-updated ones. But even for a heavily-updated table, there may be no need for statistics updates if the statistical distribution of the data is not changing much. A simple rule of thumb is to think about how much the minimum and maximum values of the columns in the table change. For example, a `timestamp` column that contains the time of row update will have a constantly-increasing maximum value as rows are added and updated; such a column will probably need more frequent statistics updates than, say, a column containing URLs for pages accessed on a website. The URL column may receive changes just as often, but the statistical distribution of its values probably changes relatively slowly.

It is possible to run `ANALYZE` on specific tables and even just specific columns of a table, so the flexibility exists to update some statistics more frequently than others if your application requires it. In practice, however, the usefulness of this feature is doubtful. Beginning in PostgreSQL 7.2, `ANALYZE` is a fairly fast operation even on large tables, because it uses a statistical random sampling of the rows of a table rather than reading every single row. So it's probably much simpler to just run it over the whole database every so often.

Tip: Although per-column tweaking of `ANALYZE` frequency may not be very productive, you may well find it worthwhile to do per-column adjustment of the level of detail of the statistics collected by `ANALYZE`. Columns that are heavily used in `WHERE` clauses and have highly irregular data distributions may require a finer-grain data histogram than other columns. See `ALTER TABLE SET STATISTICS`.

Recommended practice for most sites is to schedule a database-wide `ANALYZE` once a day at a low-usage time of day; this can usefully be combined with a nightly `VACUUM`. However, sites with relatively slowly changing table statistics may find that this is overkill, and that less-frequent `ANALYZE` runs are sufficient.

21.1.3. Preventing transaction ID wraparound failures

PostgreSQL's MVCC transaction semantics depend on being able to compare transaction ID (XID) numbers: a row version with an insertion XID greater than the current transaction's XID is "in the future" and should not be visible to the current transaction. But since transaction IDs have limited size (32 bits at this writing) a cluster that runs for a long time (more than 4 billion transactions) will suffer *transaction ID wraparound*: the XID counter wraps around to zero, and all of a sudden transactions that were in the past appear to be in the future — which means their outputs become invisible. In short, catastrophic data loss. (Actually the data is still there, but that's cold comfort if you can't get at it.)

Prior to PostgreSQL 7.2, the only defense against XID wraparound was to `re-initdb` at least every 4 billion transactions. This of course was not very satisfactory for high-traffic sites, so a better solution has been devised. The new approach allows a server to remain up indefinitely, without `initdb` or any sort of restart. The price is this maintenance requirement: *every table in the database must be vacuumed at least once every billion transactions*.

In practice this isn't an onerous requirement, but since the consequences of failing to meet it can be complete data loss (not just wasted disk space or slow performance), some special provisions have been made to help database administrators keep track of the time since the last `VACUUM`. The remainder of this section gives the details.

The new approach to XID comparison distinguishes two special XIDs, numbers 1 and 2 (`BootstrapXID` and `FrozenXID`). These two XIDs are always considered older than every normal XID. Normal XIDs (those greater than 2) are compared using modulo-2³¹ arithmetic. This means that for every normal XID, there are two billion XIDs that are “older” and two billion that are “newer”; another way to say it is that the normal XID space is circular with no endpoint. Therefore, once a row version has been created with a particular normal XID, the row version will appear to be “in the past” for the next two billion transactions, no matter which normal XID we are talking about. If the row version still exists after more than two billion transactions, it will suddenly appear to be in the future. To prevent data loss, old row versions must be reassigned the XID `FrozenXID` sometime before they reach the two-billion-transactions-old mark. Once they are assigned this special XID, they will appear to be “in the past” to all normal transactions regardless of wraparound issues, and so such row versions will be good until deleted, no matter how long that is. This reassignment of XID is handled by `VACUUM`.

`VACUUM`’s normal policy is to reassign `FrozenXID` to any row version with a normal XID more than one billion transactions in the past. This policy preserves the original insertion XID until it is not likely to be of interest anymore. (In fact, most row versions will probably live and die without ever being “frozen”.) With this policy, the maximum safe interval between `VACUUM` runs on any table is exactly one billion transactions: if you wait longer, it’s possible that a row version that was not quite old enough to be reassigned last time is now more than two billion transactions old and has wrapped around into the future — i.e., is lost to you. (Of course, it’ll reappear after another two billion transactions, but that’s no help.)

Since periodic `VACUUM` runs are needed anyway for the reasons described earlier, it’s unlikely that any table would not be vacuumed for as long as a billion transactions. But to help administrators ensure this constraint is met, `VACUUM` stores transaction ID statistics in the system table `pg_database`. In particular, the `datfrozenxid` column of a database’s `pg_database` row is updated at the completion of any database-wide `VACUUM` operation (i.e., `VACUUM` that does not name a specific table). The value stored in this field is the freeze cutoff XID that was used by that `VACUUM` command. All normal XIDs older than this cutoff XID are guaranteed to have been replaced by `FrozenXID` within that database. A convenient way to examine this information is to execute the query

```
SELECT datname, age(datfrozenxid) FROM pg_database;
```

The `age` column measures the number of transactions from the cutoff XID to the current transaction’s XID.

With the standard freezing policy, the `age` column will start at one billion for a freshly-vacuumed database. When the `age` approaches two billion, the database must be vacuumed again to avoid risk of wraparound failures. Recommended practice is to `VACUUM` each database at least once every half-a-billion (500 million) transactions, so as to provide plenty of safety margin. To help meet this rule, each database-wide `VACUUM` automatically delivers a warning if there are any `pg_database` entries showing an `age` of more than 1.5 billion transactions, for example:

```
play=# VACUUM;
WARNING:  some databases have not been vacuumed in 1613770184 transactions
HINT:    Better vacuum them within 533713463 transactions, or you may have a wraparound f
VACUUM
```

`VACUUM` with the `FREEZE` option uses a more aggressive freezing policy: row versions are frozen if they are old enough to be considered good by all open transactions. In particular, if a `VACUUM FREEZE` is performed in an otherwise-idle database, it is guaranteed that *all* row versions in that database will be

frozen. Hence, as long as the database is not modified in any way, it will not need subsequent vacuuming to avoid transaction ID wraparound problems. This technique is used by `initdb` to prepare the `template0` database. It should also be used to prepare any user-created databases that are to be marked `dataallowconn = false` in `pg_database`, since there isn't any convenient way to `VACUUM` a database that you can't connect to. Note that `VACUUM`'s automatic warning message about unvacuumed databases will ignore `pg_database` entries with `dataallowconn = false`, so as to avoid giving false warnings about these databases; therefore it's up to you to ensure that such databases are frozen correctly.

Warning

To be sure of safety against transaction wraparound, it is necessary to vacuum *every* table, including system catalogs, in *every* database at least once every billion transactions. We have seen data loss situations caused by people deciding that they only needed to vacuum their active user tables, rather than issuing database-wide vacuum commands. That will appear to work fine ... for a while.

21.2. Routine Reindexing

In some situations it is worthwhile to rebuild indexes periodically with the `REINDEX` command. (There is also `contrib/reindexdb` which can reindex an entire database.) However, PostgreSQL 7.4 has substantially reduced the need for this activity compared to earlier releases.

21.3. Log File Maintenance

It is a good idea to save the database server's log output somewhere, rather than just routing it to `/dev/null`. The log output is invaluable when it comes time to diagnose problems. However, the log output tends to be voluminous (especially at higher debug levels) and you won't want to save it indefinitely. You need to "rotate" the log files so that new log files are started and old ones removed after a reasonable period of time.

If you simply direct the `stderr` of the `postmaster` into a file, you will have log output, but the only way to truncate the log file is to stop and restart the `postmaster`. This may be OK if you are using PostgreSQL in a development environment, but few production servers would find this behavior acceptable.

A better approach is to send the `postmaster`'s `stderr` output to some type of log rotation program. There is a built-in log rotation program, which you can use by setting the configuration parameter `redirect_stderr` to `true` in `postgresql.conf`. The control parameters for this program are described in Section 16.4.6.1.

Alternatively, you might prefer to use an external log rotation program, if you have one that you are already using with other server software. For example, the `rotatelogs` tool included in the Apache distribution can be used with PostgreSQL. To do this, just pipe the `postmaster`'s `stderr` output to the desired program. If you start the server with `pg_ctl`, then `stderr` is already redirected to `stdout`, so you just need a pipe command, for example:

```
pg_ctl start | rotatelogs /var/log/pgsql_log 86400
```

Another production-grade approach to managing log output is to send it all to syslog and let syslog deal with file rotation. To do this, set the configuration parameter `log_destination` to `syslog` (to log to syslog only) in `postgresql.conf`. Then you can send a `SIGHUP` signal to the syslog daemon whenever you want to force it to start writing a new log file. If you want to automate log rotation, the `logrotate` program can be configured to work with log files from syslog.

On many systems, however, syslog is not very reliable, particularly with large log messages; it may truncate or drop messages just when you need them the most. Also, on Linux, syslog will sync each message to disk, yielding poor performance. (You can use a `-` at the start of the file name in the syslog configuration file to disable this behavior.)

Note that all the solutions described above take care of starting new log files at configurable intervals, but they do not handle deletion of old, no-longer-interesting log files. You will probably want to set up a batch job to periodically delete old log files. Another possibility is to configure the rotation program so that old log files are overwritten cyclically.

Chapter 22. Backup and Restore

As with everything that contains valuable data, PostgreSQL databases should be backed up regularly. While the procedure is essentially simple, it is important to have a basic understanding of the underlying techniques and assumptions.

There are three fundamentally different approaches to backing up PostgreSQL data:

- SQL dump
- File system level backup
- On-line backup

Each has its own strengths and weaknesses.

22.1. SQL Dump

The idea behind the SQL-dump method is to generate a text file with SQL commands that, when fed back to the server, will recreate the database in the same state as it was at the time of the dump. PostgreSQL provides the utility program `pg_dump` for this purpose. The basic usage of this command is:

```
pg_dump dbname > outfile
```

As you see, `pg_dump` writes its results to the standard output. We will see below how this can be useful.

`pg_dump` is a regular PostgreSQL client application (albeit a particularly clever one). This means that you can do this backup procedure from any remote host that has access to the database. But remember that `pg_dump` does not operate with special permissions. In particular, it must have read access to all tables that you want to back up, so in practice you almost always have to run it as a database superuser.

To specify which database server `pg_dump` should contact, use the command line options `-h host` and `-p port`. The default host is the local host or whatever your `PGHOST` environment variable specifies. Similarly, the default port is indicated by the `PGPORT` environment variable or, failing that, by the compiled-in default. (Conveniently, the server will normally have the same compiled-in default.)

As any other PostgreSQL client application, `pg_dump` will by default connect with the database user name that is equal to the current operating system user name. To override this, either specify the `-U` option or set the environment variable `PGUSER`. Remember that `pg_dump` connections are subject to the normal client authentication mechanisms (which are described in Chapter 19).

Dumps created by `pg_dump` are internally consistent, that is, updates to the database while `pg_dump` is running will not be in the dump. `pg_dump` does not block other operations on the database while it is working. (Exceptions are those operations that need to operate with an exclusive lock, such as `VACUUM FULL`.)

Important: When your database schema relies on OIDs (for instance as foreign keys) you must instruct `pg_dump` to dump the OIDs as well. To do this, use the `-o` command line option. “Large objects” are not dumped by default, either. See `pg_dump`’s reference page if you use large objects.

22.1.1. Restoring the dump

The text files created by `pg_dump` are intended to be read in by the `psql` program. The general command form to restore a dump is

```
psql dbname < infile
```

where *infile* is what you used as *outfile* for the `pg_dump` command. The database *dbname* will not be created by this command, you must create it yourself from `template0` before executing `psql` (e.g., with `createdb -T template0 dbname`). `psql` supports options similar to `pg_dump` for controlling the database server location and the user name. See `psql`'s reference page for more information.

Not only must the target database already exist before starting to run the restore, but so must all the users who own objects in the dumped database or were granted permissions on the objects. If they do not, then the restore will fail to recreate the objects with the original ownership and/or permissions. (Sometimes this is what you want, but usually it is not.)

Once restored, it is wise to run `ANALYZE` on each database so the optimizer has useful statistics. An easy way to do this is to run `vacuumdb -a -z` to `VACUUM ANALYZE` all databases; this is equivalent to running `VACUUM ANALYZE` manually.

The ability of `pg_dump` and `psql` to write to or read from pipes makes it possible to dump a database directly from one server to another; for example:

```
pg_dump -h host1 dbname | psql -h host2 dbname
```

Important: The dumps produced by `pg_dump` are relative to `template0`. This means that any languages, procedures, etc. added to `template1` will also be dumped by `pg_dump`. As a result, when restoring, if you are using a customized `template1`, you must create the empty database from `template0`, as in the example above.

For advice on how to load large amounts of data into PostgreSQL efficiently, refer to Section 13.4.

22.1.2. Using pg_dumpall

The above mechanism is cumbersome and inappropriate when backing up an entire database cluster. For this reason the `pg_dumpall` program is provided. `pg_dumpall` backs up each database in a given cluster, and also preserves cluster-wide data such as users and groups. The basic usage of this command is:

```
pg_dumpall > outfile
```

The resulting dump can be restored with `psql`:

```
psql template1 < infile
```

(Actually, you can specify any existing database name to start from, but if you are reloading in an empty cluster then `template1` is the only available choice.) It is always necessary to have database superuser access when restoring a `pg_dumpall` dump, as that is required to restore the user and group information.

22.1.3. Handling large databases

Since PostgreSQL allows tables larger than the maximum file size on your system, it can be problematic to dump such a table to a file, since the resulting file will likely be larger than the maximum size allowed by your system. Since `pg_dump` can write to the standard output, you can just use standard Unix tools to work around this possible problem.

Use compressed dumps. You can use your favorite compression program, for example `gzip`.

```
pg_dump dbname | gzip > filename.gz
```

Reload with

```
createdb dbname
gunzip -c filename.gz | psql dbname
```

or

```
cat filename.gz | gunzip | psql dbname
```

Use `split`. The `split` command allows you to split the output into pieces that are acceptable in size to the underlying file system. For example, to make chunks of 1 megabyte:

```
pg_dump dbname | split -b 1m - filename
```

Reload with

```
createdb dbname
cat filename* | psql dbname
```

Use the custom dump format. If PostgreSQL was built on a system with the `zlib` compression library installed, the custom dump format will compress data as it writes it to the output file. This will produce dump file sizes similar to using `gzip`, but it has the added advantage that tables can be restored selectively. The following command dumps a database using the custom dump format:

```
pg_dump -Fc dbname > filename
```

A custom-format dump is not a script for `psql`, but instead must be restored with `pg_restore`. See the `pg_dump` and `pg_restore` reference pages for details.

22.1.4. Caveats

For reasons of backward compatibility, `pg_dump` does not dump large objects by default. To dump large objects you must use either the custom or the tar output format, and use the `-b` option in `pg_dump`. See the `pg_dump` reference page for details. The directory `contrib/pg_dumplo` of the PostgreSQL source tree also contains a program that can dump large objects.

Please familiarize yourself with the `pg_dump` reference page.

22.2. File system level backup

An alternative backup strategy is to directly copy the files that PostgreSQL uses to store the data in the database. In Section 16.2 it is explained where these files are located, but you have probably found them already if you are interested in this method. You can use whatever method you prefer for doing usual file system backups, for example

```
tar -cf backup.tar /usr/local/pgsql/data
```

There are two restrictions, however, which make this method impractical, or at least inferior to the `pg_dump` method:

1. The database server *must* be shut down in order to get a usable backup. Half-way measures such as disallowing all connections will *not* work (mainly because `tar` and similar tools do not take an atomic snapshot of the state of the file system at a point in time). Information about stopping the server can be found in Section 16.6. Needless to say that you also need to shut down the server before restoring the data.
2. If you have dug into the details of the file system layout of the database, you may be tempted to try to back up or restore only certain individual tables or databases from their respective files or directories. This will *not* work because the information contained in these files contains only half the truth. The other half is in the commit log files `pg_clog/*`, which contain the commit status of all transactions. A table file is only usable with this information. Of course it is also impossible to restore only a table and the associated `pg_clog` data because that would render all other tables in the database cluster useless. So file system backups only work for complete restoration of an entire database cluster.

An alternative file-system backup approach is to make a “consistent snapshot” of the data directory, if the file system supports that functionality (and you are willing to trust that it is implemented correctly). The typical procedure is to make a “frozen snapshot” of the volume containing the database, then copy the whole data directory (not just parts, see above) from the snapshot to a backup device, then release the frozen snapshot. This will work even while the database server is running. However, a backup created in this way saves the database files in a state where the database server was not properly shut down; therefore, when you start the database server on the backed-up data, it will think the server had crashed and replay the WAL log. This is not a problem, just be aware of it (and be sure to include the WAL files in your backup).

If your database is spread across multiple volumes (for example, data files and WAL log on different disks) there may not be any way to obtain exactly-simultaneous frozen snapshots of all the volumes. Read your file system documentation very carefully before trusting to the consistent-snapshot technique in such situations. The safest approach is to shut down the database server for long enough to establish all the frozen snapshots.

Note that a file system backup will not necessarily be smaller than an SQL dump. On the contrary, it will most likely be larger. (`pg_dump` does not need to dump the contents of indexes for example, just the commands to recreate them.)

22.3. On-line backup and point-in-time recovery (PITR)

At all times, PostgreSQL maintains a *write ahead log* (WAL) in the `pg_xlog/` subdirectory of the cluster's data directory. The log describes every change made to the database's data files. This log exists primarily for crash-safety purposes: if the system crashes, the database can be restored to consistency by “replaying” the log entries made since the last checkpoint. However, the existence of the log makes it possible to use a third strategy for backing up databases: we can combine a file-system-level backup with backup of the WAL files. If recovery is needed, we restore the backup and then replay from the backed-up WAL files to bring the backup up to current time. This approach is more complex to administer than either of the previous approaches, but it has some significant benefits:

- We do not need a perfectly consistent backup as the starting point. Any internal inconsistency in the backup will be corrected by log replay (this is not significantly different from what happens during crash recovery). So we don't need file system snapshot capability, just tar or a similar archiving tool.
- Since we can string together an indefinitely long sequence of WAL files for replay, continuous backup can be achieved simply by continuing to archive the WAL files. This is particularly valuable for large databases, where it may not be convenient to take a full backup frequently.
- There is nothing that says we have to replay the WAL entries all the way to the end. We could stop the replay at any point and have a consistent snapshot of the database as it was at that time. Thus, this technique supports *point-in-time recovery*: it is possible to restore the database to its state at any time since your base backup was taken.
- If we continuously feed the series of WAL files to another machine that has been loaded with the same base backup file, we have a “hot standby” system: at any point we can bring up the second machine and it will have a nearly-current copy of the database.

As with the plain file-system-backup technique, this method can only support restoration of an entire database cluster, not a subset. Also, it requires a lot of archival storage: the base backup may be bulky, and a busy system will generate many megabytes of WAL traffic that have to be archived. Still, it is the preferred backup technique in many situations where high reliability is needed.

To recover successfully using an on-line backup, you need a continuous sequence of archived WAL files that extends back at least as far as the start time of your backup. So to get started, you should set up and test your procedure for archiving WAL files *before* you take your first base backup. Accordingly, we first discuss the mechanics of archiving WAL files.

22.3.1. Setting up WAL archiving

In an abstract sense, a running PostgreSQL system produces an indefinitely long sequence of WAL records. The system physically divides this sequence into *WAL segment files*, which are normally 16MB apiece (although the size can be altered when building PostgreSQL). The segment files are given numeric names that reflect their position in the abstract WAL sequence. When not using WAL archiving, the system normally creates just a few segment files and then “recycles” them by renaming no-longer-needed segment files to higher segment numbers. It's assumed that a segment file whose contents precede the checkpoint-before-last is no longer of interest and can be recycled.

When archiving WAL data, we want to capture the contents of each segment file once it is filled, and save that data somewhere before the segment file is recycled for reuse. Depending on the application and the

available hardware, there could be many different ways of “saving the data somewhere”: we could copy the segment files to an NFS-mounted directory on another machine, write them onto a tape drive (ensuring that you have a way of restoring the file with its original file name), or batch them together and burn them onto CDs, or something else entirely. To provide the database administrator with as much flexibility as possible, PostgreSQL tries not to make any assumptions about how the archiving will be done. Instead, PostgreSQL lets the administrator specify a shell command to be executed to copy a completed segment file to wherever it needs to go. The command could be as simple as a `cp`, or it could invoke a complex shell script — it’s all up to you.

The shell command to use is specified by the `archive_command` configuration parameter, which in practice will always be placed in the `postgresql.conf` file. In this string, any `%p` is replaced by the absolute path of the file to archive, while any `%f` is replaced by the file name only. Write `%%` if you need to embed an actual `%` character in the command. The simplest useful command is something like

```
archive_command = 'cp -i %p /mnt/server/archivedir/%f </dev/null'
```

which will copy archivable WAL segments to the directory `/mnt/server/archivedir`. (This is an example, not a recommendation, and may not work on all platforms.)

The archive command will be executed under the ownership of the same user that the PostgreSQL server is running as. Since the series of WAL files being archived contains effectively everything in your database, you will want to be sure that the archived data is protected from prying eyes; for example, archive into a directory that does not have group or world read access.

It is important that the archive command return zero exit status if and only if it succeeded. Upon getting a zero result, PostgreSQL will assume that the WAL segment file has been successfully archived, and will remove or recycle it. However, a nonzero status tells PostgreSQL that the file was not archived; it will try again periodically until it succeeds.

The archive command should generally be designed to refuse to overwrite any pre-existing archive file. This is an important safety feature to preserve the integrity of your archive in case of administrator error (such as sending the output of two different servers to the same archive directory). It is advisable to test your proposed archive command to ensure that it indeed does not overwrite an existing file, *and that it returns nonzero status in this case*. We have found that `cp -i` does this correctly on some platforms but not others. If the chosen command does not itself handle this case correctly, you should add a command to test for pre-existence of the archive file. For example, something like

```
archive_command = 'test ! -f ../%f && cp %p ../%f'
```

works correctly on most Unix variants.

While designing your archiving setup, consider what will happen if the archive command fails repeatedly because some aspect requires operator intervention or the archive runs out of space. For example, this could occur if you write to tape without an autochanger; when the tape fills, nothing further can be archived until the tape is swapped. You should ensure that any error condition or request to a human operator is reported appropriately so that the situation can be resolved relatively quickly. The `pg_xlog/` directory will continue to fill with WAL segment files until the situation is resolved.

The speed of the archiving command is not important, so long as it can keep up with the average rate at which your server generates WAL data. Normal operation continues even if the archiving process falls a little behind. If archiving falls significantly behind, this will increase the amount of data that would be lost in the event of a disaster. It will also mean that the `pg_xlog/` directory will contain large numbers

of not-yet-archived segment files, which could eventually exceed available disk space. You are advised to monitor the archiving process to ensure that it is working as you intend.

If you are concerned about being able to recover right up to the current instant, you may want to take additional steps to ensure that the current, partially-filled WAL segment is also copied someplace. This is particularly important if your server generates only little WAL traffic (or has slack periods where it does so), since it could take a long time before a WAL segment file is completely filled and ready to archive. One possible way to handle this is to set up a cron job that periodically (once a minute, perhaps) identifies the current WAL segment file and saves it someplace safe. Then the combination of the archived WAL segments and the saved current segment will be enough to ensure you can always restore to within a minute of current time. This behavior is not presently built into PostgreSQL because we did not want to complicate the definition of the `archive_command` by requiring it to keep track of successively archived, but different, copies of the same WAL file. The `archive_command` is only invoked on completed WAL segments. Except in the case of retrying a failure, it will be called only once for any given file name.

In writing your archive command, you should assume that the filenames to be archived may be up to 64 characters long and may contain any combination of ASCII letters, digits, and dots. It is not necessary to remember the original full path (`%p`) but it is necessary to remember the file name (`%f`).

Note that although WAL archiving will allow you to restore any modifications made to the data in your PostgreSQL database it will not restore changes made to configuration files (that is, `postgresql.conf`, `pg_hba.conf` and `pg_ident.conf`), since those are edited manually rather than through SQL operations. You may wish to keep the configuration files in a location that will be backed up by your regular file system backup procedures. See Section 16.4.1 for how to relocate the configuration files.

22.3.2. Making a Base Backup

The procedure for making a base backup is relatively simple:

1. Ensure that WAL archiving is enabled and working.
2. Connect to the database as a superuser, and issue the command

```
SELECT pg_start_backup('label');
```

where `label` is any string you want to use to uniquely identify this backup operation. (One good practice is to use the full path where you intend to put the backup dump file.) `pg_start_backup` creates a *backup label* file, called `backup_label`, in the cluster directory with information about your backup.

It does not matter which database within the cluster you connect to to issue this command. You can ignore the result returned by the function; but if it reports an error, deal with that before proceeding.

3. Perform the backup, using any convenient file-system-backup tool such as `tar` or `cpio`. It is neither necessary nor desirable to stop normal operation of the database while you do this.
4. Again connect to the database as a superuser, and issue the command

```
SELECT pg_stop_backup();
```

If this returns successfully, you're done.

It is not necessary to be very concerned about the amount of time elapsed between `pg_start_backup` and the start of the actual backup, nor between the end of the backup and `pg_stop_backup`; a few minutes' delay won't hurt anything. You must however be quite sure that these operations are carried out in sequence and do not overlap.

Be certain that your backup dump includes all of the files underneath the database cluster directory (e.g., `/usr/local/pgsql/data`). If you are using tablespaces that do not reside underneath this directory, be careful to include them as well (and be sure that your backup dump archives symbolic links as links, otherwise the restore will mess up your tablespaces).

You may, however, omit from the backup dump the files within the `pg_xlog/` subdirectory of the cluster directory. This slight complication is worthwhile because it reduces the risk of mistakes when restoring. This is easy to arrange if `pg_xlog/` is a symbolic link pointing to someplace outside the cluster directory, which is a common setup anyway for performance reasons.

To make use of this backup, you will need to keep around all the WAL segment files generated at or after the starting time of the backup. To aid you in doing this, the `pg_stop_backup` function creates a *backup history file* that is immediately stored into the WAL archive area. This file is named after the first WAL segment file that you need to have to make use of the backup. For example, if the starting WAL file is `0000000100001234000055CD` the backup history file will be named something like `0000000100001234000055CD.007C9330.backup`. (The second part of this file name stands for an exact position within the WAL file, and can ordinarily be ignored.) Once you have safely archived the backup dump file, you can delete all archived WAL segments with names numerically preceding this one. The backup history file is just a small text file. It contains the label string you gave to `pg_start_backup`, as well as the starting and ending times of the backup. If you used the label to identify where the associated dump file is kept, then the archived history file is enough to tell you which dump file to restore, should you need to do so.

Since you have to keep around all the archived WAL files back to your last base backup, the interval between base backups should usually be chosen based on how much storage you want to expend on archived WAL files. You should also consider how long you are prepared to spend recovering, if recovery should be necessary — the system will have to replay all those WAL segments, and that could take awhile if it has been a long time since the last base backup.

It's also worth noting that the `pg_start_backup` function makes a file named `backup_label` in the database cluster directory, which is then removed again by `pg_stop_backup`. This file will of course be archived as a part of your backup dump file. The backup label file includes the label string you gave to `pg_start_backup`, as well as the time at which `pg_start_backup` was run, and the name of the starting WAL file. In case of confusion it will therefore be possible to look inside a backup dump file and determine exactly which backup session the dump file came from.

It is also possible to make a backup dump while the postmaster is stopped. In this case, you obviously cannot use `pg_start_backup` or `pg_stop_backup`, and you will therefore be left to your own devices to keep track of which backup dump is which and how far back the associated WAL files go. It is generally better to follow the on-line backup procedure above.

22.3.3. Recovering with an On-line Backup

Okay, the worst has happened and you need to recover from your backup. Here is the procedure:

1. Stop the postmaster, if it's running.
2. If you have the space to do so, copy the whole cluster data directory and any tablespaces to a temporary location in case you need them later. Note that this precaution will require that you have enough free space on your system to hold two copies of your existing database. If you do not have enough space, you need at the least to copy the contents of the `pg_xlog` subdirectory of the cluster data directory, as it may contain logs which were not archived before the system went down.
3. Clean out all existing files and subdirectories under the cluster data directory and under the root directories of any tablespaces you are using.
4. Restore the database files from your backup dump. Be careful that they are restored with the right ownership (the database system user, not root!) and with the right permissions. If you are using tablespaces, you may want to verify that the symbolic links in `pg_tblspc/` were correctly restored.
5. Remove any files present in `pg_xlog/`; these came from the backup dump and are therefore probably obsolete rather than current. If you didn't archive `pg_xlog/` at all, then re-create it, and be sure to re-create the subdirectory `pg_xlog/archive_status/` as well.
6. If you had unarchived WAL segment files that you saved in step 2, copy them into `pg_xlog/`. (It is best to copy them, not move them, so that you still have the unmodified files if a problem occurs and you have to start over.)
7. Create a recovery command file `recovery.conf` in the cluster data directory (see Recovery Settings). You may also want to temporarily modify `pg_hba.conf` to prevent ordinary users from connecting until you are sure the recovery has worked.
8. Start the postmaster. The postmaster will go into recovery mode and proceed to read through the archived WAL files it needs. Upon completion of the recovery process, the postmaster will rename `recovery.conf` to `recovery.done` (to prevent accidentally re-entering recovery mode in case of a crash later) and then commence normal database operations.
9. Inspect the contents of the database to ensure you have recovered to where you want to be. If not, return to step 1. If all is well, let in your users by restoring `pg_hba.conf` to normal.

The key part of all this is to set up a recovery command file that describes how you want to recover and how far the recovery should run. You can use `recovery.conf.sample` (normally installed in the installation `share/` directory) as a prototype. The one thing that you absolutely must specify in `recovery.conf` is the `restore_command`, which tells PostgreSQL how to get back archived WAL file segments. Like the `archive_command`, this is a shell command string. It may contain `%f`, which is replaced by the name of the desired log file, and `%p`, which is replaced by the absolute path to copy the log file to. Write `%%` if you need to embed an actual `%` character in the command. The simplest useful command is something like

```
restore_command = 'cp /mnt/server/archivedir/%f %p'
```

which will copy previously archived WAL segments from the directory `/mnt/server/archivedir`. You could of course use something much more complicated, perhaps even a shell script that requests the operator to mount an appropriate tape.

It is important that the command return nonzero exit status on failure. The command *will* be asked for log files that are not present in the archive; it must return nonzero when so asked. This is not an error condition. Be aware also that the base name of the %p path will be different from %f; do not expect them to be interchangeable.

WAL segments that cannot be found in the archive will be sought in pg_xlog/; this allows use of recent un-archived segments. However segments that are available from the archive will be used in preference to files in pg_xlog/. The system will not overwrite the existing contents of pg_xlog/ when retrieving archived files.

Normally, recovery will proceed through all available WAL segments, thereby restoring the database to the current point in time (or as close as we can get given the available WAL segments). But if you want to recover to some previous point in time (say, right before the junior DBA dropped your main transaction table), just specify the required stopping point in `recovery.conf`. You can specify the stop point, known as the “recovery target”, either by date/time or by completion of a specific transaction ID. As of this writing only the date/time option is very usable, since there are no tools to help you identify with any accuracy which transaction ID to use.

Note: The stop point must be after the ending time of the base backup (the time of `pg_stop_backup`). You cannot use a base backup to recover to a time when that backup was still going on. (To recover to such a time, you must go back to your previous base backup and roll forward from there.)

22.3.3.1. Recovery Settings

These settings can only be made in the `recovery.conf` file, and apply only for the duration of the recovery. They must be reset for any subsequent recovery you wish to perform. They cannot be changed once recovery has begun.

`restore_command` (string)

The shell command to execute to retrieve an archived segment of the WAL file series. This parameter is required. Any %f in the string is replaced by the name of the file to retrieve from the archive, and any %p is replaced by the absolute path to copy it to on the server. Write %% to embed an actual % character in the command.

It is important for the command to return a zero exit status if and only if it succeeds. The command *will* be asked for file names that are not present in the archive; it must return nonzero when so asked. Examples:

```
restore_command = 'cp /mnt/server/archivedir/%f "%p"'
restore_command = 'copy /mnt/server/archivedir/%f "%p" ' # Windows
```

`recovery_target_time` (timestamp)

This parameter specifies the time stamp up to which recovery will proceed. At most one of `recovery_target_time` and `recovery_target_xid` can be specified. The default is to recover to the end of the WAL log. The precise stopping point is also influenced by `recovery_target_inclusive`.

`recovery_target_xid` (string)

This parameter specifies the transaction ID up to which recovery will proceed. Keep in mind that while transaction IDs are assigned sequentially at transaction start, transactions can complete in a different numeric order. The transactions that will be recovered are those that committed before (and optionally including) the specified one. At most one of `recovery_target_xid` and `recovery_target_time` can be specified. The default is to recover to the end of the WAL log. The precise stopping point is also influenced by `recovery_target_inclusive`.

`recovery_target_inclusive` (boolean)

Specifies whether we stop just after the specified recovery target (`true`), or just before the recovery target (`false`). Applies to both `recovery_target_time` and `recovery_target_xid`, whichever one is specified for this recovery. This indicates whether transactions having exactly the target commit time or ID, respectively, will be included in the recovery. Default is `true`.

`recovery_target_timeline` (string)

Specifies recovering into a particular timeline. The default is to recover along the same timeline that was current when the base backup was taken. You would only need to set this parameter in complex re-recovery situations, where you need to return to a state that itself was reached after a point-in-time recovery. See Section 22.3.4 for discussion.

22.3.4. Timelines

The ability to restore the database to a previous point in time creates some complexities that are akin to science-fiction stories about time travel and parallel universes. In the original history of the database, perhaps you dropped a critical table at 5:15PM on Tuesday evening. Unfazed, you get out your backup, restore to the point-in-time 5:14PM Tuesday evening, and are up and running. In *this* history of the database universe, you never dropped the table at all. But suppose you later realize this wasn't such a great idea after all, and would like to return to some later point in the original history. You won't be able to if, while your database was up-and-running, it overwrote some of the sequence of WAL segment files that led up to the time you now wish you could get back to. So you really want to distinguish the series of WAL records generated after you've done a point-in-time recovery from those that were generated in the original database history.

To deal with these problems, PostgreSQL has a notion of *timelines*. Each time you recover to a point-in-time earlier than the end of the WAL sequence, a new timeline is created to identify the series of WAL records generated after that recovery. (If recovery proceeds all the way to the end of WAL, however, we do not start a new timeline: we just extend the existing one.) The timeline ID number is part of WAL segment file names, and so a new timeline does not overwrite the WAL data generated by previous timelines. It is in fact possible to archive many different timelines. While that might seem like a useless feature, it's often a lifesaver. Consider the situation where you aren't quite sure what point-in-time to recover to, and so have to do several point-in-time recoveries by trial and error until you find the best place to branch off from the old history. Without timelines this process would soon generate an unmanageable mess. With timelines, you can recover to *any* prior state, including states in timeline branches that you later abandoned.

Each time a new timeline is created, PostgreSQL creates a "timeline history" file that shows which timeline it branched off from and when. These history files are necessary to allow the system to pick the right

WAL segment files when recovering from an archive that contains multiple timelines. Therefore, they are archived into the WAL archive area just like WAL segment files. The history files are just small text files, so it's cheap and appropriate to keep them around indefinitely (unlike the segment files which are large). You can, if you like, add comments to a history file to make your own notes about how and why this particular timeline came to be. Such comments will be especially valuable when you have a thicket of different timelines as a result of experimentation.

The default behavior of recovery is to recover along the same timeline that was current when the base backup was taken. If you want to recover into some child timeline (that is, you want to return to some state that was itself generated after a recovery attempt), you need to specify the target timeline ID in `recovery.conf`. You cannot recover into timelines that branched off earlier than the base backup.

22.3.5. Caveats

At this writing, there are several limitations of the on-line backup technique. These will probably be fixed in future releases:

- Operations on non-B-tree indexes (hash, R-tree, and GiST indexes) are not presently WAL-logged, so replay will not update these index types. The recommended workaround is to manually `REINDEX` each such index after completing a recovery operation.

It should also be noted that the present WAL format is extremely bulky since it includes many disk page snapshots. This is appropriate for crash recovery purposes, since we may need to fix partially-written disk pages. It is not necessary to store so many page copies for PITR operations, however. An area for future development is to compress archived WAL data by removing unnecessary page copies.

22.4. Migration Between Releases

This section discusses how to migrate your database data from one PostgreSQL release to a newer one. The software installation procedure *per se* is not the subject of this section; those details are in Chapter 14.

As a general rule, the internal data storage format is subject to change between major releases of PostgreSQL (where the number after the first dot changes). This does not apply to different minor releases under the same major release (where the number after the second dot changes); these always have compatible storage formats. For example, releases 7.0.1, 7.1.2, and 7.2 are not compatible, whereas 7.1.1 and 7.1.2 are. When you update between compatible versions, you can simply replace the executables and reuse the data directory on disk. Otherwise you need to back up your data and restore it on the new server. This has to be done using `pg_dump`; file system level backup methods obviously won't work. There are checks in place that prevent you from using a data directory with an incompatible version of PostgreSQL, so no great harm can be done by trying to start the wrong server version on a data directory.

It is recommended that you use the `pg_dump` and `pg_dumpall` programs from the newer version of PostgreSQL, to take advantage of any enhancements that may have been made in these programs. Current releases of the dump programs can read data from any server version back to 7.0.

The least downtime can be achieved by installing the new server in a different directory and running both the old and the new servers in parallel, on different ports. Then you can use something like

```
pg_dumpall -p 5432 | psql -d template1 -p 6543
```

to transfer your data. Or use an intermediate file if you want. Then you can shut down the old server and start the new server at the port the old one was running at. You should make sure that the old database is not updated after you run `pg_dumpall`, otherwise you will obviously lose that data. See Chapter 19 for information on how to prohibit access.

In practice you probably want to test your client applications on the new setup before switching over completely. This is another reason for setting up concurrent installations of old and new versions.

If you cannot or do not want to run two servers in parallel you can do the backup step before installing the new version, bring down the server, move the old version out of the way, install the new version, start the new server, restore the data. For example:

```
pg_dumpall > backup
pg_ctl stop
mv /usr/local/pgsql /usr/local/pgsql.old
cd ~/postgresql-8.0.0
gmake install
initdb -D /usr/local/pgsql/data
postmaster -D /usr/local/pgsql/data
psql template1 < backup
```

See Chapter 16 about ways to start and stop the server and other details. The installation instructions will advise you of strategic places to perform these steps.

Note: When you “move the old installation out of the way” it may no longer be perfectly usable. Some of the executable programs contain absolute paths to various installed programs and data files. This is usually not a big problem but if you plan on using two installations in parallel for a while you should assign them different installation directories at build time. (This problem is rectified in PostgreSQL 8.0 and later, but you need to be wary of moving older installations.)

Chapter 23. Monitoring Database Activity

A database administrator frequently wonders, “What is the system doing right now?” This chapter discusses how to find that out.

Several tools are available for monitoring database activity and analyzing performance. Most of this chapter is devoted to describing PostgreSQL’s statistics collector, but one should not neglect regular Unix monitoring programs such as `ps`, `top`, `iostat`, and `vmstat`. Also, once one has identified a poorly-performing query, further investigation may be needed using PostgreSQL’s `EXPLAIN` command. Section 13.1 discusses `EXPLAIN` and other methods for understanding the behavior of an individual query.

23.1. Standard Unix Tools

On most platforms, PostgreSQL modifies its command title as reported by `ps`, so that individual server processes can readily be identified. A sample display is

```
$ ps auxww | grep ^postgres
postgres  960  0.0  1.1  6104 1480 pts/1    SN   13:17   0:00 postmaster -i
postgres  963  0.0  1.1  7084 1472 pts/1    SN   13:17   0:00 postgres: stats buffer p
postgres  965  0.0  1.1  6152 1512 pts/1    SN   13:17   0:00 postgres: stats collecto
postgres  998  0.0  2.3  6532 2992 pts/1    SN   13:18   0:00 postgres: tgl runbug 127
postgres 1003  0.0  2.4  6532 3128 pts/1    SN   13:19   0:00 postgres: tgl regression
postgres 1016  0.1  2.4  6532 3080 pts/1    SN   13:19   0:00 postgres: tgl regression
```

(The appropriate invocation of `ps` varies across different platforms, as do the details of what is shown. This example is from a recent Linux system.) The first process listed here is the postmaster, the master server process. The command arguments shown for it are the same ones given when it was launched. The next two processes implement the statistics collector, which will be described in detail in the next section. (These will not be present if you have set the system not to start the statistics collector.) Each of the remaining processes is a server process handling one client connection. Each such process sets its command line display in the form

```
postgres: user database host activity
```

The user, database, and connection source host items remain the same for the life of the client connection, but the activity indicator changes. The activity may be `idle` (i.e., waiting for a client command), `idle in transaction` (waiting for client inside a `BEGIN` block), or a command type name such as `SELECT`. Also, `waiting` is attached if the server process is presently waiting on a lock held by another server process. In the above example we can infer that process 1003 is waiting for process 1016 to complete its transaction and thereby release some lock or other.

Tip: Solaris requires special handling. You must use `/usr/ucb/ps`, rather than `/bin/ps`. You also must use two `w` flags, not just one. In addition, your original invocation of the `postmaster` command must have a shorter `ps` status display than that provided by each server process. If you fail to do all three things, the `ps` output for each server process will be the original `postmaster` command line.

23.2. The Statistics Collector

PostgreSQL's *statistics collector* is a subsystem that supports collection and reporting of information about server activity. Presently, the collector can count accesses to tables and indexes in both disk-block and individual-row terms. It also supports determining the exact command currently being executed by other server processes.

23.2.1. Statistics Collection Configuration

Since collection of statistics adds some overhead to query execution, the system can be configured to collect or not collect information. This is controlled by configuration parameters that are normally set in `postgresql.conf`. (See Section 16.4 for details about setting configuration parameters.)

The parameter `stats_start_collector` must be set to `true` for the statistics collector to be launched at all. This is the default and recommended setting, but it may be turned off if you have no interest in statistics and want to squeeze out every last drop of overhead. (The savings is likely to be small, however.) Note that this option cannot be changed while the server is running.

The parameters `stats_command_string`, `stats_block_level`, and `stats_row_level` control how much information is actually sent to the collector and thus determine how much run-time overhead occurs. These respectively determine whether a server process sends its current command string, disk-block-level access statistics, and row-level access statistics to the collector. Normally these parameters are set in `postgresql.conf` so that they apply to all server processes, but it is possible to turn them on or off in individual sessions using the *SET* command. (To prevent ordinary users from hiding their activity from the administrator, only superusers are allowed to change these parameters with *SET*.)

Note: Since the parameters `stats_command_string`, `stats_block_level`, and `stats_row_level` default to `false`, very few statistics are collected in the default configuration. Enabling one or more of these configuration variables will significantly enhance the amount of useful data produced by the statistics collector, at the expense of additional run-time overhead.

23.2.2. Viewing Collected Statistics

Several predefined views, listed in Table 23-1, are available to show the results of statistics collection. Alternatively, one can build custom views using the underlying statistics functions.

When using the statistics to monitor current activity, it is important to realize that the information does not update instantaneously. Each individual server process transmits new block and row access counts to the collector just before going idle; so a query or transaction still in progress does not affect the displayed totals. Also, the collector itself emits a new report at most once per `pgstat_stat_interval` milliseconds (500 by default). So the displayed information lags behind actual activity. Current-query information is reported to the collector immediately, but is still subject to the `pgstat_stat_interval` delay before it becomes visible.

Another important point is that when a server process is asked to display any of these statistics, it first fetches the most recent report emitted by the collector process and then continues to use this snapshot for all statistical views and functions until the end of its current transaction. So the statistics will appear not to change as long as you continue the current transaction. This is a feature, not a bug, because it allows you

to perform several queries on the statistics and correlate the results without worrying that the numbers are changing underneath you. But if you want to see new results with each query, be sure to do the queries outside any transaction block.

Table 23-1. Standard Statistics Views

View Name	Description
<code>pg_stat_activity</code>	One row per server process, showing process ID, database, user, current query, and the time at which the current query began execution. The columns that report data on the current query are only available if the parameter <code>stats_command_string</code> has been turned on. Furthermore, these columns read as null unless the user examining the view is a superuser or the same as the user owning the process being reported on. (Note that because of the collector's reporting delay, current query will only be up-to-date for long-running queries.)
<code>pg_stat_database</code>	One row per database, showing the number of active backend server processes, total transactions committed and total rolled back in that database, total disk blocks read, and total number of buffer hits (i.e., block read requests avoided by finding the block already in buffer cache).
<code>pg_stat_all_tables</code>	For each table in the current database, total numbers of sequential and index scans, total numbers of rows returned by each type of scan, and totals of row insertions, updates, and deletions.
<code>pg_stat_sys_tables</code>	Same as <code>pg_stat_all_tables</code> , except that only system tables are shown.
<code>pg_stat_user_tables</code>	Same as <code>pg_stat_all_tables</code> , except that only user tables are shown.
<code>pg_stat_all_indexes</code>	For each index in the current database, the total number of index scans that have used that index, the number of index rows read, and the number of successfully fetched heap rows. (This may be less when there are index entries pointing to expired heap rows.)
<code>pg_stat_sys_indexes</code>	Same as <code>pg_stat_all_indexes</code> , except that only indexes on system tables are shown.
<code>pg_stat_user_indexes</code>	Same as <code>pg_stat_all_indexes</code> , except that only indexes on user tables are shown.

View Name	Description
<code>pg_statio_all_tables</code>	For each table in the current database, the total number of disk blocks read from that table, the number of buffer hits, the numbers of disk blocks read and buffer hits in all the indexes of that table, the numbers of disk blocks read and buffer hits from the table's auxiliary TOAST table (if any), and the numbers of disk blocks read and buffer hits for the TOAST table's index.
<code>pg_statio_sys_tables</code>	Same as <code>pg_statio_all_tables</code> , except that only system tables are shown.
<code>pg_statio_user_tables</code>	Same as <code>pg_statio_all_tables</code> , except that only user tables are shown.
<code>pg_statio_all_indexes</code>	For each index in the current database, the numbers of disk blocks read and buffer hits in that index.
<code>pg_statio_sys_indexes</code>	Same as <code>pg_statio_all_indexes</code> , except that only indexes on system tables are shown.
<code>pg_statio_user_indexes</code>	Same as <code>pg_statio_all_indexes</code> , except that only indexes on user tables are shown.
<code>pg_statio_all_sequences</code>	For each sequence object in the current database, the numbers of disk blocks read and buffer hits in that sequence.
<code>pg_statio_sys_sequences</code>	Same as <code>pg_statio_all_sequences</code> , except that only system sequences are shown. (Presently, no system sequences are defined, so this view is always empty.)
<code>pg_statio_user_sequences</code>	Same as <code>pg_statio_all_sequences</code> , except that only user sequences are shown.

The per-index statistics are particularly useful to determine which indexes are being used and how effective they are.

The `pg_statio_` views are primarily useful to determine the effectiveness of the buffer cache. When the number of actual disk reads is much smaller than the number of buffer hits, then the cache is satisfying most read requests without invoking a kernel call. However, these statistics do not give the entire story: due to the way in which PostgreSQL handles disk I/O, data that is not in the PostgreSQL buffer cache may still reside in the kernel's I/O cache, and may therefore still be fetched without requiring a physical read. Users interested in obtaining more detailed information on PostgreSQL I/O behavior are advised to use the PostgreSQL statistics collector in combination with operating system utilities that allow insight into the kernel's handling of I/O.

Other ways of looking at the statistics can be set up by writing queries that use the same underlying statistics access functions as these standard views do. These functions are listed in Table 23-2. The per-database access functions take a database OID as argument to identify which database to report on. The per-table and per-index functions take a table or index OID. (Note that only tables and indexes in the current database can be seen with these functions.) The per-backend process access functions take a backend process ID number, which ranges from one to the number of currently active backend processes.

Table 23-2. Statistics Access Functions

Function	Return Type	Description
<code>pg_stat_get_db_numbackends(oid)</code>	integer	Number of active backend processes for database
<code>pg_stat_get_db_xact_commit(oid)</code>	bigint	Transactions committed in database
<code>pg_stat_get_db_xact_rollback(oid)</code>	bigint	Transactions rolled back in database
<code>pg_stat_get_db_blocks_fetched(oid)</code>	bigint	Number of disk block fetch requests for database
<code>pg_stat_get_db_blocks_hit(oid)</code>	bigint	Number of disk block fetch requests found in cache for database
<code>pg_stat_get_numscans(oid)</code>	bigint	Number of sequential scans done when argument is a table, or number of index scans done when argument is an index
<code>pg_stat_get_tuples_returned(oid)</code>	bigint	Number of rows read by sequential scans when argument is a table, or number of index rows read when argument is an index
<code>pg_stat_get_tuples_fetched(oid)</code>	bigint	Number of valid (unexpired) table rows fetched by sequential scans when argument is a table, or fetched by index scans using this index when argument is an index
<code>pg_stat_get_tuples_inserted(oid)</code>	bigint	Number of rows inserted into table
<code>pg_stat_get_tuples_updated(oid)</code>	bigint	Number of rows updated in table
<code>pg_stat_get_tuples_deleted(oid)</code>	bigint	Number of rows deleted from table
<code>pg_stat_get_blocks_fetched(oid)</code>	bigint	Number of disk block fetch requests for table or index
<code>pg_stat_get_blocks_hit(oid)</code>	bigint	Number of disk block requests found in cache for table or index
<code>pg_stat_get_backend_idset()</code>	set of integer	Set of currently active backend process IDs (from 1 to the number of active backend processes). See usage example in the text.
<code>pg_backend_pid()</code>	integer	Process ID of the backend process attached to the current session

Function	Return Type	Description
<code>pg_stat_get_backend_pid(integer backendid)</code>	integer	Process ID of the given backend process
<code>pg_stat_get_backend_dbid(integer backendid)</code>	oid	Database ID of the given backend process
<code>pg_stat_get_backend_userid(integer backendid)</code>	integer	User ID of the given backend process
<code>pg_stat_get_backend_activity(integer backendid)</code>	text	Active command of the given backend process (null if the current user is not a superuser nor the same user as that of the session being queried, or <code>stats_command_string</code> is not on)
<code>pg_stat_get_backend_activity_time(integer backendid)</code>	timestamp with time zone	The time at which the given backend process' currently executing query was started (null if the current user is not a superuser nor the same user as that of the session being queried, or <code>stats_command_string</code> is not on)
<code>pg_stat_reset()</code>	boolean	Reset all currently collected statistics

Note: `pg_stat_get_db_blocks_fetched` minus `pg_stat_get_db_blocks_hit` gives the number of kernel `read()` calls issued for the table, index, or database; but the actual number of physical reads is usually lower due to kernel-level buffering.

The function `pg_stat_get_backend_idset` provides a convenient way to generate one row for each active backend process. For example, to show the PIDs and current queries of all backend processes:

```
SELECT pg_stat_get_backend_pid(s.backendid) AS procpid,
       pg_stat_get_backend_activity(s.backendid) AS current_query
FROM (SELECT pg_stat_get_backend_idset() AS backendid) AS s;
```

23.3. Viewing Locks

Another useful tool for monitoring database activity is the `pg_locks` system table. It allows the database administrator to view information about the outstanding locks in the lock manager. For example, this

capability can be used to:

- View all the locks currently outstanding, all the locks on relations in a particular database, all the locks on a particular relation, or all the locks held by a particular PostgreSQL session.
- Determine the relation in the current database with the most ungranted locks (which might be a source of contention among database clients).
- Determine the effect of lock contention on overall database performance, as well as the extent to which contention varies with overall database traffic.

Details of the `pg_locks` view appear in Section 41.33. For more information on locking and managing concurrency with PostgreSQL, refer to Chapter 12.

Chapter 24. Monitoring Disk Usage

This chapter discusses how to monitor the disk usage of a PostgreSQL database system.

24.1. Determining Disk Usage

Each table has a primary heap disk file where most of the data is stored. If the table has any columns with potentially-wide values, there is also a TOAST file associated with the table, which is used to store values too wide to fit comfortably in the main table (see Section 49.2). There will be one index on the TOAST table, if present. There may also be indexes associated with the base table. Each table and index is stored in a separate disk file — possibly more than one file, if the file would exceed one gigabyte. Naming conventions for these files are described in Section 49.1.

You can monitor disk space from three places: from `psql` using `VACUUM` information, from `psql` using the tools in `contrib/dbsize`, and from the command line using the tools in `contrib/oid2name`. Using `psql` on a recently vacuumed or analyzed database, you can issue queries to see the disk usage of any table:

```
SELECT relfilenode, relpages FROM pg_class WHERE relname = 'customer';
```

relfilenode	relpages
16806	60

(1 row)

Each page is typically 8 kilobytes. (Remember, `relpages` is only updated by `VACUUM`, `ANALYZE`, and a few DDL commands such as `CREATE INDEX`.) The `relfilenode` value is of interest if you want to examine the table's disk file directly.

To show the space used by TOAST tables, use a query like the following:

```
SELECT relname, relpages
FROM pg_class,
     (SELECT reltoastrelid FROM pg_class
      WHERE relname = 'customer') ss
WHERE oid = ss.reltoastrelid
      OR oid = (SELECT reltoastidxid FROM pg_class
               WHERE oid = ss.reltoastrelid)
ORDER BY relname;
```

relname	relpages
pg_toast_16806	0
pg_toast_16806_index	1

You can easily display index sizes, too:

```
SELECT c2.relname, c2.relpages
FROM pg_class c, pg_class c2, pg_index i
WHERE c.relname = 'customer'
      AND c.oid = i.indrelid
```

```

        AND c2.oid = i.indexrelid
    ORDER BY c2.relname;

```

relname	relpages
customer_id_indexdex	26

It is easy to find your largest tables and indexes using this information:

```

SELECT relname, relpages FROM pg_class ORDER BY relpages DESC;

```

relname	relpages
bigtable	3290
customer	3144

`contrib/dbsize` loads functions into your database that allow you to find the size of a table or database from inside `psql` without the need for `VACUUM` or `ANALYZE`.

You can also use `contrib/oid2name` to show disk usage. See `README.oid2name` in that directory for examples. It includes a script that shows disk usage for each database.

24.2. Disk Full Failure

The most important disk monitoring task of a database administrator is to make sure the disk doesn't grow full. A filled data disk will not result in data corruption, but it may well prevent useful activity from occurring. If the disk holding the WAL files grows full, database server panic and consequent shutdown may occur.

If you cannot free up additional space on the disk by deleting other things, you can move some of the database files to other file systems by making use of tablespaces. See Section 18.6 for more information about that.

Tip: Some file systems perform badly when they are almost full, so do not wait until the disk is completely full to take action.

If your system supports per-user disk quotas, then the database will naturally be subject to whatever quota is placed on the user the server runs as. Exceeding the quota will have the same bad effects as running out of space entirely.

Chapter 25. Write-Ahead Logging (WAL)

Write-Ahead Logging (WAL) is a standard approach to transaction logging. Its detailed description may be found in most (if not all) books about transaction processing. Briefly, WAL's central concept is that changes to data files (where tables and indexes reside) must be written only after those changes have been logged, that is, when log records describing the changes have been flushed to permanent storage. If we follow this procedure, we do not need to flush data pages to disk on every transaction commit, because we know that in the event of a crash we will be able to recover the database using the log: any changes that have not been applied to the data pages can be redone from the log records. (This is roll-forward recovery, also known as REDO.)

25.1. Benefits of WAL

The first major benefit of using WAL is a significantly reduced number of disk writes, because only the log file needs to be flushed to disk at the time of transaction commit, rather than every data file changed by the transaction. In multiuser environments, commits of many transactions may be accomplished with a single `fsync` of the log file. Furthermore, the log file is written sequentially, and so the cost of syncing the log is much less than the cost of flushing the data pages. This is especially true for servers handling many small transactions touching different parts of the data store.

The next benefit is consistency of the data pages. The truth is that, before WAL, PostgreSQL was never able to guarantee consistency in the case of a crash. Before WAL, any crash during writing could result in:

1. index rows pointing to nonexistent table rows
2. index rows lost in split operations
3. totally corrupted table or index page content, because of partially written data pages

Problems with indexes (problems 1 and 2) could possibly have been fixed by additional `fsync` calls, but it is not obvious how to handle the last case without WAL. WAL saves the entire data page content in the log if that is required to ensure page consistency for after-crash recovery.

Finally, WAL makes it possible to support on-line backup and point-in-time recovery, as described in Section 22.3. By archiving the WAL data we can support reverting to any time instant covered by the available WAL data: we simply install a prior physical backup of the database, and replay the WAL log just as far as the desired time. What's more, the physical backup doesn't have to be an instantaneous snapshot of the database state — if it is made over some period of time, then replaying the WAL log for that period will fix any internal inconsistencies.

25.2. WAL Configuration

There are several WAL-related configuration parameters that affect database performance. This section explains their use. Consult Section 16.4 for general information about setting server configuration parameters.

Checkpoints are points in the sequence of transactions at which it is guaranteed that the data files have been updated with all information logged before the checkpoint. At checkpoint time, all dirty data pages

are flushed to disk and a special checkpoint record is written to the log file. As a result, in the event of a crash, the crash recovery procedure knows from what point in the log (known as the redo record) it should start the REDO operation, since any changes made to data files before that point are already on disk. After a checkpoint has been made, any log segments written before the redo record are no longer needed and can be recycled or removed. (When WAL archiving is being done, the log segments must be archived before being recycled or removed.)

The server's background writer process will automatically perform a checkpoint every so often. A checkpoint is created every `checkpoint_segments` log segments, or every `checkpoint_timeout` seconds, whichever comes first. The default settings are 3 segments and 300 seconds respectively. It is also possible to force a checkpoint by using the SQL command `CHECKPOINT`.

Reducing `checkpoint_segments` and/or `checkpoint_timeout` causes checkpoints to be done more often. This allows faster after-crash recovery (since less work will need to be redone). However, one must balance this against the increased cost of flushing dirty data pages more often. In addition, to ensure data page consistency, the first modification of a data page after each checkpoint results in logging the entire page content. Thus a smaller checkpoint interval increases the volume of output to the WAL log, partially negating the goal of using a smaller interval, and in any case causing more disk I/O.

Checkpoints are fairly expensive, first because they require writing out all currently dirty buffers, and second because they result in extra subsequent WAL traffic as discussed above. It is therefore wise to set the checkpointing parameters high enough that checkpoints don't happen too often. As a simple sanity check on your checkpointing parameters, you can set the `checkpoint_warning` parameter. If checkpoints happen closer together than `checkpoint_warning` seconds, a message will be output to the server log recommending increasing `checkpoint_segments`. Occasional appearance of such a message is not cause for alarm, but if it appears often then the checkpoint control parameters should be increased.

There will be at least one WAL segment file, and will normally not be more than $2 * \text{checkpoint_segments} + 1$ files. Each segment file is normally 16 MB (though this size can be altered when building the server). You can use this to estimate space requirements for WAL. Ordinarily, when old log segment files are no longer needed, they are recycled (renamed to become the next segments in the numbered sequence). If, due to a short-term peak of log output rate, there are more than $2 * \text{checkpoint_segments} + 1$ segment files, the unneeded segment files will be deleted instead of recycled until the system gets back under this limit.

There are two commonly used WAL functions: `LogInsert` and `LogFlush`. `LogInsert` is used to place a new record into the WAL buffers in shared memory. If there is no space for the new record, `LogInsert` will have to write (move to kernel cache) a few filled WAL buffers. This is undesirable because `LogInsert` is used on every database low level modification (for example, row insertion) at a time when an exclusive lock is held on affected data pages, so the operation needs to be as fast as possible. What is worse, writing WAL buffers may also force the creation of a new log segment, which takes even more time. Normally, WAL buffers should be written and flushed by a `LogFlush` request, which is made, for the most part, at transaction commit time to ensure that transaction records are flushed to permanent storage. On systems with high log output, `LogFlush` requests may not occur often enough to prevent `LogInsert` from having to do writes. On such systems one should increase the number of WAL buffers by modifying the configuration parameter `wal_buffers`. The default number of WAL buffers is 8. Increasing this value will correspondingly increase shared memory usage. (It should be noted that there is presently little evidence to suggest that increasing `wal_buffers` beyond the default is worthwhile.)

The `commit_delay` parameter defines for how many microseconds the server process will sleep after writing a commit record to the log with `LogInsert` but before performing a `LogFlush`. This delay allows

other server processes to add their commit records to the log so as to have all of them flushed with a single log sync. No sleep will occur if `fsync` is not enabled, nor if fewer than `commit_siblings` other sessions are currently in active transactions; this avoids sleeping when it's unlikely that any other session will commit soon. Note that on most platforms, the resolution of a sleep request is ten milliseconds, so that any nonzero `commit_delay` setting between 1 and 10000 microseconds would have the same effect. Good values for these parameters are not yet clear; experimentation is encouraged.

The `wal_sync_method` parameter determines how PostgreSQL will ask the kernel to force WAL updates out to disk. All the options should be the same as far as reliability goes, but it's quite platform-specific which one will be the fastest. Note that this parameter is irrelevant if `fsync` has been turned off.

Enabling the `wal_debug` configuration parameter (provided that PostgreSQL has been compiled with support for it) will result in each `LogInsert` and `LogFlush` WAL call being logged to the server log. This option may be replaced by a more general mechanism in the future.

25.3. Internals

WAL is automatically enabled; no action is required from the administrator except ensuring that the disk-space requirements for the WAL logs are met, and that any necessary tuning is done (see Section 25.2).

WAL logs are stored in the directory `pg_xlog` under the data directory, as a set of segment files, normally each 16 MB in size. Each segment is divided into pages, normally 8 KB each. The log record headers are described in `access/xlog.h`; the record content is dependent on the type of event that is being logged. Segment files are given ever-increasing numbers as names, starting at `000000010000000000000000`. The numbers do not wrap, at present, but it should take a very very long time to exhaust the available stock of numbers.

The WAL buffers and control structure are in shared memory and are handled by the server child processes; they are protected by lightweight locks. The demand on shared memory is dependent on the number of buffers. The default size of the WAL buffers is 8 buffers of 8 kB each, or 64 kB total.

It is of advantage if the log is located on another disk than the main database files. This may be achieved by moving the directory `pg_xlog` to another location (while the server is shut down, of course) and creating a symbolic link from the original location in the main data directory to the new location.

The aim of WAL, to ensure that the log is written before database records are altered, may be subverted by disk drives that falsely report a successful write to the kernel, when in fact they have only cached the data and not yet stored it on the disk. A power failure in such a situation may still lead to irrecoverable data corruption. Administrators should try to ensure that disks holding PostgreSQL's WAL log files do not make such false reports.

After a checkpoint has been made and the log flushed, the checkpoint's position is saved in the file `pg_control`. Therefore, when recovery is to be done, the server first reads `pg_control` and then the checkpoint record; then it performs the REDO operation by scanning forward from the log position indicated in the checkpoint record. Because the entire content of data pages is saved in the log on the first page modification after a checkpoint, all pages changed since the checkpoint will be restored to a consistent state.

To deal with the case where `pg_control` is corrupted, we should support the possibility of scanning existing log segments in reverse order — newest to oldest — in order to find the latest checkpoint. This has not been implemented yet. `pg_control` is small enough (less than one disk page) that it is not subject to partial-write problems, and as of this writing there have been no reports of database failures due solely

to inability to read `pg_control` itself. So while it is theoretically a weak spot, `pg_control` does not seem to be a problem in practice.

Chapter 26. Regression Tests

The regression tests are a comprehensive set of tests for the SQL implementation in PostgreSQL. They test standard SQL operations as well as the extended capabilities of PostgreSQL.

26.1. Running the Tests

The regression tests can be run against an already installed and running server, or using a temporary installation within the build tree. Furthermore, there is a “parallel” and a “sequential” mode for running the tests. The sequential method runs each test script in turn, whereas the parallel method starts up multiple server processes to run groups of tests in parallel. Parallel testing gives confidence that interprocess communication and locking are working correctly. For historical reasons, the sequential test is usually run against an existing installation and the parallel method against a temporary installation, but there are no technical reasons for this.

To run the regression tests after building but before installation, type

```
gmake check
```

in the top-level directory. (Or you can change to `src/test/regress` and run the command there.) This will first build several auxiliary files, such as some sample user-defined trigger functions, and then run the test driver script. At the end you should see something like

```
=====  
All 96 tests passed.  
=====
```

or otherwise a note about which tests failed. See Section 26.2 below before assuming that a “failure” represents a serious problem.

Because this test method runs a temporary server, it will not work when you are the root user (since the server will not start as root). If you already did the build as root, you do not have to start all over. Instead, make the regression test directory writable by some other user, log in as that user, and restart the tests. For example

```
root# chmod -R a+w src/test/regress  
root# chmod -R a+w contrib/spi  
root# su - joeuser  
joeuser$ cd top-level build directory  
joeuser$ gmake check
```

(The only possible “security risk” here is that other users might be able to alter the regression test results behind your back. Use common sense when managing user permissions.)

Alternatively, run the tests after installation.

If you have configured PostgreSQL to install into a location where an older PostgreSQL installation already exists, and you perform `gmake check` before installing the new version, you may find that the tests fail because the new programs try to use the already-installed shared libraries. (Typical symptoms are complaints about undefined symbols.) If you wish to run the tests before overwriting the old installation,

you'll need to build with `configure --disable-rpath`. It is not recommended that you use this option for the final installation, however.

The parallel regression test starts quite a few processes under your user ID. Presently, the maximum concurrency is twenty parallel test scripts, which means sixty processes: there's a server process, a `psql`, and usually a shell parent process for the `psql` for each test script. So if your system enforces a per-user limit on the number of processes, make sure this limit is at least seventy-five or so, else you may get random-seeming failures in the parallel test. If you are not in a position to raise the limit, you can cut down the degree of parallelism by setting the `MAX_CONNECTIONS` parameter. For example,

```
gmake MAX_CONNECTIONS=10 check
```

runs no more than ten tests concurrently.

On some systems, the default Bourne-compatible shell (`/bin/sh`) gets confused when it has to manage too many child processes in parallel. This may cause the parallel test run to lock up or fail. In such cases, specify a different Bourne-compatible shell on the command line, for example:

```
gmake SHELL=/bin/ksh check
```

If no non-broken shell is available, you may be able to work around the problem by limiting the number of connections, as shown above.

To run the tests after installation (see Chapter 14), initialize a data area and start the server, as explained in Chapter 16, then type

```
gmake installcheck
```

or for a parallel test

```
gmake installcheck-parallel
```

The tests will expect to contact the server at the local host and the default port number, unless directed otherwise by `PGHOST` and `PGPORT` environment variables.

26.2. Test Evaluation

Some properly installed and fully functional PostgreSQL installations can “fail” some of these regression tests due to platform-specific artifacts such as varying floating-point representation and time zone support. The tests are currently evaluated using a simple `diff` comparison against the outputs generated on a reference system, so the results are sensitive to small system differences. When a test is reported as “failed”, always examine the differences between expected and actual results; you may well find that the differences are not significant. Nonetheless, we still strive to maintain accurate reference files across all supported platforms, so it can be expected that all tests pass.

The actual outputs of the regression tests are in files in the `src/test/regress/results` directory. The test script uses `diff` to compare each output file against the reference outputs stored in the `src/test/regress/expected` directory. Any differences are saved for your inspection in `src/test/regress/regression.diffs`. (Or you can run `diff` yourself, if you prefer.)

26.2.1. Error message differences

Some of the regression tests involve intentional invalid input values. Error messages can come from either the PostgreSQL code or from the host platform system routines. In the latter case, the messages may vary between platforms, but should reflect similar information. These differences in messages will result in a “failed” regression test that can be validated by inspection.

26.2.2. Locale differences

If you run the tests against an already-installed server that was initialized with a collation-order locale other than C, then there may be differences due to sort order and follow-up failures. The regression test suite is set up to handle this problem by providing alternative result files that together are known to handle a large number of locales. For example, for the `char` test, the expected file `char.out` handles the C and POSIX locales, and the file `char_1.out` handles many other locales. The regression test driver will automatically pick the best file to match against when checking for success and for computing failure differences. (This means that the regression tests cannot detect whether the results are appropriate for the configured locale. The tests will simply pick the one result file that works best.)

If for some reason the existing expected files do not cover some locale, you can add a new file. The naming scheme is `testname_digit.out`. The actual digit is not significant. Remember that the regression test driver will consider all such files to be equally valid test results. If the test results are platform-specific, the technique described in Section 26.3 should be used instead.

26.2.3. Date and time differences

A few of the queries in the `horology` test will fail if you run the test on the day of a daylight-saving time changeover, or the day after one. These queries expect that the intervals between midnight yesterday, midnight today and midnight tomorrow are exactly twenty-four hours — which is wrong if daylight-saving time went into or out of effect meanwhile.

Note: Because USA daylight-saving time rules are used, this problem always occurs on the first Sunday of April, the last Sunday of October, and their following Mondays, regardless of when daylight-saving time is in effect where you live. Also note that the problem appears or disappears at midnight Pacific time (UTC-7 or UTC-8), not midnight your local time. Thus the failure may appear late on Saturday or persist through much of Tuesday, depending on where you live.

Most of the date and time results are dependent on the time zone environment. The reference files are generated for time zone `PST8PDT` (Berkeley, California), and there will be apparent failures if the tests are not run with that time zone setting. The regression test driver sets environment variable `PGTZ` to `PST8PDT`, which normally ensures proper results.

26.2.4. Floating-point differences

Some of the tests involve computing 64-bit floating-point numbers (`double precision`) from table columns. Differences in results involving mathematical functions of `double precision` columns have been observed. The `float8` and `geometry` tests are particularly prone to small differences across plat-

forms, or even with different compiler optimization options. Human eyeball comparison is needed to determine the real significance of these differences which are usually 10 places to the right of the decimal point.

Some systems display minus zero as `-0`, while others just show `0`.

Some systems signal errors from `pow()` and `exp()` differently from the mechanism expected by the current PostgreSQL code.

26.2.5. Row ordering differences

You might see differences in which the same rows are output in a different order than what appears in the expected file. In most cases this is not, strictly speaking, a bug. Most of the regression test scripts are not so pedantic as to use an `ORDER BY` for every single `SELECT`, and so their result row orderings are not well-defined according to the letter of the SQL specification. In practice, since we are looking at the same queries being executed on the same data by the same software, we usually get the same result ordering on all platforms, and so the lack of `ORDER BY` isn't a problem. Some queries do exhibit cross-platform ordering differences, however. (Ordering differences can also be triggered by non-C locale settings.)

Therefore, if you see an ordering difference, it's not something to worry about, unless the query does have an `ORDER BY` that your result is violating. But please report it anyway, so that we can add an `ORDER BY` to that particular query and thereby eliminate the bogus "failure" in future releases.

You might wonder why we don't order all the regression test queries explicitly to get rid of this issue once and for all. The reason is that that would make the regression tests less useful, not more, since they'd tend to exercise query plan types that produce ordered results to the exclusion of those that don't.

26.2.6. The "random" test

The `random` test script is intended to produce random results. In rare cases, this causes the random regression test to fail. Typing

```
diff results/random.out expected/random.out
```

should produce only one or a few lines of differences. You need not worry unless the random test fails repeatedly.

26.3. Platform-specific comparison files

Since some of the tests inherently produce platform-specific results, we have provided a way to supply platform-specific result comparison files. Frequently, the same variation applies to multiple platforms; rather than supplying a separate comparison file for every platform, there is a mapping file that defines which comparison file to use. So, to eliminate bogus test "failures" for a particular platform, you must choose or make a variant result file, and then add a line to the mapping file, which is `src/test/regress/resultmap`.

Each line in the mapping file is of the form

```
testname/platformpattern=comparisonfilename
```

The test name is just the name of the particular regression test module. The platform pattern is a pattern in the style of the Unix tool `expr` (that is, a regular expression with an implicit `^` anchor at the start). It is matched against the platform name as printed by `config.guess` followed by `:gcc` or `:cc`, depending on whether you use the GNU compiler or the system's native compiler (on systems where there is a difference). The comparison file name is the name of the substitute result comparison file.

For example: some systems interpret very small floating-point values as zero, rather than reporting an underflow error. This causes a few differences in the `float8` regression test. Therefore, we provide a variant comparison file, `float8-small-is-zero.out`, which includes the results to be expected on these systems. To silence the bogus “failure” message on OpenBSD platforms, `resultmap` includes

```
float8/i.86-.*-openbsd=float8-small-is-zero
```

which will trigger on any machine for which the output of `config.guess` matches `i.86-.*-openbsd`. Other lines in `resultmap` select the variant comparison file for other platforms where it's appropriate.

IV. Client Interfaces

This part describes the client programming interfaces distributed with PostgreSQL. Each of these chapters can be read independently. Note that there are many other programming interfaces for client programs that are distributed separately and contain their own documentation (Appendix H lists some of the more popular ones). Readers of this part should be familiar with using SQL commands to manipulate and query the database (see Part II) and of course with the programming language that the interface uses.

Chapter 27. libpq - C Library

libpq is the C application programmer's interface to PostgreSQL. libpq is a set of library functions that allow client programs to pass queries to the PostgreSQL backend server and to receive the results of these queries.

libpq is also the underlying engine for several other PostgreSQL application interfaces, including those written for C++, Perl, Python, Tcl and ECPG. So some aspects of libpq's behavior will be important to you if you use one of those packages. In particular, Section 27.11, Section 27.12 and Section 27.13 describe behavior that is visible to the user of any application that uses libpq.

Some short programs are included at the end of this chapter (Section 27.16) to show how to write programs that use libpq. There are also several complete examples of libpq applications in the directory `src/test/examples` in the source code distribution.

Client programs that use libpq must include the header file `libpq-fe.h` and must link with the libpq library.

27.1. Database Connection Control Functions

The following functions deal with making a connection to a PostgreSQL backend server. An application program can have several backend connections open at one time. (One reason to do that is to access more than one database.) Each connection is represented by a `PGconn` object, which is obtained from the function `PQconnectdb` or `PQsetdbLogin`. Note that these functions will always return a non-null object pointer, unless perhaps there is too little memory even to allocate the `PGconn` object. The `PQstatus` function should be called to check whether a connection was successfully made before queries are sent via the connection object.

`PQconnectdb`

Makes a new connection to the database server.

```
PGconn *PQconnectdb(const char *conninfo);
```

This function opens a new database connection using the parameters taken from the string `conninfo`. Unlike `PQsetdbLogin` below, the parameter set can be extended without changing the function signature, so use of this function (or its nonblocking analogues `PQconnectStart` and `PQconnectPoll`) is preferred for new application programming.

The passed string can be empty to use all default parameters, or it can contain one or more parameter settings separated by whitespace. Each parameter setting is in the form `keyword = value`. Spaces around the equal sign are optional. To write an empty value or a value containing spaces, surround it with single quotes, e.g., `keyword = 'a value'`. Single quotes and backslashes within the value must be escaped with a backslash, i.e., `\'` and `\\`.

The currently recognized parameter key words are:

`host`

Name of host to connect to. If this begins with a slash, it specifies Unix-domain communication rather than TCP/IP communication; the value is the name of the directory in which the socket

file is stored. The default behavior when `host` is not specified is to connect to a Unix-domain socket in `/tmp` (or whatever socket directory was specified when PostgreSQL was built). On machines without Unix-domain sockets, the default is to connect to `localhost`.

`hostaddr`

Numeric IP address of host to connect to. This should be in the standard IPv4 address format, e.g., `172.28.40.9`. If your machine supports IPv6, you can also use those addresses. TCP/IP communication is always used when a nonempty string is specified for this parameter.

Using `hostaddr` instead of `host` allows the application to avoid a host name look-up, which may be important in applications with time constraints. However, Kerberos authentication requires the host name. The following therefore applies: If `host` is specified without `hostaddr`, a host name lookup occurs. If `hostaddr` is specified without `host`, the value for `hostaddr` gives the remote address. When Kerberos is used, a reverse name query occurs to obtain the host name for Kerberos. If both `host` and `hostaddr` are specified, the value for `hostaddr` gives the remote address; the value for `host` is ignored, unless Kerberos is used, in which case that value is used for Kerberos authentication. (Note that authentication is likely to fail if libpq is passed a host name that is not the name of the machine at `hostaddr`.) Also, `host` rather than `hostaddr` is used to identify the connection in `~/ .pgpass` (see Section 27.12).

Without either a host name or host address, libpq will connect using a local Unix-domain socket; or on machines without Unix-domain sockets, it will attempt to connect to `localhost`.

`port`

Port number to connect to at the server host, or socket file name extension for Unix-domain connections.

`dbname`

The database name. Defaults to be the same as the user name.

`user`

PostgreSQL user name to connect as. Defaults to be the same as the operating system name of the user running the application.

`password`

Password to be used if the server demands password authentication.

`connect_timeout`

Maximum wait for connection, in seconds (write as a decimal integer string). Zero or not specified means wait indefinitely. It is not recommended to use a timeout of less than 2 seconds.

`options`

Command-line options to be sent to the server.

`tty`

Ignored (formerly, this specified where to send server debug output).

`sslmode`

This option determines whether or with what priority an SSL connection will be negotiated with the server. There are four modes: `disable` will attempt only an unencrypted SSL connection;

`allow` will negotiate, trying first a non-SSL connection, then if that fails, trying an SSL connection; `prefer` (the default) will negotiate, trying first an SSL connection, then if that fails, trying a regular non-SSL connection; `require` will try only an SSL connection.

If PostgreSQL is compiled without SSL support, using option `require` will cause an error, while options `allow` and `prefer` will be accepted but libpq will not in fact attempt an SSL connection.

`requiressl`

This option is deprecated in favor of the `sslmode` setting.

If set to 1, an SSL connection to the server is required (this is equivalent to `sslmode require`). libpq will then refuse to connect if the server does not accept an SSL connection. If set to 0 (default), libpq will negotiate the connection type with the server (equivalent to `sslmode prefer`). This option is only available if PostgreSQL is compiled with SSL support.

`service`

Service name to use for additional parameters. It specifies a service name in `pg_service.conf` that holds additional connection parameters. This allows applications to specify only a service name so connection parameters can be centrally maintained. See `share/pg_service.conf.sample` in the installation directory for information on how to set up the file.

If any parameter is unspecified, then the corresponding environment variable (see Section 27.11) is checked. If the environment variable is not set either, then the indicated built-in defaults are used.

`PQsetdbLogin`

Makes a new connection to the database server.

```
PGconn *PQsetdbLogin(const char *pghost,
                    const char *pgport,
                    const char *pgoptions,
                    const char *pgtty,
                    const char *dbName,
                    const char *login,
                    const char *pwd);
```

This is the predecessor of `PQconnectdb` with a fixed set of parameters. It has the same functionality except that the missing parameters will always take on default values. Write `NULL` or an empty string for any one of the fixed parameters that is to be defaulted.

`PQsetdb`

Makes a new connection to the database server.

```
PGconn *PQsetdb(char *pghost,
                char *pgport,
                char *pgoptions,
                char *pgtty,
                char *dbName);
```

This is a macro that calls `PQsetdbLogin` with null pointers for the `login` and `pwd` parameters. It is provided for backward compatibility with very old programs.

```
PQconnectStart
```

```
PQconnectPoll
```

Make a connection to the database server in a nonblocking manner.

```
PGconn *PQconnectStart(const char *conninfo);
PostgresPollingStatusType PQconnectPoll(PGconn *conn);
```

These two functions are used to open a connection to a database server such that your application's thread of execution is not blocked on remote I/O whilst doing so. The point of this approach is that the waits for I/O to complete can occur in the application's main loop, rather than down inside `PQconnectdb`, and so the application can manage this operation in parallel with other activities.

The database connection is made using the parameters taken from the string `conninfo`, passed to `PQconnectStart`. This string is in the same format as described above for `PQconnectdb`.

Neither `PQconnectStart` nor `PQconnectPoll` will block, so long as a number of restrictions are met:

- The `hostaddr` and `host` parameters are used appropriately to ensure that name and reverse name queries are not made. See the documentation of these parameters under `PQconnectdb` above for details.
- If you call `PQtrace`, ensure that the stream object into which you trace will not block.
- You ensure that the socket is in the appropriate state before calling `PQconnectPoll`, as described below.

To begin a nonblocking connection request, call `conn = PQconnectStart("connection_info_string")`. If `conn` is null, then `libpq` has been unable to allocate a new `PGconn` structure. Otherwise, a valid `PGconn` pointer is returned (though not yet representing a valid connection to the database). On return from `PQconnectStart`, call `status = PQstatus(conn)`. If `status` equals `CONNECTION_BAD`, `PQconnectStart` has failed.

If `PQconnectStart` succeeds, the next stage is to poll `libpq` so that it may proceed with the connection sequence. Use `PQsocket(conn)` to obtain the descriptor of the socket underlying the database connection. Loop thus: If `PQconnectPoll(conn)` last returned `PGRES_POLLING_READING`, wait until the socket is ready to read (as indicated by `select()`, `poll()`, or similar system function). Then call `PQconnectPoll(conn)` again. Conversely, if `PQconnectPoll(conn)` last returned `PGRES_POLLING_WRITING`, wait until the socket is ready to write, then call `PQconnectPoll(conn)` again. If you have yet to call `PQconnectPoll`, i.e., just after the call to `PQconnectStart`, behave as if it last returned `PGRES_POLLING_WRITING`. Continue this loop until `PQconnectPoll(conn)` returns `PGRES_POLLING_FAILED`, indicating the connection procedure has failed, or `PGRES_POLLING_OK`, indicating the connection has been successfully made.

At any time during connection, the status of the connection may be checked by calling `PQstatus`. If this gives `CONNECTION_BAD`, then the connection procedure has failed; if it gives `CONNECTION_OK`, then the connection is ready. Both of these states are equally detectable from the return value of `PQconnectPoll`, described above. Other states may also occur during (and only during) an asynchronous connection procedure. These indicate the current stage of the connection procedure and may be useful to provide feedback to the user for example. These statuses are:

`CONNECTION_STARTED`

Waiting for connection to be made.

`CONNECTION_MADE`

Connection OK; waiting to send.

`CONNECTION_AWAITING_RESPONSE`

Waiting for a response from the server.

`CONNECTION_AUTH_OK`

Received authentication; waiting for backend start-up to finish.

`CONNECTION_SSL_STARTUP`

Negotiating SSL encryption.

`CONNECTION_SETENV`

Negotiating environment-driven parameter settings.

Note that, although these constants will remain (in order to maintain compatibility), an application should never rely upon these occurring in a particular order, or at all, or on the status always being one of these documented values. An application might do something like this:

```
switch(PQstatus(conn))
{
    case CONNECTION_STARTED:
        feedback = "Connecting...";
        break;

    case CONNECTION_MADE:
        feedback = "Connected to server...";
        break;

    .
    .
    .
    default:
        feedback = "Connecting...";
}
```

The `connect_timeout` connection parameter is ignored when using `PQconnectPoll`; it is the application's responsibility to decide whether an excessive amount of time has elapsed. Otherwise, `PQconnectStart` followed by a `PQconnectPoll` loop is equivalent to `PQconnectdb`.

Note that if `PQconnectStart` returns a non-null pointer, you must call `PQfinish` when you are finished with it, in order to dispose of the structure and any associated memory blocks. This must be done even if the connection attempt fails or is abandoned.

`PQconndefaults`

Returns the default connection options.

```
PQconninfoOption *PQconndefaults(void);

typedef struct
{
    char    *keyword; /* The keyword of the option */
    char    *envvar; /* Fallback environment variable name */
    char    *compiled; /* Fallback compiled in default value */
    char    *val; /* Option's current value, or NULL */
    char    *label; /* Label for field in connect dialog */
    char    *dispchar; /* Character to display for this field
                        in a connect dialog. Values are:
                        " "      Display entered value as is
                        "*"      Password field - hide value
                        "D"      Debug option - don't show by default */
    int     dispsize; /* Field size in characters for dialog */
} PQconninfoOption;
```

Returns a connection options array. This may be used to determine all possible `PQconnectdb` options and their current default values. The return value points to an array of `PQconninfoOption` structures, which ends with an entry having a null keyword pointer. Note that the current default values (`val` fields) will depend on environment variables and other context. Callers must treat the connection options data as read-only.

After processing the options array, free it by passing it to `PQconninfoFree`. If this is not done, a small amount of memory is leaked for each call to `PQconndefaults`.

`PQfinish`

Closes the connection to the server. Also frees memory used by the `PGconn` object.

```
void PQfinish(PGconn *conn);
```

Note that even if the server connection attempt fails (as indicated by `PQstatus`), the application should call `PQfinish` to free the memory used by the `PGconn` object. The `PGconn` pointer must not be used again after `PQfinish` has been called.

`PQreset`

Resets the communication channel to the server.

```
void PQreset(PGconn *conn);
```

This function will close the connection to the server and attempt to reestablish a new connection to the same server, using all the same parameters previously used. This may be useful for error recovery if a working connection is lost.

PQresetStart
PQresetPoll

Reset the communication channel to the server, in a nonblocking manner.

```
int PQresetStart(PGconn *conn);
PostgresPollingStatusType PQresetPoll(PGconn *conn);
```

These functions will close the connection to the server and attempt to reestablish a new connection to the same server, using all the same parameters previously used. This may be useful for error recovery if a working connection is lost. They differ from `PQreset` (above) in that they act in a nonblocking manner. These functions suffer from the same restrictions as `PQconnectStart` and `PQconnectPoll`.

To initiate a connection reset, call `PQresetStart`. If it returns 0, the reset has failed. If it returns 1, poll the reset using `PQresetPoll` in exactly the same way as you would create the connection using `PQconnectPoll`.

27.2. Connection Status Functions

These functions may be used to interrogate the status of an existing database connection object.

Tip: libpq application programmers should be careful to maintain the `PGconn` abstraction. Use the accessor functions described below to get at the contents of `PGconn`. Avoid directly referencing the fields of the `PGconn` structure because they are subject to change in the future. (Beginning in PostgreSQL release 6.4, the definition of the `struct` behind `PGconn` is not even provided in `libpq-fe.h`. If you have old code that accesses `PGconn` fields directly, you can keep using it by including `libpq-int.h` too, but you are encouraged to fix the code soon.)

The following functions return parameter values established at connection. These values are fixed for the life of the `PGconn` object.

PQdb

Returns the database name of the connection.

```
char *PQdb(const PGconn *conn);
```

PQuser

Returns the user name of the connection.

```
char *PQuser(const PGconn *conn);
```

`PQpass`

Returns the password of the connection.

```
char *PQpass(const PGconn *conn);
```

`PQhost`

Returns the server host name of the connection.

```
char *PQhost(const PGconn *conn);
```

`PQport`

Returns the port of the connection.

```
char *PQport(const PGconn *conn);
```

`PQtty`

Returns the debug TTY of the connection. (This is obsolete, since the server no longer pays attention to the TTY setting, but the function remains for backwards compatibility.)

```
char *PQtty(const PGconn *conn);
```

`PQoptions`

Returns the command-line options passed in the connection request.

```
char *PQoptions(const PGconn *conn);
```

The following functions return status data that can change as operations are executed on the `PGconn` object.

`PQstatus`

Returns the status of the connection.

```
ConnStatusType PQstatus(const PGconn *conn);
```

The status can be one of a number of values. However, only two of these are seen outside of an asynchronous connection procedure: `CONNECTION_OK` and `CONNECTION_BAD`. A good connection to the database has the status `CONNECTION_OK`. A failed connection attempt is signaled by status `CONNECTION_BAD`. Ordinarily, an OK status will remain so until `PQfinish`, but a communications failure might result in the status changing to `CONNECTION_BAD` prematurely. In that case the application could try to recover by calling `PQreset`.

See the entry for `PQconnectStart` and `PQconnectPoll` with regards to other status codes that might be seen.

`PQtransactionStatus`

Returns the current in-transaction status of the server.

```
PGTransactionStatusType PQtransactionStatus(const PGconn *conn);
```

The status can be `PQTRANS_IDLE` (currently idle), `PQTRANS_ACTIVE` (a command is in progress), `PQTRANS_INTRANS` (idle, in a valid transaction block), or `PQTRANS_INERROR` (idle, in a failed transaction block). `PQTRANS_UNKNOWN` is reported if the connection is bad. `PQTRANS_ACTIVE` is reported only when a query has been sent to the server and not yet completed.

Caution

`PQtransactionStatus` will give incorrect results when using a PostgreSQL 7.3 server that has the parameter `autocommit` set to off. The server-side `autocommit` feature has been deprecated and does not exist in later server versions.

`PQparameterStatus`

Looks up a current parameter setting of the server.

```
const char *PQparameterStatus(const PGconn *conn, const char *paramName);
```

Certain parameter values are reported by the server automatically at connection startup or whenever their values change. `PQparameterStatus` can be used to interrogate these settings. It returns the current value of a parameter if known, or `NULL` if the parameter is not known.

Parameters reported as of the current release include `server_version`, `server_encoding`, `client_encoding`, `is_superuser`, `session_authorization`, `DateStyle`, `TimeZone`, and `integer_datetimes`. (`server_encoding`, `TimeZone`, and `integer_datetimes` were not reported by releases before 8.0.) Note that `server_version`, `server_encoding` and `integer_datetimes` cannot change after startup.

Pre-3.0-protocol servers do not report parameter settings, but `libpq` includes logic to obtain values for `server_version` and `client_encoding` anyway. Applications are encouraged to use `PQparameterStatus` rather than *ad hoc* code to determine these values. (Beware however that on a pre-3.0 connection, changing `client_encoding` via `SET` after connection startup will not be reflected by `PQparameterStatus`.) For `server_version`, see also `PQserverVersion`, which returns the information in a numeric form that is much easier to compare against.

Although the returned pointer is declared `const`, it in fact points to mutable storage associated with the `PGconn` structure. It is unwise to assume the pointer will remain valid across queries.

`PQprotocolVersion`

Interrogates the frontend/backend protocol being used.

```
int PQprotocolVersion(const PGconn *conn);
```

Applications may wish to use this to determine whether certain features are supported. Currently, the possible values are 2 (2.0 protocol), 3 (3.0 protocol), or zero (connection bad). This will not change after connection startup is complete, but it could theoretically change during a connection reset. The 3.0 protocol will normally be used when communicating with PostgreSQL 7.4 or later servers; pre-7.4 servers support only protocol 2.0. (Protocol 1.0 is obsolete and not supported by `libpq`.)

`PQserverVersion`

Returns an integer representing the backend version.

```
int PQserverVersion(const PGconn *conn);
```

Applications may use this to determine the version of the database server they are connected to. The number is formed by converting the major, minor, and revision numbers into two-decimal-digit numbers and appending them together. For example, version 7.4.2 will be returned as 70402, and version 8.1 will be returned as 80100 (leading zeroes are not shown). Zero is returned if the connection is bad.

`PQerrorMessage`

Returns the error message most recently generated by an operation on the connection.

```
char *PQerrorMessage(const PGconn *conn);
```

Nearly all libpq functions will set a message for `PQerrorMessage` if they fail. Note that by libpq convention, a nonempty `PQerrorMessage` result will include a trailing newline. The caller should not free the result directly. It will be freed when the associated `PGconn` handle is passed to `PQfinish`. The result string should not be expected to remain the same across operations on the `PGconn` structure.

`PQsocket`

Obtains the file descriptor number of the connection socket to the server. A valid descriptor will be greater than or equal to 0; a result of -1 indicates that no server connection is currently open. (This will not change during normal operation, but could change during connection setup or reset.)

```
int PQsocket(const PGconn *conn);
```

`PQbackendPID`

Returns the process ID (PID) of the backend server process handling this connection.

```
int PQbackendPID(const PGconn *conn);
```

The backend PID is useful for debugging purposes and for comparison to `NOTIFY` messages (which include the PID of the notifying backend process). Note that the PID belongs to a process executing on the database server host, not the local host!

`PQgetssl`

Returns the SSL structure used in the connection, or null if SSL is not in use.

```
SSL *PQgetssl(const PGconn *conn);
```

This structure can be used to verify encryption levels, check server certificates, and more. Refer to the OpenSSL documentation for information about this structure.

You must define `USE_SSL` in order to get the correct prototype for this function. Doing this will also automatically include `ssl.h` from OpenSSL.

27.3. Command Execution Functions

Once a connection to a database server has been successfully established, the functions described here are used to perform SQL queries and commands.

27.3.1. Main Functions

`PQexec`

Submits a command to the server and waits for the result.

```
PGresult *PQexec(PGconn *conn, const char *command);
```

Returns a `PGresult` pointer or possibly a null pointer. A non-null pointer will generally be returned except in out-of-memory conditions or serious errors such as inability to send the command to the server. If a null pointer is returned, it should be treated like a `PGRES_FATAL_ERROR` result. Use `PQerrorMessage` to get more information about such errors.

It is allowed to include multiple SQL commands (separated by semicolons) in the command string. Multiple queries sent in a single `PQexec` call are processed in a single transaction, unless there are explicit `BEGIN/COMMIT` commands included in the query string to divide it into multiple transactions. Note however that the returned `PGresult` structure describes only the result of the last command executed from the string. Should one of the commands fail, processing of the string stops with it and the returned `PGresult` describes the error condition.

`PQexecParams`

Submits a command to the server and waits for the result, with the ability to pass parameters separately from the SQL command text.

```
PGresult *PQexecParams(PGconn *conn,
                      const char *command,
                      int nParams,
                      const Oid *paramTypes,
                      const char * const *paramValues,
                      const int *paramLengths,
                      const int *paramFormats,
                      int resultFormat);
```

`PQexecParams` is like `PQexec`, but offers additional functionality: parameter values can be specified separately from the command string proper, and query results can be requested in either text or binary format. `PQexecParams` is supported only in protocol 3.0 and later connections; it will fail when using protocol 2.0.

If parameters are used, they are referred to in the command string as \$1, \$2, etc. `nParams` is the number of parameters supplied; it is the length of the arrays `paramTypes[]`, `paramValues[]`, `paramLengths[]`, and `paramFormats[]`. (The array pointers may be `NULL` when `nParams` is zero.) `paramTypes[]` specifies, by OID, the data types to be assigned to the parameter symbols. If `paramTypes` is `NULL`, or any particular element in the array is zero, the server assigns a data type to the parameter symbol in the same way it would do for an untyped literal string. `paramValues[]` specifies the actual values of the parameters. A null pointer in this array means the corresponding parameter is null; otherwise the pointer points to a zero-terminated text string (for text format) or binary data in the format expected by the server (for binary format). `paramLengths[]` specifies the actual data lengths of binary-format parameters. It is ignored for null parameters and text-format parameters. The array pointer may be null when there are no binary parameters. `paramFormats[]` specifies whether parameters are text (put a zero in the array) or binary (put a one in the array). If the array pointer is null then all parameters are presumed to be text. `resultFormat` is zero to obtain results in text format, or one to obtain results in binary format. (There is not currently a provision to obtain different result columns in different formats, although that is possible in the underlying protocol.)

The primary advantage of `PQexecParams` over `PQexec` is that parameter values may be separated from the command string, thus avoiding the need for tedious and error-prone quoting and escaping. Unlike `PQexec`, `PQexecParams` allows at most one SQL command in the given string. (There can be semicolons in it, but not more than one nonempty command.) This is a limitation of the underlying protocol, but has some usefulness as an extra defense against SQL-injection attacks.

`PQprepare`

Submits a request to create a prepared statement with the given parameters, and waits for completion.

```
PGresult *PQprepare(PGconn *conn,
                   const char *stmtName,
                   const char *query,
                   int nParams,
                   const Oid *paramTypes);
```

`PQprepare` creates a prepared statement for later execution with `PQexecPrepared`. This feature allows commands that will be used repeatedly to be parsed and planned just once, rather than each time they are executed. `PQprepare` is supported only in protocol 3.0 and later connections; it will fail when using protocol 2.0.

The function creates a prepared statement named `stmtName` from the `query` string, which must contain a single SQL command. `stmtName` may be "" to create an unnamed statement, in which case any pre-existing unnamed statement is automatically replaced; otherwise it is an error if the statement name is already defined in the current session. If any parameters are used, they are referred to in the query as \$1, \$2, etc. `nParams` is the number of parameters for which types are pre-specified in the array `paramTypes[]`. (The array pointer may be `NULL` when `nParams` is zero.) `paramTypes[]` specifies, by OID, the data types to be assigned to the parameter symbols. If `paramTypes` is `NULL`, or any particular element in the array is zero, the server assigns a data type to the parameter symbol in the same way it would do for an untyped literal string. Also, the query may use parameter symbols with numbers higher than `nParams`; data types will be inferred for these symbols as well.

As with `PQexec`, the result is normally a `PGresult` object whose contents indicate server-side success or failure. A null result indicates out-of-memory or inability to send the command at all. Use `PQerrorMessage` to get more information about such errors.

At present, there is no way to determine the actual data type inferred for any parameters whose types are not specified in `paramTypes[]`. This is a libpq omission that will probably be rectified in a future release.

Prepared statements for use with `PQexecPrepared` can also be created by executing SQL `PREPARE` statements. (But `PQprepare` is more flexible since it does not require parameter types to be pre-specified.) Also, although there is no libpq function for deleting a prepared statement, the SQL `DEALLOCATE` statement can be used for that purpose.

`PQexecPrepared`

Sends a request to execute a prepared statement with given parameters, and waits for the result.

```
PGresult *PQexecPrepared(PGconn *conn,
                        const char *stmtName,
                        int nParams,
                        const char * const *paramValues,
                        const int *paramLengths,
                        const int *paramFormats,
                        int resultFormat);
```

`PQexecPrepared` is like `PQexecParams`, but the command to be executed is specified by naming a previously-prepared statement, instead of giving a query string. This feature allows commands that will be used repeatedly to be parsed and planned just once, rather than each time they are executed. The statement must have been prepared previously in the current session. `PQexecPrepared` is supported only in protocol 3.0 and later connections; it will fail when using protocol 2.0.

The parameters are identical to `PQexecParams`, except that the name of a prepared statement is given instead of a query string, and the `paramTypes[]` parameter is not present (it is not needed since the prepared statement's parameter types were determined when it was created).

The `PGresult` structure encapsulates the result returned by the server. libpq application programmers should be careful to maintain the `PGresult` abstraction. Use the accessor functions below to get at the contents of `PGresult`. Avoid directly referencing the fields of the `PGresult` structure because they are subject to change in the future.

`PQresultStatus`

Returns the result status of the command.

```
ExecStatusType PQresultStatus(const PGresult *res);
```

`PQresultStatus` can return one of the following values:

`PGRES_EMPTY_QUERY`

The string sent to the server was empty.

`PGRES_COMMAND_OK`

Successful completion of a command returning no data.

`PGRES_TUPLES_OK`

Successful completion of a command returning data (such as a `SELECT` or `SHOW`).

`PGRES_COPY_OUT`

Copy Out (from server) data transfer started.

`PGRES_COPY_IN`

Copy In (to server) data transfer started.

`PGRES_BAD_RESPONSE`

The server's response was not understood.

`PGRES_NONFATAL_ERROR`

A nonfatal error (a notice or warning) occurred.

`PGRES_FATAL_ERROR`

A fatal error occurred.

If the result status is `PGRES_TUPLES_OK`, then the functions described below can be used to retrieve the rows returned by the query. Note that a `SELECT` command that happens to retrieve zero rows still shows `PGRES_TUPLES_OK`. `PGRES_COMMAND_OK` is for commands that can never return rows (`INSERT`, `UPDATE`, etc.). A response of `PGRES_EMPTY_QUERY` may indicate a bug in the client software.

A result of status `PGRES_NONFATAL_ERROR` will never be returned directly by `PQexec` or other query execution functions; results of this kind are instead passed to the notice processor (see Section 27.10).

`PQresStatus`

Converts the enumerated type returned by `PQresultStatus` into a string constant describing the status code. The caller should not free the result.

```
char *PQresStatus(ExecStatusType status);
```

`PQresultErrorMessage`

Returns the error message associated with the command, or an empty string if there was no error.

```
char *PQresultErrorMessage(const PGresult *res);
```

If there was an error, the returned string will include a trailing newline. The caller should not free the result directly. It will be freed when the associated `PGresult` handle is passed to `PQclear`.

Immediately following a `PQexec` or `PQgetResult` call, `PQerrorMessage` (on the connection) will return the same string as `PQresultErrorMessage` (on the result). However, a `PGresult` will retain its error message until destroyed, whereas the connection's error message will change when

subsequent operations are done. Use `PQresultErrorMessage` when you want to know the status associated with a particular `PGresult`; use `PQerrorMessage` when you want to know the status from the latest operation on the connection.

`PQresultErrorField`

Returns an individual field of an error report.

```
char *PQresultErrorField(const PGresult *res, int fieldcode);
```

`fieldcode` is an error field identifier; see the symbols listed below. `NULL` is returned if the `PGresult` is not an error or warning result, or does not include the specified field. Field values will normally not include a trailing newline. The caller should not free the result directly. It will be freed when the associated `PGresult` handle is passed to `PQclear`.

The following field codes are available:

`PG_DIAG_SEVERITY`

The severity; the field contents are `ERROR`, `FATAL`, or `PANIC` (in an error message), or `WARNING`, `NOTICE`, `DEBUG`, `INFO`, or `LOG` (in a notice message), or a localized translation of one of these. Always present.

`PG_DIAG_SQLSTATE`

The `SQLSTATE` code for the error. The `SQLSTATE` code identifies the type of error that has occurred; it can be used by front-end applications to perform specific operations (such as error handling) in response to a particular database error. For a list of the possible `SQLSTATE` codes, see Appendix A. This field is not localizable, and is always present.

`PG_DIAG_MESSAGE_PRIMARY`

The primary human-readable error message (typically one line). Always present.

`PG_DIAG_MESSAGE_DETAIL`

Detail: an optional secondary error message carrying more detail about the problem. May run to multiple lines.

`PG_DIAG_MESSAGE_HINT`

Hint: an optional suggestion what to do about the problem. This is intended to differ from detail in that it offers advice (potentially inappropriate) rather than hard facts. May run to multiple lines.

`PG_DIAG_STATEMENT_POSITION`

A string containing a decimal integer indicating an error cursor position as an index into the original statement string. The first character has index 1, and positions are measured in characters not bytes.

`PG_DIAG_INTERNAL_POSITION`

This is defined the same as the `PG_DIAG_STATEMENT_POSITION` field, but it is used when the cursor position refers to an internally generated command rather than the one submitted by the client. The `PG_DIAG_INTERNAL_QUERY` field will always appear when this field appears.

`PG_DIAG_INTERNAL_QUERY`

The text of a failed internally-generated command. This could be, for example, a SQL query issued by a PL/pgSQL function.

`PG_DIAG_CONTEXT`

An indication of the context in which the error occurred. Presently this includes a call stack traceback of active procedural language functions and internally-generated queries. The trace is one entry per line, most recent first.

`PG_DIAG_SOURCE_FILE`

The file name of the source-code location where the error was reported.

`PG_DIAG_SOURCE_LINE`

The line number of the source-code location where the error was reported.

`PG_DIAG_SOURCE_FUNCTION`

The name of the source-code function reporting the error.

The client is responsible for formatting displayed information to meet its needs; in particular it should break long lines as needed. Newline characters appearing in the error message fields should be treated as paragraph breaks, not line breaks.

Errors generated internally by libpq will have severity and primary message, but typically no other fields. Errors returned by a pre-3.0-protocol server will include severity and primary message, and sometimes a detail message, but no other fields.

Note that error fields are only available from `PGresult` objects, not `PGconn` objects; there is no `PQerrorField` function.

`PQclear`

Frees the storage associated with a `PGresult`. Every command result should be freed via `PQclear` when it is no longer needed.

```
void PQclear(PGresult *res);
```

You can keep a `PGresult` object around for as long as you need it; it does not go away when you issue a new command, nor even if you close the connection. To get rid of it, you must call `PQclear`. Failure to do this will result in memory leaks in your application.

`PQmakeEmptyPGresult`

Constructs an empty `PGresult` object with the given status.

```
PGresult* PQmakeEmptyPGresult(PGconn *conn, ExecStatusType status);
```

This is libpq's internal function to allocate and initialize an empty `PGresult` object. It is exported because some applications find it useful to generate result objects (particularly objects with error status) themselves. If `conn` is not null and `status` indicates an error, the current error message of

the specified connection is copied into the `PGresult`. Note that `PQclear` should eventually be called on the object, just as with a `PGresult` returned by `libpq` itself.

27.3.2. Retrieving Query Result Information

These functions are used to extract information from a `PGresult` object that represents a successful query result (that is, one that has status `PGRES_TUPLES_OK`). For objects with other status values they will act as though the result has zero rows and zero columns.

`PQntuples`

Returns the number of rows (tuples) in the query result.

```
int PQntuples(const PGresult *res);
```

`PQnfields`

Returns the number of columns (fields) in each row of the query result.

```
int PQnfields(const PGresult *res);
```

`PQfname`

Returns the column name associated with the given column number. Column numbers start at 0. The caller should not free the result directly. It will be freed when the associated `PGresult` handle is passed to `PQclear`.

```
char *PQfname(const PGresult *res,
              int column_number);
```

NULL is returned if the column number is out of range.

`PQfnumber`

Returns the column number associated with the given column name.

```
int PQfnumber(const PGresult *res,
              const char *column_name);
```

-1 is returned if the given name does not match any column.

The given name is treated like an identifier in an SQL command, that is, it is downcased unless double-quoted. For example, given a query result generated from the SQL command

```
select 1 as FOO, 2 as "BAR";
```

we would have the results:

```
PQfname(res, 0)           foo
PQfname(res, 1)          BAR
PQfnumber(res, "FOO")    0
```

```
PQfnumber(res, "foo")      0
PQfnumber(res, "BAR")     -1
PQfnumber(res, "\"BAR\"") 1
```

PQftable

Returns the OID of the table from which the given column was fetched. Column numbers start at 0.

```
Oid PQftable(const PGresult *res,
             int column_number);
```

InvalidOid is returned if the column number is out of range, or if the specified column is not a simple reference to a table column, or when using pre-3.0 protocol. You can query the system table `pg_class` to determine exactly which table is referenced.

The type `Oid` and the constant `InvalidOid` will be defined when you include the libpq header file. They will both be some integer type.

PQftablecol

Returns the column number (within its table) of the column making up the specified query result column. Query-result column numbers start at 0, but table columns have nonzero numbers.

```
int PQftablecol(const PGresult *res,
               int column_number);
```

Zero is returned if the column number is out of range, or if the specified column is not a simple reference to a table column, or when using pre-3.0 protocol.

PQfformat

Returns the format code indicating the format of the given column. Column numbers start at 0.

```
int PQfformat(const PGresult *res,
              int column_number);
```

Format code zero indicates textual data representation, while format code one indicates binary representation. (Other codes are reserved for future definition.)

PQftype

Returns the data type associated with the given column number. The integer returned is the internal OID number of the type. Column numbers start at 0.

```
Oid PQftype(const PGresult *res,
            int column_number);
```

You can query the system table `pg_type` to obtain the names and properties of the various data types. The OIDs of the built-in data types are defined in the file `src/include/catalog/pg_type.h` in the source tree.

`PQfmod`

Returns the type modifier of the column associated with the given column number. Column numbers start at 0.

```
int PQfmod(const PGresult *res,
           int column_number);
```

The interpretation of modifier values is type-specific; they typically indicate precision or size limits. The value -1 is used to indicate “no information available”. Most data types do not use modifiers, in which case the value is always -1.

`PQfsize`

Returns the size in bytes of the column associated with the given column number. Column numbers start at 0.

```
int PQfsize(const PGresult *res,
            int column_number);
```

`PQfsize` returns the space allocated for this column in a database row, in other words the size of the server’s internal representation of the data type. (Accordingly, it is not really very useful to clients.) A negative value indicates the data type is variable-length.

`PQbinaryTuples`

Returns 1 if the `PGresult` contains binary data and 0 if it contains text data.

```
int PQbinaryTuples(const PGresult *res);
```

This function is deprecated (except for its use in connection with `COPY`), because it is possible for a single `PGresult` to contain text data in some columns and binary data in others. `PQfformat` is preferred. `PQbinaryTuples` returns 1 only if all columns of the result are binary (format 1).

`PQgetvalue`

Returns a single field value of one row of a `PGresult`. Row and column numbers start at 0. The caller should not free the result directly. It will be freed when the associated `PGresult` handle is passed to `PQclear`.

```
char *PQgetvalue(const PGresult *res,
                 int row_number,
                 int column_number);
```

For data in text format, the value returned by `PQgetvalue` is a null-terminated character string representation of the field value. For data in binary format, the value is in the binary representation determined by the data type’s `typsend` and `typreceive` functions. (The value is actually followed by a zero byte in this case too, but that is not ordinarily useful, since the value is likely to contain embedded nulls.)

An empty string is returned if the field value is null. See `PQgetisnull` to distinguish null values from empty-string values.

The pointer returned by `PQgetvalue` points to storage that is part of the `PGresult` structure. One should not modify the data it points to, and one must explicitly copy the data into other storage if it is to be used past the lifetime of the `PGresult` structure itself.

`PQgetisnull`

Tests a field for a null value. Row and column numbers start at 0.

```
int PQgetisnull(const PGresult *res,
               int row_number,
               int column_number);
```

This function returns 1 if the field is null and 0 if it contains a non-null value. (Note that `PQgetvalue` will return an empty string, not a null pointer, for a null field.)

`PQgetlength`

Returns the actual length of a field value in bytes. Row and column numbers start at 0.

```
int PQgetlength(const PGresult *res,
               int row_number,
               int column_number);
```

This is the actual data length for the particular data value, that is, the size of the object pointed to by `PQgetvalue`. For text data format this is the same as `strlen()`. For binary format this is essential information. Note that one should *not* rely on `PQfsize` to obtain the actual data length.

`PQprint`

Prints out all the rows and, optionally, the column names to the specified output stream.

```
void PQprint(FILE *fout,          /* output stream */
             const PGresult *res,
             const PQprintOpt *po);

typedef struct {
    pqbool header;      /* print output field headings and row count */
    pqbool align;      /* fill align the fields */
    pqbool standard;   /* old brain dead format */
    pqbool html3;      /* output HTML tables */
    pqbool expanded;   /* expand tables */
    pqbool pager;      /* use pager for output if needed */
    char *fieldSep;    /* field separator */
    char *tableOpt;    /* attributes for HTML table element */
    char *caption;     /* HTML table caption */
    char **fieldName; /* null-terminated array of replacement field names */
} PQprintOpt;
```

This function was formerly used by `psql` to print query results, but this is no longer the case. Note that it assumes all the data is in text format.

27.3.3. Retrieving Result Information for Other Commands

These functions are used to extract information from `PGresult` objects that are not `SELECT` results.

`PQcmdStatus`

Returns the command status tag from the SQL command that generated the `PGresult`.

```
char *PQcmdStatus(PGresult *res);
```

Commonly this is just the name of the command, but it may include additional data such as the number of rows processed. The caller should not free the result directly. It will be freed when the associated `PGresult` handle is passed to `PQclear`.

`PQcmdTuples`

Returns the number of rows affected by the SQL command.

```
char *PQcmdTuples(PGresult *res);
```

This function returns a string containing the number of rows affected by the SQL statement that generated the `PGresult`. This function can only be used following the execution of an `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, `MOVE`, or `FETCH` statement, or an `EXECUTE` of a prepared query that contains a `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE` statement. If the command that generated the `PGresult` was anything else, `PQcmdTuples` returns the empty string. The caller should not free the return value directly. It will be freed when the associated `PGresult` handle is passed to `PQclear`.

`PQoidValue`

Returns the OID of the inserted row, if the SQL command was an `INSERT` that inserted exactly one row into a table that has OIDs, or a `EXECUTE` of a prepared query containing a suitable `INSERT` statement. Otherwise, this function returns `InvalidOid`. This function will also return `InvalidOid` if the table affected by the `INSERT` statement does not contain OIDs.

```
Oid PQoidValue(const PGresult *res);
```

`PQoidStatus`

Returns a string with the OID of the inserted row, if the SQL command was an `INSERT` that inserted exactly one row, or a `EXECUTE` of a prepared statement consisting of a suitable `INSERT`. (The string will be 0 if the `INSERT` did not insert exactly one row, or if the target table does not have OIDs.) If the command was not an `INSERT`, returns an empty string.

```
char *PQoidStatus(const PGresult *res);
```

This function is deprecated in favor of `PQoidValue`. It is not thread-safe.

27.3.4. Escaping Strings for Inclusion in SQL Commands

`PQescapeString` escapes a string for use within an SQL command. This is useful when inserting data values as literal constants in SQL commands. Certain characters (such as quotes and backslashes) must be escaped to prevent them from being interpreted specially by the SQL parser. `PQescapeString` performs this operation.

Tip: It is especially important to do proper escaping when handling strings that were received from an untrustworthy source. Otherwise there is a security risk: you are vulnerable to “SQL injection” attacks wherein unwanted SQL commands are fed to your database.

Note that it is not necessary nor correct to do escaping when a data value is passed as a separate parameter in `PQexecParams` or its sibling routines.

```
size_t PQescapeString (char *to, const char *from, size_t length);
```

The parameter `from` points to the first character of the string that is to be escaped, and the `length` parameter gives the number of characters in this string. A terminating zero byte is not required, and should not be counted in `length`. (If a terminating zero byte is found before `length` bytes are processed, `PQescapeString` stops at the zero; the behavior is thus rather like `strncpy`.) `to` shall point to a buffer that is able to hold at least one more character than twice the value of `length`, otherwise the behavior is undefined. A call to `PQescapeString` writes an escaped version of the `from` string to the `to` buffer, replacing special characters so that they cannot cause any harm, and adding a terminating zero byte. The single quotes that must surround PostgreSQL string literals are not included in the result string; they should be provided in the SQL command that the result is inserted into.

`PQescapeString` returns the number of characters written to `to`, not including the terminating zero byte.

Behavior is undefined if the `to` and `from` strings overlap.

27.3.5. Escaping Binary Strings for Inclusion in SQL Commands

`PQescapeBytea`

Escapes binary data for use within an SQL command with the type `bytea`. As with `PQescapeString`, this is only used when inserting data directly into an SQL command string.

```
unsigned char *PQescapeBytea(const unsigned char *from,
                             size_t from_length,
                             size_t *to_length);
```

Certain byte values *must* be escaped (but all byte values *may* be escaped) when used as part of a `bytea` literal in an SQL statement. In general, to escape a byte, it is converted into the three digit octal number equal to the octet value, and preceded by two backslashes. The single quote (‘) and backslash (\) characters have special alternative escape sequences. See Section 8.4 for more information. `PQescapeBytea` performs this operation, escaping only the minimally required bytes.

The `from` parameter points to the first byte of the string that is to be escaped, and the `from_length` parameter gives the number of bytes in this binary string. (A terminating zero byte is neither necessary nor counted.) The `to_length` parameter points to a variable that will hold the resultant escaped string length. The result string length includes the terminating zero byte of the result.

`PQescapeBytea` returns an escaped version of the `from` parameter binary string in memory allocated with `malloc()`. This memory must be freed using `PQfreemem` when the result is no longer needed. The return string has all special characters replaced so that they can be properly processed by the PostgreSQL string literal parser, and the `bytea` input function. A terminating zero byte is also added. The single quotes that must surround PostgreSQL string literals are not part of the result string.

`PQunescapeBytea`

Converts an escaped string representation of binary data into binary data — the reverse of `PQescapeBytea`. This is needed when retrieving `bytea` data in text format, but not when retrieving it in binary format.

```
unsigned char *PQunescapeBytea(const unsigned char *from, size_t *to_length);
```

The `from` parameter points to an escaped string such as might be returned by `PQgetvalue` when applied to a `bytea` column. `PQunescapeBytea` converts this string representation into its binary representation. It returns a pointer to a buffer allocated with `malloc()`, or null on error, and puts the size of the buffer in `to_length`. The result must be freed using `PQfreemem` when it is no longer needed.

`PQfreemem`

Frees memory allocated by `libpq`.

```
void PQfreemem(void *ptr);
```

Frees memory allocated by `libpq`, particularly `PQescapeBytea`, `PQunescapeBytea`, and `PQnotifies`. It is needed by Microsoft Windows, which cannot free memory across DLLs, unless multithreaded DLLs (`/MD` in VC6) are used. On other platforms, this function is the same as the standard library function `free()`.

27.4. Asynchronous Command Processing

The `PQexec` function is adequate for submitting commands in normal, synchronous applications. It has a couple of deficiencies, however, that can be of importance to some users:

- `PQexec` waits for the command to be completed. The application may have other work to do (such as maintaining a user interface), in which case it won't want to block waiting for the response.
- Since the execution of the client application is suspended while it waits for the result, it is hard for the application to decide that it would like to try to cancel the ongoing command. (It can be done from a signal handler, but not otherwise.)

- `PQexec` can return only one `PGresult` structure. If the submitted command string contains multiple SQL commands, all but the last `PGresult` are discarded by `PQexec`.

Applications that do not like these limitations can instead use the underlying functions that `PQexec` is built from: `PQsendQuery` and `PQgetResult`. There are also `PQsendQueryParams`, `PQsendPrepare`, and `PQsendQueryPrepared`, which can be used with `PQgetResult` to duplicate the functionality of `PQexecParams`, `PQprepare`, and `PQexecPrepared` respectively.

`PQsendQuery`

Submits a command to the server without waiting for the result(s). 1 is returned if the command was successfully dispatched and 0 if not (in which case, use `PQerrorMessage` to get more information about the failure).

```
int PQsendQuery(PGconn *conn, const char *command);
```

After successfully calling `PQsendQuery`, call `PQgetResult` one or more times to obtain the results. `PQsendQuery` may not be called again (on the same connection) until `PQgetResult` has returned a null pointer, indicating that the command is done.

`PQsendQueryParams`

Submits a command and separate parameters to the server without waiting for the result(s).

```
int PQsendQueryParams(PGconn *conn,
                     const char *command,
                     int nParams,
                     const Oid *paramTypes,
                     const char * const *paramValues,
                     const int *paramLengths,
                     const int *paramFormats,
                     int resultFormat);
```

This is equivalent to `PQsendQuery` except that query parameters can be specified separately from the query string. The function's parameters are handled identically to `PQexecParams`. Like `PQexecParams`, it will not work on 2.0-protocol connections, and it allows only one command in the query string.

`PQsendPrepare`

Sends a request to create a prepared statement with the given parameters, without waiting for completion.

```
int PQsendPrepare(PGconn *conn,
                 const char *stmtName,
                 const char *query,
                 int nParams,
                 const Oid *paramTypes);
```

This is an asynchronous version of `PQprepare`: it returns 1 if it was able to dispatch the request, and 0 if not. After a successful call, call `PQgetResult` to determine whether the server successfully created the prepared statement. The function's parameters are handled identically to `PQprepare`. Like `PQprepare`, it will not work on 2.0-protocol connections.

`PQsendQueryPrepared`

Sends a request to execute a prepared statement with given parameters, without waiting for the result(s).

```
int PQsendQueryPrepared(PGconn *conn,
                        const char *stmtName,
                        int nParams,
                        const char * const *paramValues,
                        const int *paramLengths,
                        const int *paramFormats,
                        int resultFormat);
```

This is similar to `PQsendQueryParams`, but the command to be executed is specified by naming a previously-prepared statement, instead of giving a query string. The function's parameters are handled identically to `PQexecPrepared`. Like `PQexecPrepared`, it will not work on 2.0-protocol connections.

`PQgetResult`

Waits for the next result from a prior `PQsendQuery`, `PQsendQueryParams`, `PQsendPrepare`, or `PQsendQueryPrepared` call, and returns it. A null pointer is returned when the command is complete and there will be no more results.

```
PGresult *PQgetResult(PGconn *conn);
```

`PQgetResult` must be called repeatedly until it returns a null pointer, indicating that the command is done. (If called when no command is active, `PQgetResult` will just return a null pointer at once.) Each non-null result from `PQgetResult` should be processed using the same `PGresult` accessor functions previously described. Don't forget to free each result object with `PQclear` when done with it. Note that `PQgetResult` will block only if a command is active and the necessary response data has not yet been read by `PQconsumeInput`.

Using `PQsendQuery` and `PQgetResult` solves one of `PQexec`'s problems: If a command string contains multiple SQL commands, the results of those commands can be obtained individually. (This allows a simple form of overlapped processing, by the way: the client can be handling the results of one command while the server is still working on later queries in the same command string.) However, calling `PQgetResult` will still cause the client to block until the server completes the next SQL command. This can be avoided by proper use of two more functions:

`PQconsumeInput`

If input is available from the server, consume it.

```
int PQconsumeInput(PGconn *conn);
```

`PQconsumeInput` normally returns 1 indicating "no error", but returns 0 if there was some kind of trouble (in which case `PQerrorMessage` can be consulted). Note that the result does not say whether any input data was actually collected. After calling `PQconsumeInput`, the application may check `PQisBusy` and/or `PQnotifies` to see if their state has changed.

`PQconsumeInput` may be called even if the application is not prepared to deal with a result or notification just yet. The function will read available data and save it in a buffer, thereby causing a `select()` read-ready indication to go away. The application can thus use `PQconsumeInput` to clear the `select()` condition immediately, and then examine the results at leisure.

`PQisBusy`

Returns 1 if a command is busy, that is, `PQgetResult` would block waiting for input. A 0 return indicates that `PQgetResult` can be called with assurance of not blocking.

```
int PQisBusy(PGconn *conn);
```

`PQisBusy` will not itself attempt to read data from the server; therefore `PQconsumeInput` must be invoked first, or the busy state will never end.

A typical application using these functions will have a main loop that uses `select()` or `poll()` to wait for all the conditions that it must respond to. One of the conditions will be input available from the server, which in terms of `select()` means readable data on the file descriptor identified by `PQsocket`. When the main loop detects input ready, it should call `PQconsumeInput` to read the input. It can then call `PQisBusy`, followed by `PQgetResult` if `PQisBusy` returns false (0). It can also call `PQnotifies` to detect NOTIFY messages (see Section 27.7).

A client that uses `PQsendQuery/PQgetResult` can also attempt to cancel a command that is still being processed by the server; see Section 27.5. But regardless of the return value of `PQcancel`, the application must continue with the normal result-reading sequence using `PQgetResult`. A successful cancellation will simply cause the command to terminate sooner than it would have otherwise.

By using the functions described above, it is possible to avoid blocking while waiting for input from the database server. However, it is still possible that the application will block waiting to send output to the server. This is relatively uncommon but can happen if very long SQL commands or data values are sent. (It is much more probable if the application sends data via `COPY IN`, however.) To prevent this possibility and achieve completely nonblocking database operation, the following additional functions may be used.

`PQsetnonblocking`

Sets the nonblocking status of the connection.

```
int PQsetnonblocking(PGconn *conn, int arg);
```

Sets the state of the connection to nonblocking if `arg` is 1, or blocking if `arg` is 0. Returns 0 if OK, -1 if error.

In the nonblocking state, calls to `PQsendQuery`, `PQputline`, `PQputnbytes`, and `PQendcopy` will not block but instead return an error if they need to be called again.

Note that `PQexec` does not honor nonblocking mode; if it is called, it will act in blocking fashion anyway.

PQisnonblocking

Returns the blocking status of the database connection.

```
int PQisnonblocking(const PGconn *conn);
```

Returns 1 if the connection is set to nonblocking mode and 0 if blocking.

PQflush

Attempts to flush any queued output data to the server. Returns 0 if successful (or if the send queue is empty), -1 if it failed for some reason, or 1 if it was unable to send all the data in the send queue yet (this case can only occur if the connection is nonblocking).

```
int PQflush(PGconn *conn);
```

After sending any command or data on a nonblocking connection, call `PQflush`. If it returns 1, wait for the socket to be write-ready and call it again; repeat until it returns 0. Once `PQflush` returns 0, wait for the socket to be read-ready and then read the response as described above.

27.5. Cancelling Queries in Progress

A client application can request cancellation of a command that is still being processed by the server, using the functions described in this section.

PQgetCancel

Creates a data structure containing the information needed to cancel a command issued through a particular database connection.

```
PGcancel *PQgetCancel(PGconn *conn);
```

`PQgetCancel` creates a `PGcancel` object given a `PGconn` connection object. It will return `NULL` if the given `conn` is `NULL` or an invalid connection. The `PGcancel` object is an opaque structure that is not meant to be accessed directly by the application; it can only be passed to `PQcancel` or `PQfreeCancel`.

PQfreeCancel

Frees a data structure created by `PQgetCancel`.

```
void PQfreeCancel(PGcancel *cancel);
```

`PQfreeCancel` frees a data object previously created by `PQgetCancel`.

`PQcancel`

Requests that the server abandon processing of the current command.

```
int PQcancel(PQcancel *cancel, char *errbuf, int errbufsize);
```

The return value is 1 if the cancel request was successfully dispatched and 0 if not. If not, `errbuf` is filled with an error message explaining why not. `errbuf` must be a char array of size `errbufsize` (the recommended size is 256 bytes).

Successful dispatch is no guarantee that the request will have any effect, however. If the cancellation is effective, the current command will terminate early and return an error result. If the cancellation fails (say, because the server was already done processing the command), then there will be no visible result at all.

`PQcancel` can safely be invoked from a signal handler, if the `errbuf` is a local variable in the signal handler. The `PQcancel` object is read-only as far as `PQcancel` is concerned, so it can also be invoked from a thread that is separate from the one manipulating the `PGconn` object.

`PQrequestCancel`

Requests that the server abandon processing of the current command.

```
int PQrequestCancel(PGconn *conn);
```

`PQrequestCancel` is a deprecated variant of `PQcancel`. It operates directly on the `PGconn` object, and in case of failure stores the error message in the `PGconn` object (whence it can be retrieved by `PQerrorMessage`). Although the functionality is the same, this approach creates hazards for multiple-thread programs and signal handlers, since it is possible that overwriting the `PGconn`'s error message will mess up the operation currently in progress on the connection.

27.6. The Fast-Path Interface

PostgreSQL provides a fast-path interface to send simple function calls to the server.

Tip: This interface is somewhat obsolete, as one may achieve similar performance and greater functionality by setting up a prepared statement to define the function call. Then, executing the statement with binary transmission of parameters and results substitutes for a fast-path function call.

The function `PQfn` requests execution of a server function via the fast-path interface:

```
PGresult *PQfn(PGconn *conn,
               int fnid,
               int *result_buf,
               int *result_len,
```

```

        int result_is_int,
        const PQArgBlock *args,
        int nargs);

typedef struct {
    int len;
    int isint;
    union {
        int *ptr;
        int integer;
    } u;
} PQArgBlock;

```

The `fnid` argument is the OID of the function to be executed. `args` and `nargs` define the parameters to be passed to the function; they must match the declared function argument list. When the `isint` field of a parameter structure is true, the `u.integer` value is sent to the server as an integer of the indicated length (this must be 1, 2, or 4 bytes); proper byte-swapping occurs. When `isint` is false, the indicated number of bytes at `*u.ptr` are sent with no processing; the data must be in the format expected by the server for binary transmission of the function's argument data type. `result_buf` is the buffer in which to place the return value. The caller must have allocated sufficient space to store the return value. (There is no check!) The actual result length will be returned in the integer pointed to by `result_len`. If a 1, 2, or 4-byte integer result is expected, set `result_is_int` to 1, otherwise set it to 0. Setting `result_is_int` to 1 causes `libpq` to byte-swap the value if necessary, so that it is delivered as a proper `int` value for the client machine. When `result_is_int` is 0, the binary-format byte string sent by the server is returned unmodified.

`PQfn` always returns a valid `PGresult` pointer. The result status should be checked before the result is used. The caller is responsible for freeing the `PGresult` with `PQclear` when it is no longer needed.

Note that it is not possible to handle null arguments, null results, nor set-valued results when using this interface.

27.7. Asynchronous Notification

PostgreSQL offers asynchronous notification via the `LISTEN` and `NOTIFY` commands. A client session registers its interest in a particular notification condition with the `LISTEN` command (and can stop listening with the `UNLISTEN` command). All sessions listening on a particular condition will be notified asynchronously when a `NOTIFY` command with that condition name is executed by any session. No additional information is passed from the notifier to the listener. Thus, typically, any actual data that needs to be communicated is transferred through a database table. Commonly, the condition name is the same as the associated table, but it is not necessary for there to be any associated table.

`libpq` applications submit `LISTEN` and `UNLISTEN` commands as ordinary SQL commands. The arrival of `NOTIFY` messages can subsequently be detected by calling `PQnotifies`.

The function `PQnotifies` returns the next notification from a list of unhandled notification messages received from the server. It returns a null pointer if there are no pending notifications. Once a notification is returned from `PQnotifies`, it is considered handled and will be removed from the list of notifications.

```

PGnotify *PQnotifies(PGconn *conn);

typedef struct pgNotify {
    char *relname;           /* notification condition name */
    int  be_pid;            /* process ID of server process */
    char *extra;            /* notification parameter */
} PGnotify;

```

After processing a `PGnotify` object returned by `PQnotifies`, be sure to free it with `PQfreemem`. It is sufficient to free the `PGnotify` pointer; the `relname` and `extra` fields do not represent separate allocations. (At present, the `extra` field is unused and will always point to an empty string.)

Note: In PostgreSQL 6.4 and later, the `be_pid` is that of the notifying server process, whereas in earlier versions it was always the PID of your own server process.

Example 27-2 gives a sample program that illustrates the use of asynchronous notification.

`PQnotifies` does not actually read data from the server; it just returns messages previously absorbed by another libpq function. In prior releases of libpq, the only way to ensure timely receipt of `NOTIFY` messages was to constantly submit commands, even empty ones, and then check `PQnotifies` after each `PQexec`. While this still works, it is deprecated as a waste of processing power.

A better way to check for `NOTIFY` messages when you have no useful commands to execute is to call `PQconsumeInput`, then check `PQnotifies`. You can use `select()` to wait for data to arrive from the server, thereby using no CPU power unless there is something to do. (See `PQsocket` to obtain the file descriptor number to use with `select()`.) Note that this will work OK whether you submit commands with `PQsendQuery/PQgetResult` or simply use `PQexec`. You should, however, remember to check `PQnotifies` after each `PQgetResult` or `PQexec`, to see if any notifications came in during the processing of the command.

27.8. Functions Associated with the COPY Command

The `COPY` command in PostgreSQL has options to read from or write to the network connection used by libpq. The functions described in this section allow applications to take advantage of this capability by supplying or consuming copied data.

The overall process is that the application first issues the SQL `COPY` command via `PQexec` or one of the equivalent functions. The response to this (if there is no error in the command) will be a `PGresult` object bearing a status code of `PGRES_COPY_OUT` or `PGRES_COPY_IN` (depending on the specified copy direction). The application should then use the functions of this section to receive or transmit data rows. When the data transfer is complete, another `PGresult` object is returned to indicate success or failure of the transfer. Its status will be `PGRES_COMMAND_OK` for success or `PGRES_FATAL_ERROR` if some problem was encountered. At this point further SQL commands may be issued via `PQexec`. (It is not possible to execute other SQL commands using the same connection while the `COPY` operation is in progress.)

If a `COPY` command is issued via `PQexec` in a string that could contain additional commands, the application must continue fetching results via `PQgetResult` after completing the `COPY` sequence. Only when `PQgetResult` returns `NULL` is it certain that the `PQexec` command string is done and it is safe to issue more commands.

The functions of this section should be executed only after obtaining a result status of `PGRES_COPY_OUT` or `PGRES_COPY_IN` from `PQexec` or `PQgetResult`.

A `PGresult` object bearing one of these status values carries some additional data about the `COPY` operation that is starting. This additional data is available using functions that are also used in connection with query results:

`PQnfields`

Returns the number of columns (fields) to be copied.

`PQbinaryTuples`

0 indicates the overall copy format is textual (rows separated by newlines, columns separated by separator characters, etc). 1 indicates the overall copy format is binary. See *COPY* for more information.

`PQfformat`

Returns the format code (0 for text, 1 for binary) associated with each column of the copy operation. The per-column format codes will always be zero when the overall copy format is textual, but the binary format can support both text and binary columns. (However, as of the current implementation of `COPY`, only binary columns appear in a binary copy; so the per-column formats always match the overall format at present.)

Note: These additional data values are only available when using protocol 3.0. When using protocol 2.0, all these functions will return 0.

27.8.1. Functions for Sending `COPY` Data

These functions are used to send data during `COPY FROM STDIN`. They will fail if called when the connection is not in `COPY_IN` state.

`PQputCopyData`

Sends data to the server during `COPY_IN` state.

```
int PQputCopyData(PGconn *conn,
                  const char *buffer,
                  int nbytes);
```

Transmits the `COPY` data in the specified `buffer`, of length `nbytes`, to the server. The result is 1 if the data was sent, zero if it was not sent because the attempt would block (this case is only possible if the connection is in nonblocking mode), or -1 if an error occurred. (Use `PQerrorMessage` to retrieve details if the return value is -1. If the value is zero, wait for write-ready and try again.)

The application may divide the `COPY` data stream into buffer loads of any convenient size. Buffer-load boundaries have no semantic significance when sending. The contents of the data stream must match the data format expected by the `COPY` command; see *COPY* for details.

PQputCopyEnd

Sends end-of-data indication to the server during COPY_IN state.

```
int PQputCopyEnd(PGconn *conn,
                 const char *errmsg);
```

Ends the COPY_IN operation successfully if `errmsg` is NULL. If `errmsg` is not NULL then the COPY is forced to fail, with the string pointed to by `errmsg` used as the error message. (One should not assume that this exact error message will come back from the server, however, as the server might have already failed the COPY for its own reasons. Also note that the option to force failure does not work when using pre-3.0-protocol connections.)

The result is 1 if the termination data was sent, zero if it was not sent because the attempt would block (this case is only possible if the connection is in nonblocking mode), or -1 if an error occurred. (Use `PQerrorMessage` to retrieve details if the return value is -1. If the value is zero, wait for write-ready and try again.)

After successfully calling `PQputCopyEnd`, call `PQgetResult` to obtain the final result status of the COPY command. One may wait for this result to be available in the usual way. Then return to normal operation.

27.8.2. Functions for Receiving COPY Data

These functions are used to receive data during COPY TO STDOUT. They will fail if called when the connection is not in COPY_OUT state.

PQgetCopyData

Receives data from the server during COPY_OUT state.

```
int PQgetCopyData(PGconn *conn,
                  char **buffer,
                  int async);
```

Attempts to obtain another row of data from the server during a COPY. Data is always returned one data row at a time; if only a partial row is available, it is not returned. Successful return of a data row involves allocating a chunk of memory to hold the data. The `buffer` parameter must be non-NULL. `*buffer` is set to point to the allocated memory, or to NULL in cases where no buffer is returned. A non-NULL result buffer must be freed using `PQfreemem` when no longer needed.

When a row is successfully returned, the return value is the number of data bytes in the row (this will always be greater than zero). The returned string is always null-terminated, though this is probably only useful for textual COPY. A result of zero indicates that the COPY is still in progress, but no row is yet available (this is only possible when `async` is true). A result of -1 indicates that the COPY is done. A result of -2 indicates that an error occurred (consult `PQerrorMessage` for the reason).

When `async` is true (not zero), `PQgetCopyData` will not block waiting for input; it will return zero if the COPY is still in progress but no complete row is available. (In this case wait for read-ready

before trying again; it does not matter whether you call `PQconsumeInput`.) When `async` is false (zero), `PQgetCopyData` will block until data is available or the operation completes.

After `PQgetCopyData` returns -1, call `PQgetResult` to obtain the final result status of the `COPY` command. One may wait for this result to be available in the usual way. Then return to normal operation.

27.8.3. Obsolete Functions for COPY

These functions represent older methods of handling `COPY`. Although they still work, they are deprecated due to poor error handling, inconvenient methods of detecting end-of-data, and lack of support for binary or nonblocking transfers.

`PQgetline`

Reads a newline-terminated line of characters (transmitted by the server) into a buffer string of size `length`.

```
int PQgetline(PGconn *conn,
             char *buffer,
             int length);
```

This function copies up to `length-1` characters into the buffer and converts the terminating newline into a zero byte. `PQgetline` returns EOF at the end of input, 0 if the entire line has been read, and 1 if the buffer is full but the terminating newline has not yet been read.

Note that the application must check to see if a new line consists of the two characters `\.`, which indicates that the server has finished sending the results of the `COPY` command. If the application might receive lines that are more than `length-1` characters long, care is needed to be sure it recognizes the `\.` line correctly (and does not, for example, mistake the end of a long data line for a terminator line).

`PQgetlineAsync`

Reads a row of `COPY` data (transmitted by the server) into a buffer without blocking.

```
int PQgetlineAsync(PGconn *conn,
                 char *buffer,
                 int bufsize);
```

This function is similar to `PQgetline`, but it can be used by applications that must read `COPY` data asynchronously, that is, without blocking. Having issued the `COPY` command and gotten a `PGRES_COPY_OUT` response, the application should call `PQconsumeInput` and `PQgetlineAsync` until the end-of-data signal is detected.

Unlike `PQgetline`, this function takes responsibility for detecting end-of-data.

On each call, `PQgetlineAsync` will return data if a complete data row is available in libpq's input buffer. Otherwise, no data is returned until the rest of the row arrives. The function returns -1 if the end-of-copy-data marker has been recognized, or 0 if no data is available, or a positive number giving

the number of bytes of data returned. If -1 is returned, the caller must next call `PQendcopy`, and then return to normal processing.

The data returned will not extend beyond a data-row boundary. If possible a whole row will be returned at one time. But if the buffer offered by the caller is too small to hold a row sent by the server, then a partial data row will be returned. With textual data this can be detected by testing whether the last returned byte is `\n` or not. (In a binary `COPY`, actual parsing of the `COPY` data format will be needed to make the equivalent determination.) The returned string is not null-terminated. (If you want to add a terminating null, be sure to pass a `bufsize` one smaller than the room actually available.)

`PQputline`

Sends a null-terminated string to the server. Returns 0 if OK and `EOF` if unable to send the string.

```
int PQputline(PGconn *conn,
              const char *string);
```

The `COPY` data stream sent by a series of calls to `PQputline` has the same format as that returned by `PQgetlineAsync`, except that applications are not obliged to send exactly one data row per `PQputline` call; it is okay to send a partial line or multiple lines per call.

Note: Before PostgreSQL protocol 3.0, it was necessary for the application to explicitly send the two characters `\.` as a final line to indicate to the server that it had finished sending `COPY` data. While this still works, it is deprecated and the special meaning of `\.` can be expected to be removed in a future release. It is sufficient to call `PQendcopy` after having sent the actual data.

`PQputnbytes`

Sends a non-null-terminated string to the server. Returns 0 if OK and `EOF` if unable to send the string.

```
int PQputnbytes(PGconn *conn,
                const char *buffer,
                int nbytes);
```

This is exactly like `PQputline`, except that the data buffer need not be null-terminated since the number of bytes to send is specified directly. Use this procedure when sending binary data.

`PQendcopy`

Synchronizes with the server.

```
int PQendcopy(PGconn *conn);
```

This function waits until the server has finished the copying. It should either be issued when the last string has been sent to the server using `PQputline` or when the last string has been received from the server using `PQgetline`. It must be issued or the server will get “out of sync” with the client. Upon return from this function, the server is ready to receive the next SQL command. The return value is 0 on successful completion, nonzero otherwise. (Use `PQerrorMessage` to retrieve details if the return value is nonzero.)

When using `PQgetResult`, the application should respond to a `PGRES_COPY_OUT` result by executing `PQgetline` repeatedly, followed by `PQendcopy` after the terminator line is seen. It

should then return to the `PQgetResult` loop until `PQgetResult` returns a null pointer. Similarly a `PGRES_COPY_IN` result is processed by a series of `PQputline` calls followed by `PQendcopy`, then return to the `PQgetResult` loop. This arrangement will ensure that a `COPY` command embedded in a series of SQL commands will be executed correctly.

Older applications are likely to submit a `COPY` via `PQexec` and assume that the transaction is done after `PQendcopy`. This will work correctly only if the `COPY` is the only SQL command in the command string.

27.9. Control Functions

These functions control miscellaneous details of libpq's behavior.

`PQsetErrorVerbosity`

Determines the verbosity of messages returned by `PQerrorMessage` and `PQresultErrorMessage`.

```
typedef enum {
    PQERRORS_TERSE,
    PQERRORS_DEFAULT,
    PQERRORS_VERBOSE
} PGVerbosity;
```

```
PGVerbosity PQsetErrorVerbosity(PGconn *conn, PGVerbosity verbosity);
```

`PQsetErrorVerbosity` sets the verbosity mode, returning the connection's previous setting. In *TERSE* mode, returned messages include severity, primary text, and position only; this will normally fit on a single line. The default mode produces messages that include the above plus any detail, hint, or context fields (these may span multiple lines). The *VERBOSE* mode includes all available fields. Changing the verbosity does not affect the messages available from already-existing `PGresult` objects, only subsequently-created ones.

`PQtrace`

Enables tracing of the client/server communication to a debugging file stream.

```
void PQtrace(PGconn *conn, FILE *stream);
```

`PQuntrace`

Disables tracing started by `PQtrace`.

```
void PQuntrace(PGconn *conn);
```

27.10. Notice Processing

Notice and warning messages generated by the server are not returned by the query execution functions, since they do not imply failure of the query. Instead they are passed to a notice handling function, and execution continues normally after the handler returns. The default notice handling function prints the message on `stderr`, but the application can override this behavior by supplying its own handling function.

For historical reasons, there are two levels of notice handling, called the notice receiver and notice processor. The default behavior is for the notice receiver to format the notice and pass a string to the notice processor for printing. However, an application that chooses to provide its own notice receiver will typically ignore the notice processor layer and just do all the work in the notice receiver.

The function `PQsetNoticeReceiver` sets or examines the current notice receiver for a connection object. Similarly, `PQsetNoticeProcessor` sets or examines the current notice processor.

```
typedef void (*PQnoticeReceiver) (void *arg, const PGresult *res);

PQnoticeReceiver
PQsetNoticeReceiver(PGconn *conn,
                   PQnoticeReceiver proc,
                   void *arg);

typedef void (*PQnoticeProcessor) (void *arg, const char *message);

PQnoticeProcessor
PQsetNoticeProcessor(PGconn *conn,
                   PQnoticeProcessor proc,
                   void *arg);
```

Each of these functions returns the previous notice receiver or processor function pointer, and sets the new value. If you supply a null function pointer, no action is taken, but the current pointer is returned.

When a notice or warning message is received from the server, or generated internally by libpq, the notice receiver function is called. It is passed the message in the form of a `PGRES_NONFATAL_ERROR` `PGresult`. (This allows the receiver to extract individual fields using `PQresultErrorField`, or the complete preformatted message using `PQresultErrorMessage`.) The same void pointer passed to `PQsetNoticeReceiver` is also passed. (This pointer can be used to access application-specific state if needed.)

The default notice receiver simply extracts the message (using `PQresultErrorMessage`) and passes it to the notice processor.

The notice processor is responsible for handling a notice or warning message given in text form. It is passed the string text of the message (including a trailing newline), plus a void pointer that is the same one passed to `PQsetNoticeProcessor`. (This pointer can be used to access application-specific state if needed.)

The default notice processor is simply

```
static void
defaultNoticeProcessor(void *arg, const char *message)
{
    fprintf(stderr, "%s", message);
}
```

Once you have set a notice receiver or processor, you should expect that that function could be called as long as either the `PGconn` object or `PGresult` objects made from it exist. At creation of a `PGresult`, the `PGconn`'s current notice handling pointers are copied into the `PGresult` for possible use by functions like `PQgetvalue`.

27.11. Environment Variables

The following environment variables can be used to select default connection parameter values, which will be used by `PQconnectdb`, `PQsetdbLogin` and `PQsetdb` if no value is directly specified by the calling code. These are useful to avoid hard-coding database connection information into simple client applications, for example.

- `PGHOST` sets the database server name. If this begins with a slash, it specifies Unix-domain communication rather than TCP/IP communication; the value is then the name of the directory in which the socket file is stored (in a default installation setup this would be `/tmp`).
- `PGHOSTADDR` specifies the numeric IP address of the database server. This can be set instead of or in addition to `PGHOST` to avoid DNS lookup overhead. See the documentation of these parameters, under `PQconnectdb` above, for details on their interaction.

When neither `PGHOST` nor `PGHOSTADDR` is set, the default behavior is to connect using a local Unix-domain socket; or on machines without Unix-domain sockets, `libpq` will attempt to connect to `localhost`.

- `PGPORT` sets the TCP port number or Unix-domain socket file extension for communicating with the PostgreSQL server.
- `PGDATABASE` sets the PostgreSQL database name.
- `PGUSER` sets the user name used to connect to the database.
- `PGPASSWORD` sets the password used if the server demands password authentication. This environment variable is deprecated for security reasons; instead consider using the `~/.pgpass` file (see Section 27.12).
- `PGSERVICE` sets the service name to be looked up in `pg_service.conf`. This offers a shorthand way of setting all the parameters.
- `PGREALM` sets the Kerberos realm to use with PostgreSQL, if it is different from the local realm. If `PGREALM` is set, `libpq` applications will attempt authentication with servers for this realm and use separate ticket files to avoid conflicts with local ticket files. This environment variable is only used if Kerberos authentication is selected by the server.
- `PGOPTIONS` sets additional run-time options for the PostgreSQL server.
- `PGSSLMODE` determines whether and with what priority an SSL connection will be negotiated with the server. There are four modes: `disable` will attempt only an unencrypted SSL connection; `allow` will negotiate, trying first a non-SSL connection, then if that fails, trying an SSL connection; `prefer` (the default) will negotiate, trying first an SSL connection, then if that fails, trying a regular non-SSL

connection; `require` will try only an SSL connection. If PostgreSQL is compiled without SSL support, using option `require` will cause an error, while options `allow` and `prefer` will be accepted but libpq will not in fact attempt an SSL connection.

- `PGREQUIRESSL` sets whether or not the connection must be made over SSL. If set to “1”, libpq will refuse to connect if the server does not accept an SSL connection (equivalent to `sslmode prefer`). This option is deprecated in favor of the `sslmode` setting, and is only available if PostgreSQL is compiled with SSL support.
- `PGCONNECT_TIMEOUT` sets the maximum number of seconds that libpq will wait when attempting to connect to the PostgreSQL server. If unset or set to zero, libpq will wait indefinitely. It is not recommended to set the timeout to less than 2 seconds.

The following environment variables can be used to specify default behavior for each PostgreSQL session. (See also the `ALTER USER` and `ALTER DATABASE` commands for ways to set default behavior on a per-user or per-database basis.)

- `PGDATESTYLE` sets the default style of date/time representation. (Equivalent to `SET datestyle TO ...`)
- `PGTZ` sets the default time zone. (Equivalent to `SET timezone TO ...`)
- `PGCLIENTENCODING` sets the default client character set encoding. (Equivalent to `SET client_encoding TO ...`)
- `PGGEO` sets the default mode for the genetic query optimizer. (Equivalent to `SET geqo TO ...`)

Refer to the SQL command `SET` for information on correct values for these environment variables.

The following environment variables determine internal behavior of libpq; they override compiled-in defaults.

- `PGSYSCONFDIR` sets the directory containing the `pg_service.conf` file.
- `PGLOCALEDIR` sets the directory containing the `locale` files for message internationalization.

27.12. The Password File

The file `.pgpass` in a user’s home directory is a file that can contain passwords to be used if the connection requires a password (and no password has been specified otherwise). On Microsoft Windows the file is named `%APPDATA%\postgresql\pgpass.conf` (where `%APPDATA%` refers to the Application Data subdirectory in the user’s profile).

This file should contain lines of the following format:

```
hostname:port:database:username:password
```

Each of the first four fields may be a literal value, or `*`, which matches anything. The password field from the first line that matches the current connection parameters will be used. (Therefore, put more-specific

entries first when you are using wildcards.) If an entry needs to contain `:` or `\`, escape this character with `\`.

The permissions on `.pgpass` must disallow any access to world or group; achieve this by the command `chmod 0600 ~/.pgpass`. If the permissions are less strict than this, the file will be ignored. (The file permissions are not currently checked on Microsoft Windows, however.)

27.13. SSL Support

PostgreSQL has native support for using SSL connections to encrypt client/server communications for increased security. See Section 16.7 for details about the server-side SSL functionality.

If the server demands a client certificate, libpq will send the certificate stored in file `~/.postgresql/postgresql.crt` within the user's home directory. A matching private key file `~/.postgresql/postgresql.key` must also be present, and must not be world-readable. (On Microsoft Windows these files are named `%APPDATA%\postgresql\postgresql.crt` and `%APPDATA%\postgresql\postgresql.key`.)

If the file `~/.postgresql/root.crt` is present in the user's home directory, libpq will use the certificate list stored therein to verify the server's certificate. (On Microsoft Windows the file is named `%APPDATA%\postgresql\root.crt`.) The SSL connection will fail if the server does not present a certificate; therefore, to use this feature the server must also have a `root.crt` file.

27.14. Behavior in Threaded Programs

libpq is reentrant and thread-safe if the `configure` command-line option `--enable-thread-safety` was used when the PostgreSQL distribution was built. In addition, you might need to use additional compiler command-line options when you compile your application code. Refer to your system's documentation for information about how to build thread-enabled applications, or look in `src/Makefile.global` for `PTHREAD_CFLAGS` and `PTHREAD_LIBS`.

One restriction is that no two threads attempt to manipulate the same `PGconn` object at the same time. In particular, you cannot issue concurrent commands from different threads through the same connection object. (If you need to run concurrent commands, use multiple connections.)

`PGresult` objects are read-only after creation, and so can be passed around freely between threads.

The deprecated functions `PQrequestCancel`, `PQoidStatus` and `fe_setauthsvc` are not thread-safe and should not be used in multithread programs. `PQrequestCancel` can be replaced by `PQcancel`. `PQoidStatus` can be replaced by `PQoidValue`. There is no good reason to call `fe_setauthsvc` at all.

libpq applications that use the `crypt` authentication method rely on the `crypt()` operating system function, which is often not thread-safe. It is better to use the `md5` method, which is thread-safe on all platforms.

If you experience problems with threaded applications, run the program in `src/tools/thread` to see if your platform has thread-unsafe functions. This program is run by `configure`, but for binary distributions your library might not match the library used to build the binaries.

27.15. Building libpq Programs

To build (i.e., compile and link) a program using libpq you need to do all of the following things:

- Include the `libpq-fe.h` header file:

```
#include <libpq-fe.h>
```

If you failed to do that then you will normally get error messages from your compiler similar to

```
foo.c: In function 'main':
foo.c:34: 'PGconn' undeclared (first use in this function)
foo.c:35: 'PGresult' undeclared (first use in this function)
foo.c:54: 'CONNECTION_BAD' undeclared (first use in this function)
foo.c:68: 'PGRES_COMMAND_OK' undeclared (first use in this function)
foo.c:95: 'PGRES_TUPLES_OK' undeclared (first use in this function)
```

- Point your compiler to the directory where the PostgreSQL header files were installed, by supplying the `-Idirectory` option to your compiler. (In some cases the compiler will look into the directory in question by default, so you can omit this option.) For instance, your compile command line could look like:

```
cc -c -I/usr/local/pgsql/include testprog.c
```

If you are using makefiles then add the option to the `CPPFLAGS` variable:

```
CPPFLAGS += -I/usr/local/pgsql/include
```

If there is any chance that your program might be compiled by other users then you should not hardcode the directory location like that. Instead, you can run the utility `pg_config` to find out where the header files are on the local system:

```
$ pg_config --includedir
/usr/local/include
```

Failure to specify the correct option to the compiler will result in an error message such as

```
testlibpq.c:8:22: libpq-fe.h: No such file or directory
```

- When linking the final program, specify the option `-lpq` so that the libpq library gets pulled in, as well as the option `-Idirectory` to point the compiler to the directory where the libpq library resides. (Again, the compiler will search some directories by default.) For maximum portability, put the `-L` option before the `-lpq` option. For example:

```
cc -o testprog testprog1.o testprog2.o -L/usr/local/pgsql/lib -lpq
```

You can find out the library directory using `pg_config` as well:

```
$ pg_config --libdir
/usr/local/pgsql/lib
```

Error messages that point to problems in this area could look like the following.

```
testlibpq.o: In function `main':
testlibpq.o(.text+0x60): undefined reference to `PQsetdbLogin'
testlibpq.o(.text+0x71): undefined reference to `PQstatus'
testlibpq.o(.text+0xa4): undefined reference to `PQerrorMessage'
```

This means you forgot `-lpq`.

```
/usr/bin/ld: cannot find -lpq
```

This means you forgot the `-L` option or did not specify the right directory.

If your codes references the header file `libpq-int.h` and you refuse to fix your code to not use it, starting in PostgreSQL 7.2, this file will be found in `includedir/postgresql/internal/libpq-int.h`, so you need to add the appropriate `-I` option to your compiler command line.

27.16. Example Programs

These examples and others can be found in the directory `src/test/examples` in the source code distribution.

Example 27-1. libpq Example Program 1

```
/*
 * testlibpq.c
 *
 * Test the C version of LIBPQ, the POSTGRES frontend library.
 */
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include "libpq-fe.h"

static void
exit_nicely(PGconn *conn)
{
    PQfinish(conn);
    exit(1);
}

int
main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    const char *conninfo;
    PGconn      *conn;
    PGresult     *res;
    int          nFields;
    int          i,
                j;

    /*
     * If the user supplies a parameter on the command line, use it as
```

```

* the conninfo string; otherwise default to setting dbname=template1
* and using environment variables or defaults for all other connection
* parameters.
*/
if (argc > 1)
    conninfo = argv[1];
else
    conninfo = "dbname = template1";

/* Make a connection to the database */
conn = PQconnectdb(conninfo);

/* Check to see that the backend connection was successfully made */
if (PQstatus(conn) != CONNECTION_OK)
{
    fprintf(stderr, "Connection to database failed: %s",
            PQerrorMessage(conn));
    exit_nicely(conn);
}

/*
 * Our test case here involves using a cursor, for which we must be
 * inside a transaction block. We could do the whole thing with a
 * single PQexec() of "select * from pg_database", but that's too
 * trivial to make a good example.
 */

/* Start a transaction block */
res = PQexec(conn, "BEGIN");
if (PQresultStatus(res) != PGRES_COMMAND_OK)
{
    fprintf(stderr, "BEGIN command failed: %s", PQerrorMessage(conn));
    PQclear(res);
    exit_nicely(conn);
}

/*
 * Should PQclear PGresult whenever it is no longer needed to avoid
 * memory leaks
 */
PQclear(res);

/*
 * Fetch rows from pg_database, the system catalog of databases
 */
res = PQexec(conn, "DECLARE myportal CURSOR FOR select * from pg_database");
if (PQresultStatus(res) != PGRES_COMMAND_OK)
{
    fprintf(stderr, "DECLARE CURSOR failed: %s", PQerrorMessage(conn));
    PQclear(res);
    exit_nicely(conn);
}
PQclear(res);

```

```

res = PQexec(conn, "FETCH ALL in myportal");
if (PQresultStatus(res) != PGRES_TUPLES_OK)
{
    fprintf(stderr, "FETCH ALL failed: %s", PQerrorMessage(conn));
    PQclear(res);
    exit_nicely(conn);
}

/* first, print out the attribute names */
nFields = PQnfields(res);
for (i = 0; i < nFields; i++)
    printf("%-15s", PQfname(res, i));
printf("\n\n");

/* next, print out the rows */
for (i = 0; i < PQntuples(res); i++)
{
    for (j = 0; j < nFields; j++)
        printf("%-15s", PQgetvalue(res, i, j));
    printf("\n");
}

PQclear(res);

/* close the portal ... we don't bother to check for errors ... */
res = PQexec(conn, "CLOSE myportal");
PQclear(res);

/* end the transaction */
res = PQexec(conn, "END");
PQclear(res);

/* close the connection to the database and cleanup */
PQfinish(conn);

return 0;
}

```

Example 27-2. libpq Example Program 2

```

/*
 * testlibpq2.c
 *           Test of the asynchronous notification interface
 *
 * Start this program, then from psql in another window do
 *   NOTIFY TBL2;
 * Repeat four times to get this program to exit.
 *
 * Or, if you want to get fancy, try this:
 * populate a database with the following commands
 * (provided in src/test/examples/testlibpq2.sql):

```

```

*
* CREATE TABLE TBL1 (i int4);
*
* CREATE TABLE TBL2 (i int4);
*
* CREATE RULE r1 AS ON INSERT TO TBL1 DO
*     (INSERT INTO TBL2 VALUES (new.i); NOTIFY TBL2);
*
* and do this four times:
*
* INSERT INTO TBL1 VALUES (10);
*/
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <errno.h>
#include <sys/time.h>
#include "libpq-fe.h"

static void
exit_nicely(PGconn *conn)
{
    PQfinish(conn);
    exit(1);
}

int
main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    const char *conninfo;
    PGconn     *conn;
    PGresult   *res;
    PGnotify   *notify;
    int         nnotifies;

    /*
     * If the user supplies a parameter on the command line, use it as
     * the conninfo string; otherwise default to setting dbname=templatel
     * and using environment variables or defaults for all other connection
     * parameters.
     */
    if (argc > 1)
        conninfo = argv[1];
    else
        conninfo = "dbname = templatel";

    /* Make a connection to the database */
    conn = PQconnectdb(conninfo);

    /* Check to see that the backend connection was successfully made */
    if (PQstatus(conn) != CONNECTION_OK)
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "Connection to database failed: %s",

```

```

        PQerrorMessage(conn));
        exit_nicely(conn);
    }

    /*
     * Issue LISTEN command to enable notifications from the rule's NOTIFY.
     */
    res = PQexec(conn, "LISTEN TBL2");
    if (PQresultStatus(res) != PGRES_COMMAND_OK)
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "LISTEN command failed: %s", PQerrorMessage(conn));
        PQclear(res);
        exit_nicely(conn);
    }

    /*
     * should PQclear PGresult whenever it is no longer needed to avoid
     * memory leaks
     */
    PQclear(res);

    /* Quit after four notifies are received. */
    nnotifies = 0;
    while (nnotifies < 4)
    {
        /*
         * Sleep until something happens on the connection. We use select(2)
         * to wait for input, but you could also use poll() or similar
         * facilities.
         */
        int                sock;
        fd_set             input_mask;

        sock = PQsocket(conn);

        if (sock < 0)
            break; /* shouldn't happen */

        FD_ZERO(&input_mask);
        FD_SET(sock, &input_mask);

        if (select(sock + 1, &input_mask, NULL, NULL, NULL) < 0)
        {
            fprintf(stderr, "select() failed: %s\n", strerror(errno));
            exit_nicely(conn);
        }

        /* Now check for input */
        PQconsumeInput(conn);
        while ((notify = PQnotifies(conn)) != NULL)
        {
            fprintf(stderr,
                "ASYNC NOTIFY of '%s' received from backend pid

```

```

                                notify->relnam, notify->be_pid);
                                PQfreemem(notify);
                                nnotifies++;
                                }
                                }

                                fprintf(stderr, "Done.\n");

                                /* close the connection to the database and cleanup */
                                PQfinish(conn);

                                return 0;
                                }

```

Example 27-3. libpq Example Program 3

```

/*
 * testlibpq3.c
 *          Test out-of-line parameters and binary I/O.
 *
 * Before running this, populate a database with the following commands
 * (provided in src/test/examples/testlibpq3.sql):
 *
 * CREATE TABLE test1 (i int4, t text, b bytea);
 *
 * INSERT INTO test1 values (1, 'joe"s place', '\\000\\001\\002\\003\\004');
 * INSERT INTO test1 values (2, 'ho there', '\\004\\003\\002\\001\\000');
 *
 * The expected output is:
 *
 * tuple 0: got
 *   i = (4 bytes) 1
 *   t = (11 bytes) 'joe's place'
 *   b = (5 bytes) \000\001\002\003\004
 *
 */
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include "libpq-fe.h"

/* for ntohl/htonl */
#include <netinet/in.h>
#include <arpa/inet.h>

static void
exit_nicely(PGconn *conn)
{
    PQfinish(conn);
    exit(1);
}

```

```

}

int
main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    const char *conninfo;
    PGconn      *conn;
    PGresult     *res;
    const char *paramValues[1];
    int          i,
                j;
    int          i_fnum,
                t_fnum,
                b_fnum;

    /*
     * If the user supplies a parameter on the command line, use it as
     * the conninfo string; otherwise default to setting dbname=templatl
     * and using environment variables or defaults for all other connection
     * parameters.
     */
    if (argc > 1)
        conninfo = argv[1];
    else
        conninfo = "dbname = templatl";

    /* Make a connection to the database */
    conn = PQconnectdb(conninfo);

    /* Check to see that the backend connection was successfully made */
    if (PQstatus(conn) != CONNECTION_OK)
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "Connection to database failed: %s",
                PQerrorMessage(conn));
        exit_nicely(conn);
    }

    /*
     * The point of this program is to illustrate use of PQexecParams()
     * with out-of-line parameters, as well as binary transmission of
     * results.  By using out-of-line parameters we can avoid a lot of
     * tedious mucking about with quoting and escaping.  Notice how we
     * don't have to do anything special with the quote mark in the
     * parameter value.
     */

    /* Here is our out-of-line parameter value */
    paramValues[0] = "joe's place";

    res = PQexecParams(conn,
                        "SELECT * FROM test1 WHERE t = $1",
                        1,          /* one param */
                        NULL,       /* let the backend deduce param

```

```

                                paramValues,
                                NULL,          /* don't need param lengths sin
                                NULL,          /* default to all text params *
                                1);          /* ask for binary results */

if (PQresultStatus(res) != PGRES_TUPLES_OK)
{
    fprintf(stderr, "SELECT failed: %s", PQerrorMessage(conn));
    PQclear(res);
    exit_nicely(conn);
}

/* Use PQfnumber to avoid assumptions about field order in result */
i_fnum = PQfnumber(res, "i");
t_fnum = PQfnumber(res, "t");
b_fnum = PQfnumber(res, "b");

for (i = 0; i < PQntuples(res); i++)
{
    char        *iptr;
    char        *tptr;
    char        *bptr;
    int          blen;
    int          ival;

    /* Get the field values (we ignore possibility they are null!) */
    iptr = PQgetvalue(res, i, i_fnum);
    tptr = PQgetvalue(res, i, t_fnum);
    bptr = PQgetvalue(res, i, b_fnum);

    /*
     * The binary representation of INT4 is in network byte order,
     * which we'd better coerce to the local byte order.
     */
    ival = ntohl(*(uint32_t *) iptr);

    /*
     * The binary representation of TEXT is, well, text, and since
     * libpq was nice enough to append a zero byte to it, it'll work
     * just fine as a C string.
     *
     * The binary representation of BYTEA is a bunch of bytes, which
     * could include embedded nulls so we have to pay attention to
     * field length.
     */
    blen = PQgetlength(res, i, b_fnum);

    printf("tuple %d: got\n", i);
    printf(" i = (%d bytes) %d\n",
           PQgetlength(res, i, i_fnum), ival);
    printf(" t = (%d bytes) '%s'\n",
           PQgetlength(res, i, t_fnum), tptr);
    printf(" b = (%d bytes) ", blen);

```

```
        for (j = 0; j < blen; j++)
            printf("\\%03o", bptr[j]);
        printf("\n\n");
    }

    PQclear(res);

    /* close the connection to the database and cleanup */
    PQfinish(conn);

    return 0;
}
```

Chapter 28. Large Objects

PostgreSQL has a *large object* facility, which provides stream-style access to user data that is stored in a special large-object structure. Streaming access is useful when working with data values that are too large to manipulate conveniently as a whole.

This chapter describes the implementation and the programming and query language interfaces to PostgreSQL large object data. We use the libpq C library for the examples in this chapter, but most programming interfaces native to PostgreSQL support equivalent functionality. Other interfaces may use the large object interface internally to provide generic support for large values. This is not described here.

28.1. History

POSTGRES 4.2, the indirect predecessor of PostgreSQL, supported three standard implementations of large objects: as files external to the POSTGRES server, as external files managed by the POSTGRES server, and as data stored within the POSTGRES database. This caused considerable confusion among users. As a result, only support for large objects as data stored within the database is retained in PostgreSQL. Even though this is slower to access, it provides stricter data integrity. For historical reasons, this storage scheme is referred to as *Inversion large objects*. (You will see the term *Inversion* used occasionally to mean the same thing as large object.) Since PostgreSQL 7.1, all large objects are placed in one system table called `pg_largeobject`.

PostgreSQL 7.1 introduced a mechanism (nicknamed “TOAST”) that allows data values to be much larger than single pages. This makes the large object facility partially obsolete. One remaining advantage of the large object facility is that it allows values up to 2 GB in size, whereas TOASTed fields can be at most 1 GB. Also, large objects can be manipulated piece-by-piece much more easily than ordinary data fields, so the practical limits are considerably different.

28.2. Implementation Features

The large object implementation breaks large objects up into “chunks” and stores the chunks in rows in the database. A B-tree index guarantees fast searches for the correct chunk number when doing random access reads and writes.

28.3. Client Interfaces

This section describes the facilities that PostgreSQL client interface libraries provide for accessing large objects. All large object manipulation using these functions *must* take place within an SQL transaction block. (This requirement is strictly enforced as of PostgreSQL 6.5, though it has been an implicit requirement in previous versions, resulting in misbehavior if ignored.) The PostgreSQL large object interface is modeled after the Unix file-system interface, with analogues of `open`, `read`, `write`, `lseek`, etc.

Client applications which use the large object interface in libpq should include the header file `libpq/libpq-fs.h` and link with the libpq library.

28.3.1. Creating a Large Object

The function

```
Oid lo_creat(PGconn *conn, int mode);
```

creates a new large object. *mode* is a bit mask describing several different attributes of the new object. The symbolic constants used here are defined in the header file `libpq/libpq-fs.h`. The access type (read, write, or both) is controlled by or'ing together the bits `INV_READ` and `INV_WRITE`. The low-order sixteen bits of the mask have historically been used at Berkeley to designate the storage manager number on which the large object should reside. These bits should always be zero now. (The access type does not actually do anything anymore either, but one or both flag bits must be set to avoid an error.) The return value is the OID that was assigned to the new large object, or `InvalidOid` (zero) on failure.

An example:

```
inv_oid = lo_creat(conn, INV_READ|INV_WRITE);
```

28.3.2. Importing a Large Object

To import an operating system file as a large object, call

```
Oid lo_import(PGconn *conn, const char *filename);
```

filename specifies the operating system name of the file to be imported as a large object. The return value is the OID that was assigned to the new large object, or `InvalidOid` (zero) on failure. Note that the file is read by the client interface library, not by the server; so it must exist in the client filesystem and be readable by the client application.

28.3.3. Exporting a Large Object

To export a large object into an operating system file, call

```
int lo_export(PGconn *conn, Oid lobjId, const char *filename);
```

The `lobjId` argument specifies the OID of the large object to export and the `filename` argument specifies the operating system name of the file. Note that the file is written by the client interface library, not by the server. Returns 1 on success, -1 on failure.

28.3.4. Opening an Existing Large Object

To open an existing large object for reading or writing, call

```
int lo_open(PGconn *conn, Oid lobjId, int mode);
```

The `lobjId` argument specifies the OID of the large object to open. The `mode` bits control whether the object is opened for reading (`INV_READ`), writing (`INV_WRITE`), or both. A large object cannot be opened before it is created. `lo_open` returns a (non-negative) large object descriptor for later use in `lo_read`,

`lo_write`, `lo_lseek`, `lo_tell`, and `lo_close`. The descriptor is only valid for the duration of the current transaction. On failure, -1 is returned.

28.3.5. Writing Data to a Large Object

The function

```
int lo_write(PGconn *conn, int fd, const char *buf, size_t len);
```

writes `len` bytes from `buf` to large object descriptor `fd`. The `fd` argument must have been returned by a previous `lo_open`. The number of bytes actually written is returned. In the event of an error, the return value is negative.

28.3.6. Reading Data from a Large Object

The function

```
int lo_read(PGconn *conn, int fd, char *buf, size_t len);
```

reads `len` bytes from large object descriptor `fd` into `buf`. The `fd` argument must have been returned by a previous `lo_open`. The number of bytes actually read is returned. In the event of an error, the return value is negative.

28.3.7. Seeking in a Large Object

To change the current read or write location associated with a large object descriptor, call

```
int lo_lseek(PGconn *conn, int fd, int offset, int whence);
```

This function moves the current location pointer for the large object descriptor identified by `fd` to the new location specified by `offset`. The valid values for `whence` are `SEEK_SET` (seek from object start), `SEEK_CUR` (seek from current position), and `SEEK_END` (seek from object end). The return value is the new location pointer, or -1 on error.

28.3.8. Obtaining the Seek Position of a Large Object

To obtain the current read or write location of a large object descriptor, call

```
int lo_tell(PGconn *conn, int fd);
```

If there is an error, the return value is negative.

28.3.9. Closing a Large Object Descriptor

A large object descriptor may be closed by calling

```
int lo_close(PGconn *conn, int fd);
```

where `fd` is a large object descriptor returned by `lo_open`. On success, `lo_close` returns zero. On error, the return value is negative.

Any large object descriptors that remain open at the end of a transaction will be closed automatically.

28.3.10. Removing a Large Object

To remove a large object from the database, call

```
int lo_unlink(PGconn *conn, Oid loobjId);
```

The `loobjId` argument specifies the OID of the large object to remove. Returns 1 if successful, -1 on failure.

28.4. Server-Side Functions

There are server-side functions callable from SQL that correspond to each of the client-side functions described above; indeed, for the most part the client-side functions are simply interfaces to the equivalent server-side functions. The ones that are actually useful to call via SQL commands are `lo_creat`, `lo_unlink`, `lo_import`, and `lo_export`. Here are examples of their use:

```
CREATE TABLE image (
    name          text,
    raster        oid
);

SELECT lo_creat(-1);          -- returns OID of new, empty large object

SELECT lo_unlink(173454);    -- deletes large object with OID 173454

INSERT INTO image (name, raster)
VALUES ('beautiful image', lo_import('/etc/motd'));

SELECT lo_export(image.raster, '/tmp/motd') FROM image
WHERE name = 'beautiful image';
```

The server-side `lo_import` and `lo_export` functions behave considerably differently from their client-side analogs. These two functions read and write files in the server's file system, using the permissions of the database's owning user. Therefore, their use is restricted to superusers. In contrast, the client-side import and export functions read and write files in the client's file system, using the permissions of the client program. The client-side functions can be used by any PostgreSQL user.

28.5. Example Program

Example 28-1 is a sample program which shows how the large object interface in libpq can be used. Parts of the program are commented out but are left in the source for the reader's benefit. This program can also be found in `src/test/examples/testlo.c` in the source distribution.

Example 28-1. Large Objects with libpq Example Program

```

/*-----
 *
 * testlo.c--
 *   test using large objects with libpq
 *
 * Copyright (c) 1994, Regents of the University of California
 *
 *-----
 */
#include <stdio.h>
#include "libpq-fe.h"
#include "libpq/libpq-fs.h"

#define BUFSIZE          1024

/*
 * importFile
 *   import file "in_filename" into database as large object "lobjOid"
 *
 */
Oid
importFile(PGconn *conn, char *filename)
{
    Oid          lobjId;
    int          lobj_fd;
    char        buf[BUFSIZE];
    int          nbytes,
               tmp;
    int          fd;

    /*
     * open the file to be read in
     */
    fd = open(filename, O_RDONLY, 0666);
    if (fd < 0)
    {
        /* error */
        fprintf(stderr, "can't open unix file %s\n", filename);
    }

    /*
     * create the large object
     */
    lobjId = lo_creat(conn, INV_READ | INV_WRITE);
    if (lobjId == 0)
        fprintf(stderr, "can't create large object\n");
}

```

```

lobj_fd = lo_open(conn, lobjId, INV_WRITE);

/*
 * read in from the Unix file and write to the inversion file
 */
while ((nbytes = read(fd, buf, BUFSIZE)) > 0)
{
    tmp = lo_write(conn, lobj_fd, buf, nbytes);
    if (tmp < nbytes)
        fprintf(stderr, "error while reading large object\n");
}

(void) close(fd);
(void) lo_close(conn, lobj_fd);

return lobjId;
}

void
pickout(PGconn *conn, Oid lobjId, int start, int len)
{
    int         lobj_fd;
    char        *buf;
    int         nbytes;
    int         nread;

    lobj_fd = lo_open(conn, lobjId, INV_READ);
    if (lobj_fd < 0)
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "can't open large object %d\n",
                lobjId);
    }

    lo_lseek(conn, lobj_fd, start, SEEK_SET);
    buf = malloc(len + 1);

    nread = 0;
    while (len - nread > 0)
    {
        nbytes = lo_read(conn, lobj_fd, buf, len - nread);
        buf[nbytes] = ' ';
        fprintf(stderr, ">>> %s", buf);
        nread += nbytes;
    }
    free(buf);
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");
    lo_close(conn, lobj_fd);
}

void
overwrite(PGconn *conn, Oid lobjId, int start, int len)
{

```

```

int         lobj_fd;
char        *buf;
int         nbytes;
int         nwritten;
int         i;

lobj_fd = lo_open(conn, lobjId, INV_READ);
if (lobj_fd < 0)
{
    fprintf(stderr, "can't open large object %d\n",
            lobjId);
}

lo_lseek(conn, lobj_fd, start, SEEK_SET);
buf = malloc(len + 1);

for (i = 0; i < len; i++)
    buf[i] = 'X';
buf[i] = ' ';

nwritten = 0;
while (len - nwritten > 0)
{
    nbytes = lo_write(conn, lobj_fd, buf + nwritten, len - nwritten);
    nwritten += nbytes;
}
free(buf);
fprintf(stderr, "\n");
lo_close(conn, lobj_fd);
}

/*
 * exportFile *    export large object "lobjOid" to file "out_filename"
 *
 */
void
exportFile(PGconn *conn, Oid lobjId, char *filename)
{
    int         lobj_fd;
    char        buf[BUFSIZE];
    int         nbytes,
                tmp;
    int         fd;

    /*
     * create an inversion "object"
     */
    lobj_fd = lo_open(conn, lobjId, INV_READ);
    if (lobj_fd < 0)
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "can't open large object %d\n",
                lobjId);
    }
}

```

```

/*
 * open the file to be written to
 */
fd = open(filename, O_CREAT | O_WRONLY, 0666);
if (fd < 0)
{
    /* error */
    fprintf(stderr, "can't open unix file %s\n",
            filename);
}

/*
 * read in from the Unix file and write to the inversion file
 */
while ((nbytes = lo_read(conn, lobj_fd, buf, BUFSIZE)) > 0)
{
    tmp = write(fd, buf, nbytes);
    if (tmp < nbytes)
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "error while writing %s\n",
                filename);
    }
}

(void) lo_close(conn, lobj_fd);
(void) close(fd);

return;
}

void
exit_nicely(PGconn *conn)
{
    PQfinish(conn);
    exit(1);
}

int
main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    char        *in_filename,
               *out_filename;
    char        *database;
    Oid         lobjOid;
    PGconn     *conn;
    PGresult    *res;

    if (argc != 4)
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "Usage: %s database_name in_filename out_filename\n",
                argv[0]);
        exit(1);
    }

```

```

database = argv[1];
in_filename = argv[2];
out_filename = argv[3];

/*
 * set up the connection
 */
conn = PQsetdb(NULL, NULL, NULL, NULL, database);

/* check to see that the backend connection was successfully made */
if (PQstatus(conn) == CONNECTION_BAD)
{
    fprintf(stderr, "Connection to database '%s' failed.\n", database);
    fprintf(stderr, "%s", PQerrorMessage(conn));
    exit_nicely(conn);
}

res = PQexec(conn, "begin");
PQclear(res);

printf("importing file %s\n", in_filename);
/* lobjOid = importFile(conn, in_filename); */
lobjOid = lo_import(conn, in_filename);
/*
printf("as large object %d.\n", lobjOid);

printf("picking out bytes 1000-2000 of the large object\n");
pickout(conn, lobjOid, 1000, 1000);

printf("overwriting bytes 1000-2000 of the large object with X's\n");
overwrite(conn, lobjOid, 1000, 1000);
*/

printf("exporting large object to file %s\n", out_filename);
/* exportFile(conn, lobjOid, out_filename); */
lo_export(conn, lobjOid, out_filename);

res = PQexec(conn, "end");
PQclear(res);
PQfinish(conn);
exit(0);
}

```

Chapter 29. ECPG - Embedded SQL in C

This chapter describes the embedded SQL package for PostgreSQL. It was written by Linus Tolke (<linus@epact.se>) and Michael Meskes (<meskes@postgresql.org>). Originally it was written to work with C. It also works with C++, but it does not recognize all C++ constructs yet.

This documentation is quite incomplete. But since this interface is standardized, additional information can be found in many resources about SQL.

29.1. The Concept

An embedded SQL program consists of code written in an ordinary programming language, in this case C, mixed with SQL commands in specially marked sections. To build the program, the source code is first passed through the embedded SQL preprocessor, which converts it to an ordinary C program, and afterwards it can be processed by a C compiler.

Embedded SQL has advantages over other methods for handling SQL commands from C code. First, it takes care of the tedious passing of information to and from variables in your C program. Second, the SQL code in the program is checked at build time for syntactical correctness. Third, embedded SQL in C is specified in the SQL standard and supported by many other SQL database systems. The PostgreSQL implementation is designed to match this standard as much as possible, and it is usually possible to port embedded SQL programs written for other SQL databases to PostgreSQL with relative ease.

As already stated, programs written for the embedded SQL interface are normal C programs with special code inserted to perform database-related actions. This special code always has the form

```
EXEC SQL ...;
```

These statements syntactically take the place of a C statement. Depending on the particular statement, they may appear at the global level or within a function. Embedded SQL statements follow the case-sensitivity rules of normal SQL code, and not those of C.

The following sections explain all the embedded SQL statements.

29.2. Connecting to the Database Server

One connects to a database using the following statement:

```
EXEC SQL CONNECT TO target [AS connection-name] [USER user-name];
```

The *target* can be specified in the following ways:

- `dbname[@hostname][:port]`
- `tcp:postgresql://hostname[:port][/dbname][?options]`
- `unix:postgresql://hostname[:port][/dbname][?options]`
- an SQL string literal containing one of the above forms

- a reference to a character variable containing one of the above forms (see examples)
- `DEFAULT`

If you specify the connection target literally (that is, not through a variable reference) and you don't quote the value, then the case-insensitivity rules of normal SQL are applied. In that case you can also double-quote the individual parameters separately as needed. In practice, it is probably less error-prone to use a (single-quoted) string literal or a variable reference. The connection target `DEFAULT` initiates a connection to the default database under the default user name. No separate user name or connection name may be specified in that case.

There are also different ways to specify the user name:

- `username`
- `username/password`
- `username IDENTIFIED BY password`
- `username USING password`

As above, the parameters `username` and `password` may be an SQL identifier, an SQL string literal, or a reference to a character variable.

The `connection-name` is used to handle multiple connections in one program. It can be omitted if a program uses only one connection. The most recently opened connection becomes the current connection, which is used by default when an SQL statement is to be executed (see later in this chapter).

Here are some examples of `CONNECT` statements:

```
EXEC SQL CONNECT TO mydb@sql.mydomain.com;

EXEC SQL CONNECT TO 'unix:postgresql://sql.mydomain.com/mydb' AS myconnection USER john;

EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION;
const char *target = "mydb@sql.mydomain.com";
const char *user = "john";
EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION;
...
EXEC SQL CONNECT TO :target USER :user;
```

The last form makes use of the variant referred to above as character variable reference. You will see in later sections how C variables can be used in SQL statements when you prefix them with a colon.

Be advised that the format of the connection target is not specified in the SQL standard. So if you want to develop portable applications, you might want to use something based on the last example above to encapsulate the connection target string somewhere.

29.3. Closing a Connection

To close a connection, use the following statement:

```
EXEC SQL DISCONNECT [connection];
```

The `connection` can be specified in the following ways:

- *connection-name*
- DEFAULT
- CURRENT
- ALL

If no connection name is specified, the current connection is closed.

It is good style that an application always explicitly disconnect from every connection it opened.

29.4. Running SQL Commands

Any SQL command can be run from within an embedded SQL application. Below are some examples of how to do that.

Creating a table:

```
EXEC SQL CREATE TABLE foo (number integer, ascii char(16));
EXEC SQL CREATE UNIQUE INDEX num1 ON foo(number);
EXEC SQL COMMIT;
```

Inserting rows:

```
EXEC SQL INSERT INTO foo (number, ascii) VALUES (9999, 'doodad');
EXEC SQL COMMIT;
```

Deleting rows:

```
EXEC SQL DELETE FROM foo WHERE number = 9999;
EXEC SQL COMMIT;
```

Single-row select:

```
EXEC SQL SELECT foo INTO :FooBar FROM table1 WHERE ascii = 'doodad';
```

Select using cursors:

```
EXEC SQL DECLARE foo_bar CURSOR FOR
    SELECT number, ascii FROM foo
    ORDER BY ascii;
EXEC SQL OPEN foo_bar;
EXEC SQL FETCH foo_bar INTO :FooBar, DooDad;
...
EXEC SQL CLOSE foo_bar;
EXEC SQL COMMIT;
```

Updates:

```
EXEC SQL UPDATE foo
  SET ascii = 'foobar'
  WHERE number = 9999;
EXEC SQL COMMIT;
```

The tokens of the form *:something* are *host variables*, that is, they refer to variables in the C program. They are explained in Section 29.6.

In the default mode, statements are committed only when EXEC SQL COMMIT is issued. The embedded SQL interface also supports autocommit of transactions (similar to libpq behavior) via the `-t` command-line option to `ecpg` (see below) or via the EXEC SQL SET AUTOCOMMIT TO ON statement. In autocommit mode, each command is automatically committed unless it is inside an explicit transaction block. This mode can be explicitly turned off using EXEC SQL SET AUTOCOMMIT TO OFF.

29.5. Choosing a Connection

The SQL statements shown in the previous section are executed on the current connection, that is, the most recently opened one. If an application needs to manage multiple connections, then there are two ways to handle this.

The first option is to explicitly choose a connection for each SQL statement, for example

```
EXEC SQL AT connection-name SELECT ...;
```

This option is particularly suitable if the application needs to use several connections in mixed order.

If your application uses multiple threads of execution, they cannot share a connection concurrently. You must either explicitly control access to the connection (using mutexes) or use a connection for each thread. If each thread uses its own connection, you will need to use the AT clause to specify which connection the thread will use.

The second option is to execute a statement to switch the current connection. That statement is:

```
EXEC SQL SET CONNECTION connection-name;
```

This option is particularly convenient if many statements are to be executed on the same connection. It is not thread-aware.

29.6. Using Host Variables

In Section 29.4 you saw how you can execute SQL statements from an embedded SQL program. Some of those statements only used fixed values and did not provide a way to insert user-supplied values into statements or have the program process the values returned by the query. Those kinds of statements are not really useful in real applications. This section explains in detail how you can pass data between your C program and the embedded SQL statements using a simple mechanism called *host variables*.

29.6.1. Overview

Passing data between the C program and the SQL statements is particularly simple in embedded SQL. Instead of having the program paste the data into the statement, which entails various complications, such as properly quoting the value, you can simply write the name of a C variable into the SQL statement, prefixed by a colon. For example:

```
EXEC SQL INSERT INTO sometable VALUES (:v1, 'foo', :v2);
```

This statements refers to two C variables named `v1` and `v2` and also uses a regular SQL string literal, to illustrate that you are not restricted to use one kind of data or the other.

This style of inserting C variables in SQL statements works anywhere a value expression is expected in an SQL statement. In the SQL environment we call the references to C variables *host variables*.

29.6.2. Declare Sections

To pass data from the program to the database, for example as parameters in a query, or to pass data from the database back to the program, the C variables that are intended to contain this data need to be declared in specially marked sections, so the embedded SQL preprocessor is made aware of them.

This section starts with

```
EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION;
```

and ends with

```
EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION;
```

Between those lines, there must be normal C variable declarations, such as

```
int    x;
char  foo[16], bar[16];
```

You can have as many declare sections in a program as you like.

The declarations are also echoed to the output file as a normal C variables, so there's no need to declare them again. Variables that are not intended to be used in SQL commands can be declared normally outside these special sections.

The definition of a structure or union also must be listed inside a `DECLARE` section. Otherwise the preprocessor cannot handle these types since it does not know the definition.

The special type `VARCHAR` is converted into a named `struct` for every variable. A declaration like

```
VARCHAR var[180];
```

is converted into

```
struct varchar_var { int len; char arr[180]; } var;
```

This structure is suitable for interfacing with SQL datums of type `varchar`.

29.6.3. SELECT INTO and FETCH INTO

Now you should be able to pass data generated by your program into an SQL command. But how do you retrieve the results of a query? For that purpose, embedded SQL provides special variants of the usual commands `SELECT` and `FETCH`. These commands have a special `INTO` clause that specifies which host variables the retrieved values are to be stored in.

Here is an example:

```

/*
 * assume this table:
 * CREATE TABLE test1 (a int, b varchar(50));
 */

EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION;
int v1;
VARCHAR v2;
EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION;

...

EXEC SQL SELECT a, b INTO :v1, :v2 FROM test;

```

So the `INTO` clause appears between the select list and the `FROM` clause. The number of elements in the select list and the list after `INTO` (also called the target list) must be equal.

Here is an example using the command `FETCH`:

```

EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION;
int v1;
VARCHAR v2;
EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION;

...

EXEC SQL DECLARE foo CURSOR FOR SELECT a, b FROM test;

...

do {
    ...
    EXEC SQL FETCH NEXT FROM foo INTO :v1, :v2;
    ...
} while (...);

```

Here the `INTO` clause appears after all the normal clauses.

Both of these methods only allow retrieving one row at a time. If you need to process result sets that potentially contain more than one row, you need to use a cursor, as shown in the second example.

29.6.4. Indicators

The examples above do not handle null values. In fact, the retrieval examples will raise an error if they fetch a null value from the database. To be able to pass null values to the database or retrieve null values from the database, you need to append a second host variable specification to each host variable that contains data. This second host variable is called the *indicator* and contains a flag that tells whether the datum is null, in which case the value of the real host variable is ignored. Here is an example that handles the retrieval of null values correctly:

```
EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION;
VARCHAR val;
int val_ind;
EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION;

...

EXEC SQL SELECT b INTO :val :val_ind FROM test1;
```

The indicator variable `val_ind` will be zero if the value was not null, and it will be negative if the value was null.

The indicator has another function: if the indicator value is positive, it means that the value is not null, but it was truncated when it was stored in the host variable.

29.7. Dynamic SQL

In many cases, the particular SQL statements that an application has to execute are known at the time the application is written. In some cases, however, the SQL statements are composed at run time or provided by an external source. In these cases you cannot embed the SQL statements directly into the C source code, but there is a facility that allows you to call arbitrary SQL statements that you provide in a string variable.

The simplest way to execute an arbitrary SQL statement is to use the command `EXECUTE IMMEDIATE`. For example:

```
EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION;
const char *stmt = "CREATE TABLE test1 (...);";
EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION;

EXEC SQL EXECUTE IMMEDIATE :stmt;
```

You may not execute statements that retrieve data (e.g., `SELECT`) this way.

A more powerful way to execute arbitrary SQL statements is to prepare them once and execute the prepared statement as often as you like. It is also possible to prepare a generalized version of a statement and then execute specific versions of it by substituting parameters. When preparing the statement, write question marks where you want to substitute parameters later. For example:

```
EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION;
const char *stmt = "INSERT INTO test1 VALUES(?, ?);";
EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION;
```

```
EXEC SQL PREPARE mystmt FROM :stmt;
...
EXEC SQL EXECUTE mystmt USING 42, 'foobar';
```

If the statement you are executing returns values, then add an INTO clause:

```
EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION;
const char *stmt = "SELECT a, b, c FROM test1 WHERE a > ?";
int v1, v2;
VARCHAR v3;
EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION;

EXEC SQL PREPARE mystmt FROM :stmt;
...
EXEC SQL EXECUTE mystmt INTO v1, v2, v3 USING 37;
```

An EXECUTE command may have an INTO clause, a USING clause, both, or neither.

When you don't need the prepared statement anymore, you should deallocate it:

```
EXEC SQL DEALLOCATE PREPARE name;
```

29.8. Using SQL Descriptor Areas

An SQL descriptor area is a more sophisticated method for processing the result of a SELECT or FETCH statement. An SQL descriptor area groups the data of one row of data together with metadata items into one data structure. The metadata is particularly useful when executing dynamic SQL statements, where the nature of the result columns may not be known ahead of time.

An SQL descriptor area consists of a header, which contains information concerning the entire descriptor, and one or more item descriptor areas, which basically each describe one column in the result row.

Before you can use an SQL descriptor area, you need to allocate one:

```
EXEC SQL ALLOCATE DESCRIPTOR identifier;
```

The identifier serves as the “variable name” of the descriptor area. When you don't need the descriptor anymore, you should deallocate it:

```
EXEC SQL DEALLOCATE DESCRIPTOR identifier;
```

To use a descriptor area, specify it as the storage target in an INTO clause, instead of listing host variables:

```
EXEC SQL FETCH NEXT FROM mycursor INTO DESCRIPTOR mydesc;
```

Now how do you get the data out of the descriptor area? You can think of the descriptor area as a structure with named fields. To retrieve the value of a field from the header and store it into a host variable, use the following command:

```
EXEC SQL GET DESCRIPTOR name :hostvar = field;
```

Currently, there is only one header field defined: *COUNT*, which tells how many item descriptor areas exist (that is, how many columns are contained in the result). The host variable needs to be of an integer type. To get a field from the item descriptor area, use the following command:

```
EXEC SQL GET DESCRIPTOR name VALUE num :hostvar = field;
```

num can be a literal integer or a host variable containing an integer. Possible fields are:

CARDINALITY (integer)

number of rows in the result set

DATA

actual data item (therefore, the data type of this field depends on the query)

DATETIME_INTERVAL_CODE (integer)

?

DATETIME_INTERVAL_PRECISION (integer)

not implemented

INDICATOR (integer)

the indicator (indicating a null value or a value truncation)

KEY_MEMBER (integer)

not implemented

LENGTH (integer)

length of the datum in characters

NAME (string)

name of the column

NULLABLE (integer)

not implemented

OCTET_LENGTH (integer)

length of the character representation of the datum in bytes

PRECISION (integer)

precision (for type `numeric`)

RETURNED_LENGTH (integer)

length of the datum in characters

RETURNED_OCTET_LENGTH (integer)

length of the character representation of the datum in bytes

SCALE (integer)

scale (for type `numeric`)

TYPE (integer)

numeric code of the data type of the column

29.9. Error Handling

This section describes how you can handle exceptional conditions and warnings in an embedded SQL program. There are several nonexclusive facilities for this.

29.9.1. Setting Callbacks

One simple method to catch errors and warnings is to set a specific action to be executed whenever a particular condition occurs. In general:

```
EXEC SQL WHENEVER condition action;
```

condition can be one of the following:

SQLERROR

The specified action is called whenever an error occurs during the execution of an SQL statement.

SQLWARNING

The specified action is called whenever a warning occurs during the execution of an SQL statement.

NOT FOUND

The specified action is called whenever an SQL statement retrieves or affects zero rows. (This condition is not an error, but you might be interested in handling it specially.)

action can be one of the following:

CONTINUE

This effectively means that the condition is ignored. This is the default.

GOTO *label*

GO TO *label*

Jump to the specified label (using a C `goto` statement).

SQLPRINT

Print a message to standard error. This is useful for simple programs or during prototyping. The details of the message cannot be configured.

STOP

Call `exit(1)`, which will terminate the program.

BREAK

Execute the C statement `break`. This should only be used in loops or `switch` statements.

`CALL name (args)`

`DO name (args)`

Call the specified C functions with the specified arguments.

The SQL standard only provides for the actions `CONTINUE` and `GOTO` (and `GO TO`).

Here is an example that you might want to use in a simple program. It prints a simple message when a warning occurs and aborts the program when an error happens.

```
EXEC SQL WHENEVER SQLWARNING SQLPRINT;
EXEC SQL WHENEVER SQLERROR STOP;
```

The statement `EXEC SQL WHENEVER` is a directive of the SQL preprocessor, not a C statement. The error or warning actions that it sets apply to all embedded SQL statements that appear below the point where the handler is set, unless a different action was set for the same condition between the first `EXEC SQL WHENEVER` and the SQL statement causing the condition, regardless of the flow of control in the C program. So neither of the two following C program excerpts will have the desired effect.

```
/*
 * WRONG
 */
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    ...
    if (verbose) {
        EXEC SQL WHENEVER SQLWARNING SQLPRINT;
    }
    ...
    EXEC SQL SELECT ...;
    ...
}

/*
 * WRONG
 */
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    ...
    set_error_handler();
    ...
}
```

```

        EXEC SQL SELECT ...;
        ...
    }

    static void set_error_handler(void)
    {
        EXEC SQL WHENEVER SQLERROR STOP;
    }

```

29.9.2. sqlca

For more powerful error handling, the embedded SQL interface provides a global variable with the name `sqlca` that has the following structure:

```

struct
{
    char sqlcaid[8];
    long sqlabc;
    long sqlcode;
    struct
    {
        int sqlerrml;
        char sqlerrmc[70];
    } sqlerrm;
    char sqlerrp[8];
    long sqlerrd[6];
    char sqlwarn[8];
    char sqlstate[5];
} sqlca;

```

(In a multithreaded program, every thread automatically gets its own copy of `sqlca`. This works similarly to the handling of the standard C global variable `errno`.)

`sqlca` covers both warnings and errors. If multiple warnings or errors occur during the execution of a statement, then `sqlca` will only contain information about the last one.

If no error occurred in the last SQL statement, `sqlca.sqlcode` will be 0 and `sqlca.sqlstate` will be "00000". If a warning or error occurred, then `sqlca.sqlcode` will be negative and `sqlca.sqlstate` will be different from "00000". A positive `sqlca.sqlcode` indicates a harmless condition, such as that the last query returned zero rows. `sqlcode` and `sqlstate` are two different error code schemes; details appear below.

If the last SQL statement was successful, then `sqlca.sqlerrd[1]` contains the OID of the processed row, if applicable, and `sqlca.sqlerrd[2]` contains the number of processed or returned rows, if applicable to the command.

In case of an error or warning, `sqlca.sqlerrm.sqlerrmc` will contain a string that describes the error. The field `sqlca.sqlerrm.sqlerrml` contains the length of the error message that is stored in `sqlca.sqlerrm.sqlerrmc` (the result of `strlen()`, not really interesting for a C programmer). Note that some messages are too long to fit in the fixed-size `sqlerrmc` array; they will be truncated.

In case of a warning, `sqlca.sqlwarn[2]` is set to `w`. (In all other cases, it is set to something different from `w`.) If `sqlca.sqlwarn[1]` is set to `w`, then a value was truncated when it was stored in a host variable. `sqlca.sqlwarn[0]` is set to `w` if any of the other elements are set to indicate a warning.

The fields `sqlcaid`, `sqlcabc`, `sqlerrp`, and the remaining elements of `sqlerrd` and `sqlwarn` currently contain no useful information.

The structure `sqlca` is not defined in the SQL standard, but is implemented in several other SQL database systems. The definitions are similar at the core, but if you want to write portable applications, then you should investigate the different implementations carefully.

29.9.3. SQLSTATE VS SQLCODE

The fields `sqlca.sqlstate` and `sqlca.sqlcode` are two different schemes that provide error codes. Both are specified in the SQL standard, but `SQLCODE` has been marked deprecated in the 1992 edition of the standard and has been dropped in the 1999 edition. Therefore, new applications are strongly encouraged to use `SQLSTATE`.

`SQLSTATE` is a five-character array. The five characters contain digits or upper-case letters that represent codes of various error and warning conditions. `SQLSTATE` has a hierarchical scheme: the first two characters indicate the general class of the condition, the last three characters indicate a subclass of the general condition. A successful state is indicated by the code `00000`. The `SQLSTATE` codes are for the most part defined in the SQL standard. The PostgreSQL server natively supports `SQLSTATE` error codes; therefore a high degree of consistency can be achieved by using this error code scheme throughout all applications. For further information see Appendix A.

`SQLCODE`, the deprecated error code scheme, is a simple integer. A value of 0 indicates success, a positive value indicates success with additional information, a negative value indicates an error. The SQL standard only defines the positive value `+100`, which indicates that the last command returned or affected zero rows, and no specific negative values. Therefore, this scheme can only achieve poor portability and does not have a hierarchical code assignment. Historically, the embedded SQL processor for PostgreSQL has assigned some specific `SQLCODE` values for its use, which are listed below with their numeric value and their symbolic name. Remember that these are not portable to other SQL implementations. To simplify the porting of applications to the `SQLSTATE` scheme, the corresponding `SQLSTATE` is also listed. There is, however, no one-to-one or one-to-many mapping between the two schemes (indeed it is many-to-many), so you should consult the global `SQLSTATE` listing in Appendix A in each case.

These are the assigned `SQLCODE` values:

-12 (ECPG_OUT_OF_MEMORY)

Indicates that your virtual memory is exhausted. (SQLSTATE YE001)

-200 (ECPG_UNSUPPORTED)

Indicates the preprocessor has generated something that the library does not know about. Perhaps you are running incompatible versions of the preprocessor and the library. (SQLSTATE YE002)

-201 (ECPG_TOO_MANY_ARGUMENTS)

This means that the command specified more host variables than the command expected. (SQLSTATE 07001 or 07002)

-202 (ECPG_TOO_FEW_ARGUMENTS)

This means that the command specified fewer host variables than the command expected. (SQLSTATE 07001 or 07002)

-203 (ECPG_TOO_MANY_MATCHES)

This means a query has returned multiple rows but the statement was only prepared to store one result row (for example, because the specified variables are not arrays). (SQLSTATE 21000)

-204 (ECPG_INT_FORMAT)

The host variable is of type `int` and the datum in the database is of a different type and contains a value that cannot be interpreted as an `int`. The library uses `strtol()` for this conversion. (SQLSTATE 42804)

-205 (ECPG_UINT_FORMAT)

The host variable is of type `unsigned int` and the datum in the database is of a different type and contains a value that cannot be interpreted as an `unsigned int`. The library uses `strtoul()` for this conversion. (SQLSTATE 42804)

-206 (ECPG_FLOAT_FORMAT)

The host variable is of type `float` and the datum in the database is of another type and contains a value that cannot be interpreted as a `float`. The library uses `strtod()` for this conversion. (SQLSTATE 42804)

-207 (ECPG_CONVERT_BOOL)

This means the host variable is of type `bool` and the datum in the database is neither `'t'` nor `'f'`. (SQLSTATE 42804)

-208 (ECPG_EMPTY)

The statement sent to the PostgreSQL server was empty. (This cannot normally happen in an embedded SQL program, so it may point to an internal error.) (SQLSTATE YE002)

-209 (ECPG_MISSING_INDICATOR)

A null value was returned and no null indicator variable was supplied. (SQLSTATE 22002)

-210 (ECPG_NO_ARRAY)

An ordinary variable was used in a place that requires an array. (SQLSTATE 42804)

-211 (ECPG_DATA_NOT_ARRAY)

The database returned an ordinary variable in a place that requires array value. (SQLSTATE 42804)

-220 (ECPG_NO_CONN)

The program tried to access a connection that does not exist. (SQLSTATE 08003)

-221 (ECPG_NOT_CONN)

The program tried to access a connection that does exist but is not open. (This is an internal error.) (SQLSTATE YE002)

-230 (ECPG_INVALID_STMT)

The statement you are trying to use has not been prepared. (SQLSTATE 26000)

-240 (ECPG_UNKNOWN_DESCRIPTOR)

The descriptor specified was not found. The statement you are trying to use has not been prepared. (SQLSTATE 33000)

-241 (ECPG_INVALID_DESCRIPTOR_INDEX)

The descriptor index specified was out of range. (SQLSTATE 07009)

-242 (ECPG_UNKNOWN_DESCRIPTOR_ITEM)

An invalid descriptor item was requested. (This is an internal error.) (SQLSTATE YE002)

-243 (ECPG_VAR_NOT_NUMERIC)

During the execution of a dynamic statement, the database returned a numeric value and the host variable was not numeric. (SQLSTATE 07006)

-244 (ECPG_VAR_NOT_CHAR)

During the execution of a dynamic statement, the database returned a non-numeric value and the host variable was numeric. (SQLSTATE 07006)

-400 (ECPG_PGSQL)

Some error caused by the PostgreSQL server. The message contains the error message from the PostgreSQL server.

-401 (ECPG_TRANS)

The PostgreSQL server signaled that we cannot start, commit, or rollback the transaction. (SQLSTATE 08007)

-402 (ECPG_CONNECT)

The connection attempt to the database did not succeed. (SQLSTATE 08001)

100 (ECPG_NOT_FOUND)

This is a harmless condition indicating that the last command retrieved or processed zero rows, or that you are at the end of the cursor. (SQLSTATE 02000)

29.10. Including Files

To include an external file into your embedded SQL program, use:

```
EXEC SQL INCLUDE filename;
```

The embedded SQL preprocessor will look for a file named *filename.h*, preprocess it, and include it in the resulting C output. Thus, embedded SQL statements in the included file are handled correctly.

Note that this is *not* the same as

```
#include <filename.h>
```

because this file would not be subject to SQL command preprocessing. Naturally, you can continue to use the C `#include` directive to include other header files.

Note: The include file name is case-sensitive, even though the rest of the `EXEC SQL INCLUDE` command follows the normal SQL case-sensitivity rules.

29.11. Processing Embedded SQL Programs

Now that you have an idea how to form embedded SQL C programs, you probably want to know how to compile them. Before compiling you run the file through the embedded SQL C preprocessor, which converts the SQL statements you used to special function calls. After compiling, you must link with a special library that contains the needed functions. These functions fetch information from the arguments, perform the SQL command using the `libpq` interface, and put the result in the arguments specified for output.

The preprocessor program is called `ecpg` and is included in a normal PostgreSQL installation. Embedded SQL programs are typically named with an extension `.pgc`. If you have a program file called `prog1.pgc`, you can preprocess it by simply calling

```
ecpg prog1.pgc
```

This will create a file called `prog1.c`. If your input files do not follow the suggested naming pattern, you can specify the output file explicitly using the `-o` option.

The preprocessed file can be compiled normally, for example:

```
cc -c prog1.c
```

The generated C source files include header files from the PostgreSQL installation, so if you installed PostgreSQL in a location that is not searched by default, you have to add an option such as `-I/usr/local/pgsql/include` to the compilation command line.

To link an embedded SQL program, you need to include the `libecpg` library, like so:

```
cc -o myprog prog1.o prog2.o ... -lecpg
```

Again, you might have to add an option like `-L/usr/local/pgsql/lib` to that command line.

If you manage the build process of a larger project using `make`, it may be convenient to include the following implicit rule to your makefiles:

```
ECPG = ecpg

%.c: %.pgc
    $(ECPG) $<
```

The complete syntax of the `ecpg` command is detailed in `ecpg`.

The `ecpg` library is thread-safe if it is built using the `--enable-thread-safety` command-line option to `configure`. (You might need to use other threading command-line options to compile your client code.)

29.12. Library Functions

The `libecpg` library primarily contains “hidden” functions that are used to implement the functionality expressed by the embedded SQL commands. But there are some functions that can usefully be called directly. Note that this makes your code unportable.

- `ECPGdebug(int on, FILE *stream)` turns on debug logging if called with the first argument non-zero. Debug logging is done on `stream`. The log contains all SQL statements with all the input variables inserted, and the results from the PostgreSQL server. This can be very useful when searching for errors in your SQL statements.
- `ECPGstatus(int lineno, const char* connection_name)` returns true if you are connected to a database and false if not. `connection_name` can be NULL if a single connection is being used.

29.13. Internals

This section explains how ECPG works internally. This information can occasionally be useful to help users understand how to use ECPG.

The first four lines written by `ecpg` to the output are fixed lines. Two are comments and two are include lines necessary to interface to the library. Then the preprocessor reads through the file and writes output. Normally it just echoes everything to the output.

When it sees an `EXEC SQL` statement, it intervenes and changes it. The command starts with `EXEC SQL` and ends with `;`. Everything in between is treated as an SQL statement and parsed for variable substitution.

Variable substitution occurs when a symbol starts with a colon (`:`). The variable with that name is looked up among the variables that were previously declared within a `EXEC SQL DECLARE` section.

The most important function in the library is `ECPGdo`, which takes care of executing most commands. It takes a variable number of arguments. This can easily add up to 50 or so arguments, and we hope this will not be a problem on any platform.

The arguments are:

A line number

This is the line number of the original line; used in error messages only.

A string

This is the SQL command that is to be issued. It is modified by the input variables, i.e., the variables that were not known at compile time but are to be entered in the command. Where the variables should go the string contains `?`.

Input variables

Every input variable causes ten arguments to be created. (See below.)

ECPGt_EOIT

An enum telling that there are no more input variables.

Output variables

Every output variable causes ten arguments to be created. (See below.) These variables are filled by the function.

ECPGt_EORT

An enum telling that there are no more variables.

For every variable that is part of the SQL command, the function gets ten arguments:

1. The type as a special symbol.
2. A pointer to the value or a pointer to the pointer.
3. The size of the variable if it is a char or varchar.
4. The number of elements in the array (for array fetches).
5. The offset to the next element in the array (for array fetches).
6. The type of the indicator variable as a special symbol.
7. A pointer to the indicator variable.
8. 0
9. The number of elements in the indicator array (for array fetches).
10. The offset to the next element in the indicator array (for array fetches).

Note that not all SQL commands are treated in this way. For instance, an open cursor statement like

```
EXEC SQL OPEN cursor;
```

is not copied to the output. Instead, the cursor's DECLARE command is used at the position of the OPEN command because it indeed opens the cursor.

Here is a complete example describing the output of the preprocessor of a file `foo.pgc` (details may change with each particular version of the preprocessor):

```
EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION;
int index;
int result;
EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION;
...
EXEC SQL SELECT res INTO :result FROM mytable WHERE index = :index;
```

is translated into:

```
/* Processed by ecpg (2.6.0) */
/* These two include files are added by the preprocessor */
```

```

#include <ecpgtype.h>;
#include <ecpglib.h>;

/* exec sql begin declare section */

#line 1 "foo.pgc"

    int index;
    int result;
/* exec sql end declare section */
...
ECPGdo(__LINE__, NULL, "SELECT res FROM mytable WHERE index = ?      ",
        ECPGt_int,&(index),1L,1L,sizeof(int),
        ECPGt_NO_INDICATOR, NULL , 0L, 0L, 0L, ECPGt_EOIT,
        ECPGt_int,&(result),1L,1L,sizeof(int),
        ECPGt_NO_INDICATOR, NULL , 0L, 0L, 0L, ECPGt_EORT);
#line 147 "foo.pgc"

```

(The indentation here is added for readability and not something the preprocessor does.)

Chapter 30. The Information Schema

The information schema consists of a set of views that contain information about the objects defined in the current database. The information schema is defined in the SQL standard and can therefore be expected to be portable and remain stable — unlike the system catalogs, which are specific to PostgreSQL and are modelled after implementation concerns. The information schema views do not, however, contain information about PostgreSQL-specific features; to inquire about those you need to query the system catalogs or other PostgreSQL-specific views.

30.1. The Schema

The information schema itself is a schema named `information_schema`. This schema automatically exists in all databases. The owner of this schema is the initial database user in the cluster, and that user naturally has all the privileges on this schema, including the ability to drop it (but the space savings achieved by that are minuscule).

By default, the information schema is not in the schema search path, so you need to access all objects in it through qualified names. Since the names of some of the objects in the information schema are generic names that might occur in user applications, you should be careful if you want to put the information schema in the path.

30.2. Data Types

The columns of the information schema views use special data types that are defined in the information schema. These are defined as simple domains over ordinary built-in types. You should not use these types for work outside the information schema, but your applications must be prepared for them if they select from the information schema.

These types are:

`cardinal_number`

A nonnegative integer.

`character_data`

A character string (without specific maximum length).

`sql_identifier`

A character string. This type is used for SQL identifiers, the type `character_data` is used for any other kind of text data.

`time_stamp`

A domain over the type `timestamp`

Every column in the information schema has one of these four types.

Boolean (true/false) data is represented in the information schema by a column of type `character_data` that contains either `YES` or `NO`. (The information schema was invented before the type `boolean` was

added to the SQL standard, so this convention is necessary to keep the information schema backward compatible.)

30.3. information_schema_catalog_name

`information_schema_catalog_name` is a table that always contains one row and one column containing the name of the current database (current catalog, in SQL terminology).

Table 30-1. information_schema_catalog_name Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>catalog_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the database that contains this information schema

30.4. applicable_roles

The view `applicable_roles` identifies all groups that the current user is a member of. (A role is the same thing as a group.) Generally, it is better to use the view `enabled_roles` instead of this one; see also there.

Table 30-2. applicable_roles Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>grantee</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Always the name of the current user
<code>role_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of a group
<code>is_grantable</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL

30.5. check_constraints

The view `check_constraints` contains all check constraints, either defined on a table or on a domain, that are owned by the current user. (The owner of the table or domain is the owner of the constraint.)

Table 30-3. check_constraints Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>constraint_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the database containing the constraint (always the current database)
<code>constraint_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the schema containing the constraint

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>constraint_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the constraint
<code>check_clause</code>	<code>character_data</code>	The check expression of the check constraint

30.6. `column_domain_usage`

The view `column_domain_usage` identifies all columns (of a table or a view) that make use of some domain defined in the current database and owned by the current user.

Table 30-4. `column_domain_usage` Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>domain_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the database containing the domain (always the current database)
<code>domain_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the schema containing the domain
<code>domain_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the domain
<code>table_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the database containing the table (always the current database)
<code>table_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the schema containing the table
<code>table_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the table
<code>column_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the column

30.7. `column_privileges`

The view `column_privileges` identifies all privileges granted on columns to the current user or by the current user. There is one row for each combination of column, grantor, and grantee. Privileges granted to groups are identified in the view `role_column_grants`.

In PostgreSQL, you can only grant privileges on entire tables, not individual columns. Therefore, this view contains the same information as `table_privileges`, just represented through one row for each column in each appropriate table, but it only covers privilege types where column granularity is possible: `SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `REFERENCES`. If you want to make your applications fit for possible future developments, it is generally the right choice to use this view instead of `table_privileges` if one of those privilege types is concerned.

Table 30-5. `column_privileges` Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
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Name	Data Type	Description
grantor	sql_identifier	Name of the user that granted the privilege
grantee	sql_identifier	Name of the user or group that the privilege was granted to
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table that contains the column (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table that contains the column
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table that contains the column
column_name	sql_identifier	Name of the column
privilege_type	character_data	Type of the privilege: SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, or REFERENCES
is_grantable	character_data	YES if the privilege is grantable, NO if not

Note that the column `grantee` makes no distinction between users and groups. If you have users and groups with the same name, there is unfortunately no way to distinguish them. A future version of PostgreSQL will possibly prohibit having users and groups with the same name.

30.8. `column_udt_usage`

The view `column_udt_usage` identifies all columns that use data types owned by the current user. Note that in PostgreSQL, built-in data types behave like user-defined types, so they are included here as well. See also Section 30.9 for details.

Table 30-6. `column_udt_usage` Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
udt_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that the column data type (the underlying type of the domain, if applicable) is defined in (always the current database)
udt_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that the column data type (the underlying type of the domain, if applicable) is defined in
udt_name	sql_identifier	Name of the column data type (the underlying type of the domain, if applicable)

Name	Data Type	Description
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database containing the table (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema containing the table
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table
column_name	sql_identifier	Name of the column

30.9. columns

The view `columns` contains information about all table columns (or view columns) in the database. System columns (`oid`, etc.) are not included. Only those columns are shown that the current user has access to (by way of being the owner or having some privilege).

Table 30-7. columns Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database containing the table (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema containing the table
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table
column_name	sql_identifier	Name of the column
ordinal_position	cardinal_number	Ordinal position of the column within the table (count starts at 1)
column_default	character_data	Default expression of the column (null if the current user is not the owner of the table containing the column)
is_nullable	character_data	YES if the column is possibly nullable, NO if it is known not nullable. A not-null constraint is one way a column can be known not nullable, but there may be others.

Name	Data Type	Description
data_type	character_data	Data type of the column, if it is a built-in type, or ARRAY if it is some array (in that case, see the view <code>element_types</code>), else USER-DEFINED (in that case, the type is identified in <code>udt_name</code> and associated columns). If the column is based on a domain, this column refers to the type underlying the domain (and the domain is identified in <code>domain_name</code> and associated columns).
character_maximum_length	cardinal_number	If <code>data_type</code> identifies a character or bit string type, the declared maximum length; null for all other data types or if no maximum length was declared.
character_octet_length	cardinal_number	If <code>data_type</code> identifies a character type, the maximum possible length in octets (bytes) of a datum (this should not be of concern to PostgreSQL users); null for all other data types.
numeric_precision	cardinal_number	If <code>data_type</code> identifies a numeric type, this column contains the (declared or implicit) precision of the type for this column. The precision indicates the number of significant digits. It may be expressed in decimal (base 10) or binary (base 2) terms, as specified in the column <code>numeric_precision_radix</code> . For all other data types, this column is null.
numeric_precision_radix	cardinal_number	If <code>data_type</code> identifies a numeric type, this column indicates in which base the values in the columns <code>numeric_precision</code> and <code>numeric_scale</code> are expressed. The value is either 2 or 10. For all other data types, this column is null.

Name	Data Type	Description
numeric_scale	cardinal_number	If data_type identifies an exact numeric type, this column contains the (declared or implicit) scale of the type for this column. The scale indicates the number of significant digits to the right of the decimal point. It may be expressed in decimal (base 10) or binary (base 2) terms, as specified in the column numeric_precision_radix. For all other data types, this column is null.
datetime_precision	cardinal_number	If data_type identifies a date, time, or interval type, the declared precision; null for all other data types or if no precision was declared.
interval_type	character_data	Not yet implemented
interval_precision	character_data	Not yet implemented
character_set_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
character_set_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
character_set_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
collation_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
collation_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
collation_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
domain_catalog	sql_identifier	If the column has a domain type, the name of the database that the domain is defined in (always the current database), else null.
domain_schema	sql_identifier	If the column has a domain type, the name of the schema that the domain is defined in, else null.
domain_name	sql_identifier	If the column has a domain type, the name of the domain, else null.

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>udt_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the database that the column data type (the underlying type of the domain, if applicable) is defined in (always the current database)
<code>udt_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the schema that the column data type (the underlying type of the domain, if applicable) is defined in
<code>udt_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the column data type (the underlying type of the domain, if applicable)
<code>scope_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>scope_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>scope_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>maximum_cardinality</code>	<code>cardinal_number</code>	Always null, because arrays always have unlimited maximum cardinality in PostgreSQL
<code>dtd_identifier</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	An identifier of the data type descriptor of the column, unique among the data type descriptors pertaining to the table. This is mainly useful for joining with other instances of such identifiers. (The specific format of the identifier is not defined and not guaranteed to remain the same in future versions.)
<code>is_self_referencing</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL

Since data types can be defined in a variety of ways in SQL, and PostgreSQL contains additional ways to define data types, their representation in the information schema can be somewhat difficult. The column `data_type` is supposed to identify the underlying built-in type of the column. In PostgreSQL, this means that the type is defined in the system catalog schema `pg_catalog`. This column may be useful if the application can handle the well-known built-in types specially (for example, format the numeric types differently or use the data in the precision columns). The columns `udt_name`, `udt_schema`, and `udt_catalog` always identify the underlying data type of the column, even if the column is based on a domain. (Since PostgreSQL treats built-in types like user-defined types, built-in types appear here as well. This is an extension of the SQL standard.) These columns should be used if an application wants to process data differently according to the type, because in that case it wouldn't matter if the column is really based on a domain. If the column is based on a domain, the identity of the domain is stored in the columns

`domain_name`, `domain_schema`, and `domain_catalog`. If you want to pair up columns with their associated data types and treat domains as separate types, you could write `coalesce(domain_name, udt_name)`, etc.

30.10. `constraint_column_usage`

The view `constraint_column_usage` identifies all columns in the current database that are used by some constraint. Only those columns are shown that are contained in a table owned the current user. For a check constraint, this view identifies the columns that are used in the check expression. For a foreign key constraint, this view identifies the columns that the foreign key references. For a unique or primary key constraint, this view identifies the constrained columns.

Table 30-8. `constraint_column_usage` Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>table_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the database that contains the table that contains the column that is used by some constraint (always the current database)
<code>table_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the schema that contains the table that contains the column that is used by some constraint
<code>table_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the table that contains the column that is used by some constraint
<code>column_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the column that is used by some constraint
<code>constraint_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the database that contains the constraint (always the current database)
<code>constraint_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the schema that contains the constraint
<code>constraint_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the constraint

30.11. `constraint_table_usage`

The view `constraint_table_usage` identifies all tables in the current database that are used by some constraint and are owned by the current user. (This is different from the view `table_constraints`, which identifies all table constraints along with the table they are defined on.) For a foreign key constraint, this view identifies the table that the foreign key references. For a unique or primary key constraint, this view simply identifies the table the constraint belongs to. Check constraints and not-null constraints are not included in this view.

Table 30-9. constraint_table_usage Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table that is used by some constraint (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table that is used by some constraint
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table that is used by some constraint
constraint_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the constraint (always the current database)
constraint_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the constraint
constraint_name	sql_identifier	Name of the constraint

30.12. data_type_privileges

The view `data_type_privileges` identifies all data type descriptors that the current user has access to, by way of being the owner of the described object or having some privilege for it. A data type descriptor is generated whenever a data type is used in the definition of a table column, a domain, or a function (as parameter or return type) and stores some information about how the data type is used in that instance (for example, the declared maximum length, if applicable). Each data type descriptor is assigned an arbitrary identifier that is unique among the data type descriptor identifiers assigned for one object (table, domain, function). This view is probably not useful for applications, but it is used to define some other views in the information schema.

Table 30-10. data_type_privileges Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
object_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the described object (always the current database)
object_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the described object
object_name	sql_identifier	Name of the described object

Name	Data Type	Description
object_type	character_data	The type of the described object: one of TABLE (the data type descriptor pertains to a column of that table), DOMAIN (the data type descriptors pertains to that domain), ROUTINE (the data type descriptor pertains to a parameter or the return data type of that function).
dtd_identifier	sql_identifier	The identifier of the data type descriptor, which is unique among the data type descriptors for that same object.

30.13. domain_constraints

The view `domain_constraints` contains all constraints belonging to domains owned by the current user.

Table 30-11. domain_constraints Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
constraint_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the constraint (always the current database)
constraint_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the constraint
constraint_name	sql_identifier	Name of the constraint
domain_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the domain (always the current database)
domain_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the domain
domain_name	sql_identifier	Name of the domain
is_deferrable	character_data	YES if the constraint is deferrable, NO if not
initially_deferred	character_data	YES if the constraint is deferrable and initially deferred, NO if not

30.14. domain_udt_usage

The view `domain_udt_usage` identifies all columns that use data types owned by the current user. Note

that in PostgreSQL, built-in data types behave like user-defined types, so they are included here as well.

Table 30-12. domain_udt_usage Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
udt_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that the domain data type is defined in (always the current database)
udt_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that the domain data type is defined in
udt_name	sql_identifier	Name of the domain data type
domain_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the domain (always the current database)
domain_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the domain
domain_name	sql_identifier	Name of the domain

30.15. domains

The view `domains` contains all domains defined in the current database.

Table 30-13. domains Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
domain_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the domain (always the current database)
domain_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the domain
domain_name	sql_identifier	Name of the domain
data_type	character_data	Data type of the domain, if it is a built-in type, or <code>ARRAY</code> if it is some array (in that case, see the view <code>element_types</code>), else <code>USER-DEFINED</code> (in that case, the type is identified in <code>udt_name</code> and associated columns).
character_maximum_length	cardinal_number	If the domain has a character or bit string type, the declared maximum length; null for all other data types or if no maximum length was declared.

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>character_octet_length</code>	<code>cardinal_number</code>	If the domain has a character type, the maximum possible length in octets (bytes) of a datum (this should not be of concern to PostgreSQL users); null for all other data types.
<code>character_set_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>character_set_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>character_set_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>collation_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>collation_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>collation_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>numeric_precision</code>	<code>cardinal_number</code>	If the domain has a numeric type, this column contains the (declared or implicit) precision of the type for this column. The precision indicates the number of significant digits. It may be expressed in decimal (base 10) or binary (base 2) terms, as specified in the column <code>numeric_precision_radix</code> . For all other data types, this column is null.
<code>numeric_precision_radix</code>	<code>cardinal_number</code>	If the domain has a numeric type, this column indicates in which base the values in the columns <code>numeric_precision</code> and <code>numeric_scale</code> are expressed. The value is either 2 or 10. For all other data types, this column is null.

Name	Data Type	Description
numeric_scale	cardinal_number	If the domain has an exact numeric type, this column contains the (declared or implicit) scale of the type for this column. The scale indicates the number of significant digits to the right of the decimal point. It may be expressed in decimal (base 10) or binary (base 2) terms, as specified in the column <code>numeric_precision_radix</code> . For all other data types, this column is null.
datetime_precision	cardinal_number	If the domain has a date, time, or interval type, the declared precision; null for all other data types or if no precision was declared.
interval_type	character_data	Not yet implemented
interval_precision	character_data	Not yet implemented
domain_default	character_data	Default expression of the domain
udt_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that the domain data type is defined in (always the current database)
udt_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that the domain data type is defined in
udt_name	sql_identifier	Name of the domain data type
scope_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
scope_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
scope_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
maximum_cardinality	cardinal_number	Always null, because arrays always have unlimited maximum cardinality in PostgreSQL

Name	Data Type	Description
dtd_identifier	sql_identifier	An identifier of the data type descriptor of the domain, unique among the data type descriptors pertaining to the domain (which is trivial, because a domain only contains one data type descriptor). This is mainly useful for joining with other instances of such identifiers. (The specific format of the identifier is not defined and not guaranteed to remain the same in future versions.)

30.16. element_types

The view `element_types` contains the data type descriptors of the elements of arrays. When a table column, domain, function parameter, or function return value is defined to be of an array type, the respective information schema view only contains `ARRAY` in the column `data_type`. To obtain information on the element type of the array, you can join the respective view with this view. For example, to show the columns of a table with data types and array element types, if applicable, you could do

```
SELECT c.column_name, c.data_type, e.data_type AS element_type
FROM information_schema.columns c LEFT JOIN information_schema.element_types e
    ON ((c.table_catalog, c.table_schema, c.table_name, 'TABLE', c.dtd_identifier)
        = (e.object_catalog, e.object_schema, e.object_name, e.object_type, e.array_type))
WHERE c.table_schema = '...' AND c.table_name = '...'
ORDER BY c.ordinal_position;
```

This view only includes objects that the current user has access to, by way of being the owner or having some privilege.

Table 30-14. element_types Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
object_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the object that uses the array being described (always the current database)
object_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the object that uses the array being described
object_name	sql_identifier	Name of the object that uses the array being described

Name	Data Type	Description
object_type	character_data	The type of the object that uses the array being described: one of TABLE (the array is used by a column of that table), DOMAIN (the array is used by that domain), ROUTINE (the array is used by a parameter or the return data type of that function).
array_type_identifier	sql_identifier	The identifier of the data type descriptor of the array being described. Use this to join with the dtd_identifier columns of other information schema views.
data_type	character_data	Data type of the array elements, if it is a built-in type, else USER-DEFINED (in that case, the type is identified in udt_name and associated columns).
character_maximum_length	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to array element data types in PostgreSQL
character_octet_length	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to array element data types in PostgreSQL
character_set_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
character_set_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
character_set_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
collation_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
collation_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
collation_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
numeric_precision	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to array element data types in PostgreSQL
numeric_precision_radix	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to array element data types in PostgreSQL

Name	Data Type	Description
numeric_scale	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to array element data types in PostgreSQL
datetime_precision	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to array element data types in PostgreSQL
interval_type	character_data	Always null, since this information is not applied to array element data types in PostgreSQL
interval_precision	character_data	Always null, since this information is not applied to array element data types in PostgreSQL
domain_default	character_data	Not yet implemented
udt_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that the data type of the elements is defined in (always the current database)
udt_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that the data type of the elements is defined in
udt_name	sql_identifier	Name of the data type of the elements
scope_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
scope_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
scope_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
maximum_cardinality	cardinal_number	Always null, because arrays always have unlimited maximum cardinality in PostgreSQL
dtd_identifier	sql_identifier	An identifier of the data type descriptor of the element. This is currently not useful.

30.17. enabled_roles

The view `enabled_roles` identifies all groups that the current user is a member of. (A role is the same thing as a group.) The difference between this view and `applicable_roles` is that in the future there may be a mechanism to enable and disable groups during a session. In that case this view identifies those groups that are currently enabled.

Table 30-15. enabled_roles Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
role_name	sql_identifier	Name of a group

30.18. key_column_usage

The view `key_column_usage` identifies all columns in the current database that are restricted by some unique, primary key, or foreign key constraint. Check constraints are not included in this view. Only those columns are shown that are contained in a table owned by the current user.

Table 30-16. key_column_usage Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
constraint_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the constraint (always the current database)
constraint_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the constraint
constraint_name	sql_identifier	Name of the constraint
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table that contains the column that is restricted by some constraint (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table that contains the column that is restricted by some constraint
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table that contains the column that is restricted by some constraint
column_name	sql_identifier	Name of the column that is restricted by some constraint
ordinal_position	cardinal_number	Ordinal position of the column within the constraint key (count starts at 1)

30.19. parameters

The view `parameters` contains information about the parameters (arguments) of all functions in the current database. Only those functions are shown that the current user has access to (by way of being the owner or having some privilege).

Table 30-17. `parameters` Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>specific_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the database containing the function (always the current database)
<code>specific_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the schema containing the function
<code>specific_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	The “specific name” of the function. See Section 30.26 for more information.
<code>ordinal_position</code>	<code>cardinal_number</code>	Ordinal position of the parameter in the argument list of the function (count starts at 1)
<code>parameter_mode</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Always <code>IN</code> , meaning input parameter (in the future there might be other parameter modes)
<code>is_result</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>as_locator</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>parameter_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the parameter, or null if the parameter has no name
<code>data_type</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Data type of the parameter, if it is a built-in type, or <code>ARRAY</code> if it is some array (in that case, see the view <code>element_types</code>), else <code>USER-DEFINED</code> (in that case, the type is identified in <code>udt_name</code> and associated columns).
<code>character_maximum_length</code>	<code>cardinal_number</code>	Always null, since this information is not applied to parameter data types in PostgreSQL
<code>character_octet_length</code>	<code>cardinal_number</code>	Always null, since this information is not applied to parameter data types in PostgreSQL
<code>character_set_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>character_set_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>character_set_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>collation_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL

Name	Data Type	Description
collation_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
collation_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
numeric_precision	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to parameter data types in PostgreSQL
numeric_precision_radix	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to parameter data types in PostgreSQL
numeric_scale	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to parameter data types in PostgreSQL
datetime_precision	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to parameter data types in PostgreSQL
interval_type	character_data	Always null, since this information is not applied to parameter data types in PostgreSQL
interval_precision	character_data	Always null, since this information is not applied to parameter data types in PostgreSQL
udt_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that the data type of the parameter is defined in (always the current database)
udt_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that the data type of the parameter is defined in
udt_name	sql_identifier	Name of the data type of the parameter
scope_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
scope_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
scope_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
maximum_cardinality	cardinal_number	Always null, because arrays always have unlimited maximum cardinality in PostgreSQL

Name	Data Type	Description
dtd_identifier	sql_identifier	An identifier of the data type descriptor of the parameter, unique among the data type descriptors pertaining to the function. This is mainly useful for joining with other instances of such identifiers. (The specific format of the identifier is not defined and not guaranteed to remain the same in future versions.)

30.20. referential_constraints

The view `referential_constraints` contains all referential (foreign key) constraints in the current database that belong to a table owned by the current user.

Table 30-18. referential_constraints Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
constraint_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database containing the constraint (always the current database)
constraint_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema containing the constraint
constraint_name	sql_identifier	Name of the constraint
unique_constraint_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the unique or primary key constraint that the foreign key constraint references (always the current database)
unique_constraint_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the unique or primary key constraint that the foreign key constraint references
unique_constraint_name	sql_identifier	Name of the unique or primary key constraint that the foreign key constraint references
match_option	character_data	Match option of the foreign key constraint: FULL, PARTIAL, or NONE.

Name	Data Type	Description
update_rule	character_data	Update rule of the foreign key constraint: CASCADE, SET NULL, SET DEFAULT, RESTRICT, or NO ACTION.
delete_rule	character_data	Delete rule of the foreign key constraint: CASCADE, SET NULL, SET DEFAULT, RESTRICT, or NO ACTION.

30.21. role_column_grants

The view `role_column_grants` identifies all privileges granted on columns to a group that the current user is a member of. Further information can be found under `column_privileges`.

Table 30-19. role_column_grants Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
grantor	sql_identifier	Name of the user that granted the privilege
grantee	sql_identifier	Name of the group that the privilege was granted to
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table that contains the column (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table that contains the column
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table that contains the column
column_name	sql_identifier	Name of the column
privilege_type	character_data	Type of the privilege: SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, or REFERENCES
is_grantable	character_data	YES if the privilege is grantable, NO if not

30.22. role_routine_grants

The view `role_routine_grants` identifies all privileges granted on functions to a group that the current user is a member of. Further information can be found under `routine_privileges`.

Table 30-20. role_routine_grants Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
grantor	sql_identifier	Name of the user that granted the privilege
grantee	sql_identifier	Name of the group that the privilege was granted to
specific_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database containing the function (always the current database)
specific_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema containing the function
specific_name	sql_identifier	The “specific name” of the function. See Section 30.26 for more information.
routine_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database containing the function (always the current database)
routine_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema containing the function
routine_name	sql_identifier	Name of the function (may be duplicated in case of overloading)
privilege_type	character_data	Always EXECUTE (the only privilege type for functions)
is_grantable	character_data	YES if the privilege is grantable, NO if not

30.23. role_table_grants

The view `role_table_grants` identifies all privileges granted on tables or views to a group that the current user is a member of. Further information can be found under `table_privileges`.

Table 30-21. role_table_grants Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
grantor	sql_identifier	Name of the user that granted the privilege
grantee	sql_identifier	Name of the group that the privilege was granted to
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table

Name	Data Type	Description
privilege_type	character_data	Type of the privilege: SELECT, DELETE, INSERT, UPDATE, REFERENCES, RULE, or TRIGGER
is_grantable	character_data	YES if the privilege is grantable, NO if not
with_hierarchy	character_data	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL

30.24. role_usage_grants

The view `role_usage_grants` is meant to identify USAGE privileges granted on various kinds of objects to a group that the current user is a member of. In PostgreSQL, this currently only applies to domains, and since domains do not have real privileges in PostgreSQL, this view is empty. Further information can be found under `usage_privileges`. In the future, this view may contain more useful information.

Table 30-22. role_usage_grants Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
grantor	sql_identifier	In the future, the name of the user that granted the privilege
grantee	sql_identifier	In the future, the name of the group that the privilege was granted to
object_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database containing the object (always the current database)
object_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema containing the object
object_name	sql_identifier	Name of the object
object_type	character_data	In the future, the type of the object
privilege_type	character_data	Always USAGE
is_grantable	character_data	YES if the privilege is grantable, NO if not

30.25. routine_privileges

The view `routine_privileges` identifies all privileges granted on functions to the current user or by the current user. There is one row for each combination of function, grantor, and grantee. Privileges granted to groups are identified in the view `role_routine_grants`.

Table 30-23. routine_privileges Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
grantor	sql_identifier	Name of the user that granted the privilege
grantee	sql_identifier	Name of the user or group that the privilege was granted to
specific_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database containing the function (always the current database)
specific_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema containing the function
specific_name	sql_identifier	The “specific name” of the function. See Section 30.26 for more information.
routine_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database containing the function (always the current database)
routine_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema containing the function
routine_name	sql_identifier	Name of the function (may be duplicated in case of overloading)
privilege_type	character_data	Always EXECUTE (the only privilege type for functions)
is_grantable	character_data	YES if the privilege is grantable, NO if not

Note that the column `grantee` makes no distinction between users and groups. If you have users and groups with the same name, there is unfortunately no way to distinguish them. A future version of PostgreSQL will possibly prohibit having users and groups with the same name.

30.26. routines

The view `routines` contains all functions in the current database. Only those functions are shown that the current user has access to (by way of being the owner or having some privilege).

Table 30-24. routines Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
specific_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database containing the function (always the current database)
specific_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema containing the function

Name	Data Type	Description
specific_name	sql_identifier	The “specific name” of the function. This is a name that uniquely identifies the function in the schema, even if the real name of the function is overloaded. The format of the specific name is not defined, it should only be used to compare it to other instances of specific routine names.
routine_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database containing the function (always the current database)
routine_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema containing the function
routine_name	sql_identifier	Name of the function (may be duplicated in case of overloading)
routine_type	character_data	Always FUNCTION (In the future there might be other types of routines.)
module_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
module_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
module_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
udt_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
udt_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
udt_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
data_type	character_data	Return data type of the function, if it is a built-in type, or ARRAY if it is some array (in that case, see the view <code>element_types</code>), else USER-DEFINED (in that case, the type is identified in <code>type_udt_name</code> and associated columns).
character_maximum_length	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to return data types in PostgreSQL

Name	Data Type	Description
character_octet_length	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to return data types in PostgreSQL
character_set_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
character_set_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
character_set_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
collation_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
collation_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
collation_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
numeric_precision	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to return data types in PostgreSQL
numeric_precision_radix	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to return data types in PostgreSQL
numeric_scale	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to return data types in PostgreSQL
datetime_precision	cardinal_number	Always null, since this information is not applied to return data types in PostgreSQL
interval_type	character_data	Always null, since this information is not applied to return data types in PostgreSQL
interval_precision	character_data	Always null, since this information is not applied to return data types in PostgreSQL
type_udt_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that the return data type of the function is defined in (always the current database)
type_udt_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that the return data type of the function is defined in
type_udt_name	sql_identifier	Name of the return data type of the function

Name	Data Type	Description
scope_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
scope_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
scope_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
maximum_cardinality	cardinal_number	Always null, because arrays always have unlimited maximum cardinality in PostgreSQL
dtd_identifier	sql_identifier	An identifier of the data type descriptor of the return data type of this function, unique among the data type descriptors pertaining to the function. This is mainly useful for joining with other instances of such identifiers. (The specific format of the identifier is not defined and not guaranteed to remain the same in future versions.)
routine_body	character_data	If the function is an SQL function, then SQL, else EXTERNAL.
routine_definition	character_data	The source text of the function (null if the current user is not the owner of the function). (According to the SQL standard, this column is only applicable if routine_body is SQL, but in PostgreSQL it will contain whatever source text was specified when the function was created.)
external_name	character_data	If this function is a C function, then the external name (link symbol) of the function; else null. (This works out to be the same value that is shown in routine_definition.)
external_language	character_data	The language the function is written in
parameter_style	character_data	Always GENERAL (The SQL standard defines other parameter styles, which are not available in PostgreSQL.)

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>is_deterministic</code>	<code>character_data</code>	If the function is declared immutable (called deterministic in the SQL standard), then YES, else NO. (You cannot query the other volatility levels available in PostgreSQL through the information schema.)
<code>sql_data_access</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Always MODIFIES, meaning that the function possibly modifies SQL data. This information is not useful for PostgreSQL.
<code>is_null_call</code>	<code>character_data</code>	If the function automatically returns null if any of its arguments are null, then YES, else NO.
<code>sql_path</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>schema_level_routine</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Always YES (The opposite would be a method of a user-defined type, which is a feature not available in PostgreSQL.)
<code>max_dynamic_result_sets</code>	<code>cardinal_number</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>is_user_defined_cast</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>is_implicitly_invocable</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>security_type</code>	<code>character_data</code>	If the function runs with the privileges of the current user, then INVOKER, if the function runs with the privileges of the user who defined it, then DEFINER.
<code>to_sql_specific_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>to_sql_specific_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>to_sql_specific_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
<code>as_locator</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL

30.27. schemata

The view `schemata` contains all schemas in the current database that are owned by the current user.

Table 30-25. schemata Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
catalog_name	sql_identifier	Name of the database that the schema is contained in (always the current database)
schema_name	sql_identifier	Name of the schema
schema_owner	sql_identifier	Name of the owner of the schema
default_character_set_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
default_character_set_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
default_character_set_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
sql_path	character_data	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL

30.28. sql_features

The table `sql_features` contains information about which formal features defined in the SQL standard are supported by PostgreSQL. This is the same information that is presented in Appendix D. There you can also find some additional background information.

Table 30-26. sql_features Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
feature_id	character_data	Identifier string of the feature
feature_name	character_data	Descriptive name of the feature
sub_feature_id	character_data	Identifier string of the subfeature, or a zero-length string if not a subfeature
sub_feature_name	character_data	Descriptive name of the subfeature, or a zero-length string if not a subfeature
is_supported	character_data	YES if the feature is fully supported by the current version of PostgreSQL, NO if not
is_verified_by	character_data	Always null, since the PostgreSQL development group does not perform formal testing of feature conformance
comments	character_data	Possibly a comment about the supported status of the feature

30.29. `sql_implementation_info`

The table `sql_implementation_info` contains information about various aspects that are left implementation-defined by the SQL standard. This information is primarily intended for use in the context of the ODBC interface; users of other interfaces will probably find this information to be of little use. For this reason, the individual implementation information items are not described here; you will find them in the description of the ODBC interface.

Table 30-27. `sql_implementation_info` Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>implementation_info_id</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Identifier string of the implementation information item
<code>implementation_info_name</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Descriptive name of the implementation information item
<code>integer_value</code>	<code>cardinal_number</code>	Value of the implementation information item, or null if the value is contained in the column <code>character_value</code>
<code>character_value</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Value of the implementation information item, or null if the value is contained in the column <code>integer_value</code>
<code>comments</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Possibly a comment pertaining to the implementation information item

30.30. `sql_languages`

The table `sql_languages` contains one row for each SQL language binding that is supported by PostgreSQL. PostgreSQL supports direct SQL and embedded SQL in C; that is all you will learn from this table.

Table 30-28. `sql_languages` Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>sql_language_source</code>	<code>character_data</code>	The name of the source of the language definition; always ISO 9075, that is, the SQL standard
<code>sql_language_year</code>	<code>character_data</code>	The year the standard referenced in <code>sql_language_source</code> was approved; currently 2003
<code>sql_language_comformance</code>	<code>character_data</code>	The standard conformance level for the language binding. For ISO 9075:2003 this is always CORE.

Name	Data Type	Description
sql_language_integrity	character_data	Always null (This value is relevant to an earlier version of the SQL standard.)
sql_language_implementation	character_data	Always null
sql_language_binding_style	character_data	The language binding style, either <code>DIRECT</code> or <code>EMBEDDED</code>
sql_language_programming_language	character_data	The programming language, if the binding style is <code>EMBEDDED</code> , else null. PostgreSQL only supports the language C.

30.31. sql_packages

The table `sql_packages` contains information about which feature packages defined in the SQL standard are supported by PostgreSQL. Refer to Appendix D for background information on feature packages.

Table 30-29. sql_packages Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
feature_id	character_data	Identifier string of the package
feature_name	character_data	Descriptive name of the package
is_supported	character_data	YES if the package is fully supported by the current version of PostgreSQL, NO if not
is_verified_by	character_data	Always null, since the PostgreSQL development group does not perform formal testing of feature conformance
comments	character_data	Possibly a comment about the supported status of the package

30.32. sql_sizing

The table `sql_sizing` contains information about various size limits and maximum values in PostgreSQL. This information is primarily intended for use in the context of the ODBC interface; users of other interfaces will probably find this information to be of little use. For this reason, the individual sizing items are not described here; you will find them in the description of the ODBC interface.

Table 30-30. sql_sizing Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
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Name	Data Type	Description
sizing_id	cardinal_number	Identifier of the sizing item
sizing_name	character_data	Descriptive name of the sizing item
supported_value	cardinal_number	Value of the sizing item, or 0 if the size is unlimited or cannot be determined, or null if the features for which the sizing item is applicable are not supported
comments	character_data	Possibly a comment pertaining to the sizing item

30.33. sql_sizing_profiles

The table `sql_sizing_profiles` contains information about the `sql_sizing` values that are required by various profiles of the SQL standard. PostgreSQL does not track any SQL profiles, so this table is empty.

Table 30-31. sql_sizing_profiles Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
sizing_id	cardinal_number	Identifier of the sizing item
sizing_name	character_data	Descriptive name of the sizing item
profile_id	character_data	Identifier string of a profile
required_value	cardinal_number	The value required by the SQL profile for the sizing item, or 0 if the profile places no limit on the sizing item, or null if the profile does not require any of the features for which the sizing item is applicable
comments	character_data	Possibly a comment pertaining to the sizing item within the profile

30.34. table_constraints

The view `table_constraints` contains all constraints belonging to tables owned by the current user.

Table 30-32. table_constraints Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
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Name	Data Type	Description
constraint_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the constraint (always the current database)
constraint_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the constraint
constraint_name	sql_identifier	Name of the constraint
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table
constraint_type	character_data	Type of the constraint: CHECK, FOREIGN KEY, PRIMARY KEY, or UNIQUE
is_deferrable	character_data	YES if the constraint is deferrable, NO if not
initially_deferred	character_data	YES if the constraint is deferrable and initially deferred, NO if not

30.35. table_privileges

The view `table_privileges` identifies all privileges granted on tables or views to the current user or by the current user. There is one row for each combination of table, grantor, and grantee. Privileges granted to groups are identified in the view `role_table_grants`.

Table 30-33. table_privileges Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
grantor	sql_identifier	Name of the user that granted the privilege
grantee	sql_identifier	Name of the user or group that the privilege was granted to
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table
privilege_type	character_data	Type of the privilege: SELECT, DELETE, INSERT, UPDATE, REFERENCES, RULE, or TRIGGER

Name	Data Type	Description
is_grantable	character_data	YES if the privilege is grantable, NO if not
with_hierarchy	character_data	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL

Note that the column `grantee` makes no distinction between users and groups. If you have users and groups with the same name, there is unfortunately no way to distinguish them. A future version of PostgreSQL will possibly prohibit having users and groups with the same name.

30.36. tables

The view `tables` contains all tables and views defined in the current database. Only those tables and views are shown that the current user has access to (by way of being the owner or having some privilege).

Table 30-34. tables Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table
table_type	character_data	Type of the table: <code>BASE TABLE</code> for a persistent base table (the normal table type), <code>VIEW</code> for a view, or <code>LOCAL TEMPORARY</code> for a temporary table
self_referencing_column_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
reference_generation	character_data	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
user_defined_type_catalog	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
user_defined_type_schema	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
user_defined_type_name	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL

30.37. triggers

The view `triggers` contains all triggers defined in the current database that are owned by the current

user. (The owner of the table is the owner of the trigger.)

Table 30-35. triggers Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
trigger_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the trigger (always the current database)
trigger_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the trigger
trigger_name	sql_identifier	Name of the trigger
event_manipulation	character_data	Event that fires the trigger (INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE)
event_object_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table that the trigger is defined on (always the current database)
event_object_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table that the trigger is defined on
event_object_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table that the trigger is defined on
action_order	cardinal_number	Not yet implemented
action_condition	character_data	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
action_statement	character_data	Statement that is executed by the trigger (currently always EXECUTE PROCEDURE <i>function(...)</i>)
action_orientation	character_data	Identifies whether the trigger fires once for each processed row or once for each statement (ROW or STATEMENT)
condition_timing	character_data	Time at which the trigger fires (BEFORE or AFTER)
condition_reference_old_table	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
condition_reference_new_table	sql_identifier	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL

Triggers in PostgreSQL have two incompatibilities with the SQL standard that affect the representation in the information schema. First, trigger names are local to the table in PostgreSQL, rather than being independent schema objects. Therefore there may be duplicate trigger names defined in one schema, as long as they belong to different tables. (`trigger_catalog` and `trigger_schema` are really the values pertaining to the table that the trigger is defined on.) Second, triggers can be defined to fire on multiple events in PostgreSQL (e.g., `ON INSERT OR UPDATE`), whereas the SQL standard only allows one. If a

trigger is defined to fire on multiple events, it is represented as multiple rows in the information schema, one for each type of event. As a consequence of these two issues, the primary key of the view `triggers` is really `(trigger_catalog, trigger_schema, trigger_name, event_object_name, event_manipulation)` instead of `(trigger_catalog, trigger_schema, trigger_name)`, which is what the SQL standard specifies. Nonetheless, if you define your triggers in a manner that conforms with the SQL standard (trigger names unique in the schema and only one event type per trigger), this will not affect you.

30.38. `usage_privileges`

The view `usage_privileges` is meant to identify `USAGE` privileges granted on various kinds of objects to the current user or by the current user. In PostgreSQL, this currently only applies to domains, and since domains do not have real privileges in PostgreSQL, this view shows implicit `USAGE` privileges granted to `PUBLIC` for all domains. In the future, this view may contain more useful information.

Table 30-36. `usage_privileges` Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
<code>grantor</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Currently set to the name of the owner of the object
<code>grantee</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Currently always <code>PUBLIC</code>
<code>object_catalog</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the database containing the object (always the current database)
<code>object_schema</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the schema containing the object
<code>object_name</code>	<code>sql_identifier</code>	Name of the object
<code>object_type</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Currently always <code>DOMAIN</code>
<code>privilege_type</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Always <code>USAGE</code>
<code>is_grantable</code>	<code>character_data</code>	Currently always <code>NO</code>

30.39. `view_column_usage`

The view `view_column_usage` identifies all columns that are used in the query expression of a view (the `SELECT` statement that defines the view). A column is only included if the current user is the owner of the table that contains the column.

Note: Columns of system tables are not included. This should be fixed sometime.

Table 30-37. `view_column_usage` Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
------	-----------	-------------

Name	Data Type	Description
view_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the view (always the current database)
view_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the view
view_name	sql_identifier	Name of the view
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table that contains the column that is used by the view (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table that contains the column that is used by the view
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table that contains the column that is used by the view
column_name	sql_identifier	Name of the column that is used by the view

30.40. view_table_usage

The view `view_table_usage` identifies all tables that are used in the query expression of a view (the `SELECT` statement that defines the view). A table is only included if the current user is the owner of that table.

Note: System tables are not included. This should be fixed sometime.

Table 30-38. view_table_usage Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
view_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the view (always the current database)
view_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the view
view_name	sql_identifier	Name of the view
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the table that is used by the view (always the current database)

Name	Data Type	Description
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the table that is used by the view
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the table that is used by the view

30.41. views

The view `views` contains all views defined in the current database. Only those views are shown that the current user has access to (by way of being the owner or having some privilege).

Table 30-39. views Columns

Name	Data Type	Description
table_catalog	sql_identifier	Name of the database that contains the view (always the current database)
table_schema	sql_identifier	Name of the schema that contains the view
table_name	sql_identifier	Name of the view
view_definition	character_data	Query expression defining the view (null if the current user is not the owner of the view)
check_option	character_data	Applies to a feature not available in PostgreSQL
is_updatable	character_data	Not yet implemented
is_insertable_into	character_data	Not yet implemented

V. Server Programming

This part is about extending the server functionality with user-defined functions, data types, triggers, etc. These are advanced topics which should probably be approached only after all the other user documentation about PostgreSQL has been understood. Later chapters in this part describe the server-side programming languages available in the PostgreSQL distribution as well as general issues concerning server-side programming languages. It is essential to read at least the earlier sections of Chapter 31 (covering functions) before diving into the material about server-side programming languages.

Chapter 31. Extending SQL

In the sections that follow, we will discuss how you can extend the PostgreSQL SQL query language by adding:

- functions (starting in Section 31.3)
- aggregates (starting in Section 31.10)
- data types (starting in Section 31.11)
- operators (starting in Section 31.12)
- operator classes for indexes (starting in Section 31.14)

31.1. How Extensibility Works

PostgreSQL is extensible because its operation is catalog-driven. If you are familiar with standard relational database systems, you know that they store information about databases, tables, columns, etc., in what are commonly known as system catalogs. (Some systems call this the data dictionary.) The catalogs appear to the user as tables like any other, but the DBMS stores its internal bookkeeping in them. One key difference between PostgreSQL and standard relational database systems is that PostgreSQL stores much more information in its catalogs: not only information about tables and columns, but also information about data types, functions, access methods, and so on. These tables can be modified by the user, and since PostgreSQL bases its operation on these tables, this means that PostgreSQL can be extended by users. By comparison, conventional database systems can only be extended by changing hardcoded procedures in the source code or by loading modules specially written by the DBMS vendor.

The PostgreSQL server can moreover incorporate user-written code into itself through dynamic loading. That is, the user can specify an object code file (e.g., a shared library) that implements a new type or function, and PostgreSQL will load it as required. Code written in SQL is even more trivial to add to the server. This ability to modify its operation “on the fly” makes PostgreSQL uniquely suited for rapid prototyping of new applications and storage structures.

31.2. The PostgreSQL Type System

PostgreSQL data types are divided into base types, composite types, domains, and pseudo-types.

31.2.1. Base Types

Base types are those, like `int4`, that are implemented below the level of the SQL language (typically in a low-level language such as C). They generally correspond to what are often known as abstract data types. PostgreSQL can only operate on such types through functions provided by the user and only understands the behavior of such types to the extent that the user describes them. Base types are further subdivided into scalar and array types. For each scalar type, a corresponding array type is automatically created that can hold variable-size arrays of that scalar type.

31.2.2. Composite Types

Composite types, or row types, are created whenever the user creates a table; it's also possible to define a "stand-alone" composite type with no associated table. A composite type is simply a list of base types with associated field names. A value of a composite type is a row or record of field values. The user can access the component fields from SQL queries.

31.2.3. Domains

A domain is based on a particular base type and for many purposes is interchangeable with its base type. However, a domain may have constraints that restrict its valid values to a subset of what the underlying base type would allow.

Domains can be created using the SQL command *CREATE DOMAIN*. Their creation and use is not discussed in this chapter.

31.2.4. Pseudo-Types

There are a few "pseudo-types" for special purposes. Pseudo-types cannot appear as columns of tables or attributes of composite types, but they can be used to declare the argument and result types of functions. This provides a mechanism within the type system to identify special classes of functions. Table 8-20 lists the existing pseudo-types.

31.2.5. Polymorphic Types

Two pseudo-types of special interest are *anyelement* and *anyarray*, which are collectively called *polymorphic types*. Any function declared using these types is said to be a *polymorphic function*. A polymorphic function can operate on many different data types, with the specific data type(s) being determined by the data types actually passed to it in a particular call.

Polymorphic arguments and results are tied to each other and are resolved to a specific data type when a query calling a polymorphic function is parsed. Each position (either argument or return value) declared as *anyelement* is allowed to have any specific actual data type, but in any given call they must all be the *same* actual type. Each position declared as *anyarray* can have any array data type, but similarly they must all be the same type. If there are positions declared *anyarray* and others declared *anyelement*, the actual array type in the *anyarray* positions must be an array whose elements are the same type appearing in the *anyelement* positions.

Thus, when more than one argument position is declared with a polymorphic type, the net effect is that only certain combinations of actual argument types are allowed. For example, a function declared as `equal(anyelement, anyelement)` will take any two input values, so long as they are of the same data type.

When the return value of a function is declared as a polymorphic type, there must be at least one argument position that is also polymorphic, and the actual data type supplied as the argument determines the actual result type for that call. For example, if there were not already an array subscripting mechanism, one could define a function that implements subscripting as `subscript(anyarray, integer)` returns *anyelement*. This declaration constrains the actual first argument to be an array type, and allows the parser to infer the correct result type from the actual first argument's type.

31.3. User-Defined Functions

PostgreSQL provides four kinds of functions:

- query language functions (functions written in SQL) (Section 31.4)
- procedural language functions (functions written in, for example, PL/pgSQL or PL/Tcl) (Section 31.7)
- internal functions (Section 31.8)
- C-language functions (Section 31.9)

Every kind of function can take base types, composite types, or combinations of these as arguments (parameters). In addition, every kind of function can return a base type or a composite type. Functions may also be defined to return sets of base or composite values.

Many kinds of functions can take or return certain pseudo-types (such as polymorphic types), but the available facilities vary. Consult the description of each kind of function for more details.

It's easiest to define SQL functions, so we'll start by discussing those. Most of the concepts presented for SQL functions will carry over to the other types of functions.

Throughout this chapter, it can be useful to look at the reference page of the *CREATE FUNCTION* command to understand the examples better. Some examples from this chapter can be found in `funcs.sql` and `funcs.c` in the `src/tutorial` directory in the PostgreSQL source distribution.

31.4. Query Language (SQL) Functions

SQL functions execute an arbitrary list of SQL statements, returning the result of the last query in the list. In the simple (non-set) case, the first row of the last query's result will be returned. (Bear in mind that "the first row" of a multirow result is not well-defined unless you use `ORDER BY`.) If the last query happens to return no rows at all, the null value will be returned.

Alternatively, an SQL function may be declared to return a set, by specifying the function's return type as `SETOF sometype`. In this case all rows of the last query's result are returned. Further details appear below.

The body of an SQL function must be a list of SQL statements separated by semicolons. A semicolon after the last statement is optional. Unless the function is declared to return `void`, the last statement must be a `SELECT`.

Any collection of commands in the SQL language can be packaged together and defined as a function. Besides `SELECT` queries, the commands can include data modification queries (`INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE`), as well as other SQL commands. (The only exception is that you can't put `BEGIN`, `COMMIT`, `ROLLBACK`, or `SAVEPOINT` commands into a SQL function.) However, the final command must be a `SELECT` that returns whatever is specified as the function's return type. Alternatively, if you want to define a SQL function that performs actions but has no useful value to return, you can define it as returning `void`. In that case, the function body must not end with a `SELECT`. For example, this function removes rows with negative salaries from the `emp` table:

```
CREATE FUNCTION clean_emp() RETURNS void AS '
DELETE FROM emp
```

```

        WHERE salary < 0;
' LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT clean_emp();

clean_emp
-----

(1 row)

```

The syntax of the `CREATE FUNCTION` command requires the function body to be written as a string constant. It is usually most convenient to use dollar quoting (see Section 4.1.2.2) for the string constant. If you choose to use regular single-quoted string constant syntax, you must escape single quote marks (`'`) and backslashes (`\`) used in the body of the function, typically by doubling them (see Section 4.1.2.1).

Arguments to the SQL function are referenced in the function body using the syntax `$n`: `$1` refers to the first argument, `$2` to the second, and so on. If an argument is of a composite type, then the dot notation, e.g., `$1.name`, may be used to access attributes of the argument. The arguments can only be used as data values, not as identifiers. Thus for example this is reasonable:

```
INSERT INTO mytable VALUES ($1);
```

but this will not work:

```
INSERT INTO $1 VALUES (42);
```

31.4.1. SQL Functions on Base Types

The simplest possible SQL function has no arguments and simply returns a base type, such as `integer`:

```

CREATE FUNCTION one() RETURNS integer AS $$
    SELECT 1 AS result;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

-- Alternative syntax for string literal:
CREATE FUNCTION one() RETURNS integer AS '
    SELECT 1 AS result;
' LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT one();

one
----
1

```

Notice that we defined a column alias within the function body for the result of the function (with the name `result`), but this column alias is not visible outside the function. Hence, the result is labeled `one` instead of `result`.

It is almost as easy to define SQL functions that take base types as arguments. In the example below, notice how we refer to the arguments within the function as `$1` and `$2`.

```
CREATE FUNCTION add_em(integer, integer) RETURNS integer AS $$
    SELECT $1 + $2;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT add_em(1, 2) AS answer;

    answer
-----
         3
```

Here is a more useful function, which might be used to debit a bank account:

```
CREATE FUNCTION tf1 (integer, numeric) RETURNS integer AS $$
    UPDATE bank
        SET balance = balance - $2
        WHERE accountno = $1;
    SELECT 1;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;
```

A user could execute this function to debit account 17 by \$100.00 as follows:

```
SELECT tf1(17, 100.0);
```

In practice one would probably like a more useful result from the function than a constant 1, so a more likely definition is

```
CREATE FUNCTION tf1 (integer, numeric) RETURNS numeric AS $$
    UPDATE bank
        SET balance = balance - $2
        WHERE accountno = $1;
    SELECT balance FROM bank WHERE accountno = $1;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;
```

which adjusts the balance and returns the new balance.

31.4.2. SQL Functions on Composite Types

When writing functions with arguments of composite types, we must not only specify which argument we want (as we did above with `$1` and `$2`) but also the desired attribute (field) of that argument. For example, suppose that `emp` is a table containing employee data, and therefore also the name of the composite type

of each row of the table. Here is a function `double_salary` that computes what someone's salary would be if it were doubled:

```
CREATE TABLE emp (
    name      text,
    salary    numeric,
    age       integer,
    cubicle   point
);

CREATE FUNCTION double_salary(emp) RETURNS numeric AS $$
    SELECT $1.salary * 2 AS salary;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT name, double_salary(emp.*) AS dream
    FROM emp
    WHERE emp.cubicle ~= point '(2,1)';

name | dream
-----+-----
Bill |  8400
```

Notice the use of the syntax `$1.salary` to select one field of the argument row value. Also notice how the calling `SELECT` command uses `*` to select the entire current row of a table as a composite value. The table row can alternatively be referenced using just the table name, like this:

```
SELECT name, double_salary(emp) AS dream
    FROM emp
    WHERE emp.cubicle ~= point '(2,1)';
```

but this usage is deprecated since it's easy to get confused.

Sometimes it is handy to construct a composite argument value on-the-fly. This can be done with the `ROW` construct. For example, we could adjust the data being passed to the function:

```
SELECT name, double_salary(ROW(name, salary*1.1, age, cubicle)) AS dream
    FROM emp;
```

It is also possible to build a function that returns a composite type. This is an example of a function that returns a single `emp` row:

```
CREATE FUNCTION new_emp() RETURNS emp AS $$
    SELECT text 'None' AS name,
           1000.0 AS salary,
           25 AS age,
           point '(2,2)' AS cubicle;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;
```

In this example we have specified each of the attributes with a constant value, but any computation could have been substituted for these constants.

Note two important things about defining the function:

- The select list order in the query must be exactly the same as that in which the columns appear in the table associated with the composite type. (Naming the columns, as we did above, is irrelevant to the system.)
- You must typecast the expressions to match the definition of the composite type, or you will get errors like this:

```
ERROR: function declared to return emp returns varchar instead of text at column 1
```

A different way to define the same function is:

```
CREATE FUNCTION new_emp() RETURNS emp AS $$
    SELECT ROW('None', 1000.0, 25, '(2,2)')::emp;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;
```

Here we wrote a `SELECT` that returns just a single column of the correct composite type. This isn't really better in this situation, but it is a handy alternative in some cases — for example, if we need to compute the result by calling another function that returns the desired composite value.

We could call this function directly in either of two ways:

```
SELECT new_emp();

           new_emp
-----
(None,1000.0,25,"(2,2)")

SELECT * FROM new_emp();

 name | salary | age | cubicle
-----+-----+-----+-----
None | 1000.0 | 25  | (2,2)
```

The second way is described more fully in Section 31.4.3.

When you use a function that returns a composite type, you might want only one field (attribute) from its result. You can do that with syntax like this:

```
SELECT (new_emp()).name;

 name
-----
None
```

The extra parentheses are needed to keep the parser from getting confused. If you try to do it without them, you get something like this:

```
SELECT new_emp().name;
ERROR: syntax error at or near "." at character 17
LINE 1: SELECT new_emp().name;
                ^
```

Another option is to use functional notation for extracting an attribute. The simple way to explain this is that we can use the notations `attribute(table)` and `table.attribute` interchangeably.

```
SELECT name(new_emp());

name
-----
None

-- This is the same as:
-- SELECT emp.name AS youngster FROM emp WHERE emp.age < 30;

SELECT name(emp) AS youngster FROM emp WHERE age(emp) < 30;

youngster
-----
Sam
Andy
```

Tip: The equivalence between functional notation and attribute notation makes it possible to use functions on composite types to emulate “computed fields”. For example, using the previous definition for `double_salary(emp)`, we can write

```
SELECT emp.name, emp.double_salary FROM emp;
```

An application using this wouldn’t need to be directly aware that `double_salary` isn’t a real column of the table. (You can also emulate computed fields with views.)

Another way to use a function returning a row result is to pass the result to another function that accepts the correct row type as input:

```
CREATE FUNCTION getname(emp) RETURNS text AS $$
    SELECT $1.name;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT getname(new_emp());

getname
-----
None
(1 row)
```

Another way to use a function that returns a composite type is to call it as a table function, as described below.

31.4.3. SQL Functions as Table Sources

All SQL functions may be used in the `FROM` clause of a query, but it is particularly useful for functions returning composite types. If the function is defined to return a base type, the table function produces a one-column table. If the function is defined to return a composite type, the table function produces a column for each attribute of the composite type.

Here is an example:

```
CREATE TABLE foo (fooid int, foosubid int, fooname text);
INSERT INTO foo VALUES (1, 1, 'Joe');
INSERT INTO foo VALUES (1, 2, 'Ed');
INSERT INTO foo VALUES (2, 1, 'Mary');

CREATE FUNCTION getfoo(int) RETURNS foo AS $$
    SELECT * FROM foo WHERE fooid = $1;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT *, upper(fooname) FROM getfoo(1) AS t1;
```

```
fooid | foosubid | fooname | upper
-----+-----+-----+-----
    1 |         1 | Joe     | JOE
(2 rows)
```

As the example shows, we can work with the columns of the function's result just the same as if they were columns of a regular table.

Note that we only got one row out of the function. This is because we did not use `SETOF`. That is described in the next section.

31.4.4. SQL Functions Returning Sets

When an SQL function is declared as returning `SETOF sometype`, the function's final `SELECT` query is executed to completion, and each row it outputs is returned as an element of the result set.

This feature is normally used when calling the function in the `FROM` clause. In this case each row returned by the function becomes a row of the table seen by the query. For example, assume that table `foo` has the same contents as above, and we say:

```
CREATE FUNCTION getfoo(int) RETURNS SETOF foo AS $$
    SELECT * FROM foo WHERE fooid = $1;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT * FROM getfoo(1) AS t1;
```

Then we would get:

```
fooid | foosubid | fooname
-----+-----+-----
    1 |         1 | Joe
    1 |         2 | Ed
(2 rows)
```

Currently, functions returning sets may also be called in the select list of a query. For each row that the query generates by itself, the function returning set is invoked, and an output row is generated for each element of the function's result set. Note, however, that this capability is deprecated and may be removed in future releases. The following is an example function returning a set from the select list:

```
CREATE FUNCTION listchildren(text) RETURNS SETOF text AS $$
    SELECT name FROM nodes WHERE parent = $1
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;
```

```
SELECT * FROM nodes;
   name  | parent
-----+-----
   Top   |
 Child1  | Top
 Child2  | Top
 Child3  | Top
 SubChild1 | Child1
 SubChild2 | Child1
(6 rows)
```

```
SELECT listchildren('Top');
 listchildren
-----
 Child1
 Child2
 Child3
(3 rows)
```

```
SELECT name, listchildren(name) FROM nodes;
   name  | listchildren
-----+-----
   Top   | Child1
   Top   | Child2
   Top   | Child3
 Child1  | SubChild1
 Child1  | SubChild2
(5 rows)
```

In the last `SELECT`, notice that no output row appears for `Child2`, `Child3`, etc. This happens because `listchildren` returns an empty set for those arguments, so no result rows are generated.

31.4.5. Polymorphic SQL Functions

SQL functions may be declared to accept and return the polymorphic types `anyelement` and `anyarray`. See Section 31.2.5 for a more detailed explanation of polymorphic functions. Here is a polymorphic function `make_array` that builds up an array from two arbitrary data type elements:

```
CREATE FUNCTION make_array(anyelement, anyelement) RETURNS anyarray AS $$
    SELECT ARRAY[$1, $2];
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;
```

```

SELECT make_array(1, 2) AS intarray, make_array('a'::text, 'b') AS textarray;
   intarray | textarray
-----+-----
   {1,2}    | {a,b}
(1 row)

```

Notice the use of the typecast `'a'::text` to specify that the argument is of type `text`. This is required if the argument is just a string literal, since otherwise it would be treated as type `unknown`, and array of `unknown` is not a valid type. Without the typecast, you will get errors like this:

```

ERROR:  could not determine "anyarray"/"anyelement" type because input has type "unknown"

```

It is permitted to have polymorphic arguments with a fixed return type, but the converse is not. For example:

```

CREATE FUNCTION is_greater(anyelement, anyelement) RETURNS boolean AS $$
    SELECT $1 > $2;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

```

```

SELECT is_greater(1, 2);
   is_greater
-----
    f
(1 row)

```

```

CREATE FUNCTION invalid_func() RETURNS anyelement AS $$
    SELECT 1;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

```

```

ERROR:  cannot determine result data type
DETAIL:  A function returning "anyarray" or "anyelement" must have at least one argument

```

31.5. Function Overloading

More than one function may be defined with the same SQL name, so long as the arguments they take are different. In other words, function names can be *overloaded*. When a query is executed, the server will determine which function to call from the data types and the number of the provided arguments. Overloading can also be used to simulate functions with a variable number of arguments, up to a finite maximum number.

When creating a family of overloaded functions, one should be careful not to create ambiguities. For instance, given the functions

```

CREATE FUNCTION test(int, real) RETURNS ...
CREATE FUNCTION test(smallint, double precision) RETURNS ...

```

it is not immediately clear which function would be called with some trivial input like `test(1, 1.5)`. The currently implemented resolution rules are described in Chapter 10, but it is unwise to design a system that subtly relies on this behavior.

A function that takes a single argument of a composite type should generally not have the same name as any attribute (field) of that type. Recall that `attribute(table)` is considered equivalent to `table.attribute`. In the case that there is an ambiguity between a function on a composite type and an attribute of the composite type, the attribute will always be used. It is possible to override that choice by schema-qualifying the function name (that is, `schema.func(table)`) but it's better to avoid the problem by not choosing conflicting names.

When overloading C-language functions, there is an additional constraint: The C name of each function in the family of overloaded functions must be different from the C names of all other functions, either internal or dynamically loaded. If this rule is violated, the behavior is not portable. You might get a runtime linker error, or one of the functions will get called (usually the internal one). The alternative form of the AS clause for the SQL `CREATE FUNCTION` command decouples the SQL function name from the function name in the C source code. For instance,

```
CREATE FUNCTION test(int) RETURNS int
  AS 'filename', 'test_larg'
  LANGUAGE C;
CREATE FUNCTION test(int, int) RETURNS int
  AS 'filename', 'test_2arg'
  LANGUAGE C;
```

The names of the C functions here reflect one of many possible conventions.

31.6. Function Volatility Categories

Every function has a *volatility* classification, with the possibilities being `VOLATILE`, `STABLE`, or `IMMUTABLE`. `VOLATILE` is the default if the `CREATE FUNCTION` command does not specify a category. The volatility category is a promise to the optimizer about the behavior of the function:

- A `VOLATILE` function can do anything, including modifying the database. It can return different results on successive calls with the same arguments. The optimizer makes no assumptions about the behavior of such functions. A query using a volatile function will re-evaluate the function at every row where its value is needed.
- A `STABLE` function cannot modify the database and is guaranteed to return the same results given the same arguments for all calls within a single surrounding query. This category allows the optimizer to optimize away multiple calls of the function within a single query. In particular, it is safe to use an expression containing such a function in an index scan condition. (Since an index scan will evaluate the comparison value only once, not once at each row, it is not valid to use a `VOLATILE` function in an index scan condition.)
- An `IMMUTABLE` function cannot modify the database and is guaranteed to return the same results given the same arguments forever. This category allows the optimizer to pre-evaluate the function when a query calls it with constant arguments. For example, a query like `SELECT ... WHERE x = 2 + 2` can be simplified on sight to `SELECT ... WHERE x = 4`, because the function underlying the integer addition operator is marked `IMMUTABLE`.

For best optimization results, you should label your functions with the strictest volatility category that is valid for them.

Any function with side-effects *must* be labeled `VOLATILE`, so that calls to it cannot be optimized away. Even a function with no side-effects needs to be labeled `VOLATILE` if its value can change within a single query; some examples are `random()`, `currval()`, `timeofday()`.

There is relatively little difference between `STABLE` and `IMMUTABLE` categories when considering simple interactive queries that are planned and immediately executed: it doesn't matter a lot whether a function is executed once during planning or once during query execution startup. But there is a big difference if the plan is saved and reused later. Labeling a function `IMMUTABLE` when it really isn't may allow it to be prematurely folded to a constant during planning, resulting in a stale value being re-used during subsequent uses of the plan. This is a hazard when using prepared statements or when using function languages that cache plans (such as PL/pgSQL).

Because of the snapshotting behavior of MVCC (see Chapter 12) a function containing only `SELECT` commands can safely be marked `STABLE`, even if it selects from tables that might be undergoing modifications by concurrent queries. PostgreSQL will execute a `STABLE` function using the snapshot established for the calling query, and so it will see a fixed view of the database throughout that query. Also note that the `current_timestamp` family of functions qualify as stable, since their values do not change within a transaction.

The same snapshotting behavior is used for `SELECT` commands within `IMMUTABLE` functions. It is generally unwise to select from database tables within an `IMMUTABLE` function at all, since the immutability will be broken if the table contents ever change. However, PostgreSQL does not enforce that you do not do that.

A common error is to label a function `IMMUTABLE` when its results depend on a configuration parameter. For example, a function that manipulates timestamps might well have results that depend on the timezone setting. For safety, such functions should be labeled `STABLE` instead.

Note: Before PostgreSQL release 8.0, the requirement that `STABLE` and `IMMUTABLE` functions cannot modify the database was not enforced by the system. Release 8.0 enforces it by requiring SQL functions and procedural language functions of these categories to contain no SQL commands other than `SELECT`. (This is not a completely bulletproof test, since such functions could still call `VOLATILE` functions that modify the database. If you do that, you will find that the `STABLE` or `IMMUTABLE` function does not notice the database changes applied by the called function.)

31.7. Procedural Language Functions

PostgreSQL allows user-defined functions to be written in other languages besides SQL and C. These other languages are generically called *procedural languages* (PLs). Procedural languages aren't built into the PostgreSQL server; they are offered by loadable modules. See Chapter 34 and following chapters for more information.

31.8. Internal Functions

Internal functions are functions written in C that have been statically linked into the PostgreSQL server. The “body” of the function definition specifies the C-language name of the function, which need not be the same as the name being declared for SQL use. (For reasons of backwards compatibility, an empty body is accepted as meaning that the C-language function name is the same as the SQL name.)

Normally, all internal functions present in the server are declared during the initialization of the database cluster (`initdb`), but a user could use `CREATE FUNCTION` to create additional alias names for an internal function. Internal functions are declared in `CREATE FUNCTION` with language name `internal`. For instance, to create an alias for the `sqrt` function:

```
CREATE FUNCTION square_root(double precision) RETURNS double precision
AS 'dsqrt'
LANGUAGE internal
STRICT;
```

(Most internal functions expect to be declared “strict”.)

Note: Not all “predefined” functions are “internal” in the above sense. Some predefined functions are written in SQL.

31.9. C-Language Functions

User-defined functions can be written in C (or a language that can be made compatible with C, such as C++). Such functions are compiled into dynamically loadable objects (also called shared libraries) and are loaded by the server on demand. The dynamic loading feature is what distinguishes “C language” functions from “internal” functions — the actual coding conventions are essentially the same for both. (Hence, the standard internal function library is a rich source of coding examples for user-defined C functions.)

Two different calling conventions are currently used for C functions. The newer “version 1” calling convention is indicated by writing a `PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1()` macro call for the function, as illustrated below. Lack of such a macro indicates an old-style (“version 0”) function. The language name specified in `CREATE FUNCTION` is `C` in either case. Old-style functions are now deprecated because of portability problems and lack of functionality, but they are still supported for compatibility reasons.

31.9.1. Dynamic Loading

The first time a user-defined function in a particular loadable object file is called in a session, the dynamic loader loads that object file into memory so that the function can be called. The `CREATE FUNCTION` for a user-defined C function must therefore specify two pieces of information for the function: the name of the loadable object file, and the C name (link symbol) of the specific function to call within that object file. If the C name is not explicitly specified then it is assumed to be the same as the SQL function name.

The following algorithm is used to locate the shared object file based on the name given in the `CREATE FUNCTION` command:

1. If the name is an absolute path, the given file is loaded.
2. If the name starts with the string `$libdir`, that part is replaced by the PostgreSQL package library directory name, which is determined at build time.
3. If the name does not contain a directory part, the file is searched for in the path specified by the configuration variable `dynamic_library_path`.
4. Otherwise (the file was not found in the path, or it contains a non-absolute directory part), the dynamic loader will try to take the name as given, which will most likely fail. (It is unreliable to depend on the current working directory.)

If this sequence does not work, the platform-specific shared library file name extension (often `.so`) is appended to the given name and this sequence is tried again. If that fails as well, the load will fail.

The user ID the PostgreSQL server runs as must be able to traverse the path to the file you intend to load. Making the file or a higher-level directory not readable and/or not executable by the postgres user is a common mistake.

In any case, the file name that is given in the `CREATE FUNCTION` command is recorded literally in the system catalogs, so if the file needs to be loaded again the same procedure is applied.

Note: PostgreSQL will not compile a C function automatically. The object file must be compiled before it is referenced in a `CREATE FUNCTION` command. See Section 31.9.6 for additional information.

After it is used for the first time, a dynamically loaded object file is retained in memory. Future calls in the same session to the function(s) in that file will only incur the small overhead of a symbol table lookup. If you need to force a reload of an object file, for example after recompiling it, use the `LOAD` command or begin a fresh session.

It is recommended to locate shared libraries either relative to `$libdir` or through the dynamic library path. This simplifies version upgrades if the new installation is at a different location. The actual directory that `$libdir` stands for can be found out with the command `pg_config --pkglibdir`.

Before PostgreSQL release 7.2, only exact absolute paths to object files could be specified in `CREATE FUNCTION`. This approach is now deprecated since it makes the function definition unnecessarily unportable. It's best to specify just the shared library name with no path nor extension, and let the search mechanism provide that information instead.

31.9.2. Base Types in C-Language Functions

To know how to write C-language functions, you need to know how PostgreSQL internally represents base data types and how they can be passed to and from functions. Internally, PostgreSQL regards a base type as a “blob of memory”. The user-defined functions that you define over a type in turn define the way that PostgreSQL can operate on it. That is, PostgreSQL will only store and retrieve the data from disk and use your user-defined functions to input, process, and output the data.

Base types can have one of three internal formats:

- pass by value, fixed-length
- pass by reference, fixed-length

- pass by reference, variable-length

By-value types can only be 1, 2, or 4 bytes in length (also 8 bytes, if `sizeof(Datum)` is 8 on your machine). You should be careful to define your types such that they will be the same size (in bytes) on all architectures. For example, the `long` type is dangerous because it is 4 bytes on some machines and 8 bytes on others, whereas `int` type is 4 bytes on most Unix machines. A reasonable implementation of the `int4` type on Unix machines might be:

```
/* 4-byte integer, passed by value */
typedef int int4;
```

On the other hand, fixed-length types of any size may be passed by-reference. For example, here is a sample implementation of a PostgreSQL type:

```
/* 16-byte structure, passed by reference */
typedef struct
{
    double x, y;
} Point;
```

Only pointers to such types can be used when passing them in and out of PostgreSQL functions. To return a value of such a type, allocate the right amount of memory with `palloc`, fill in the allocated memory, and return a pointer to it. (You can also return an input value that has the same type as the return value directly by returning the pointer to the input value. *Never* modify the contents of a pass-by-reference input value, however.)

Finally, all variable-length types must also be passed by reference. All variable-length types must begin with a length field of exactly 4 bytes, and all data to be stored within that type must be located in the memory immediately following that length field. The length field contains the total length of the structure, that is, it includes the size of the length field itself.

As an example, we can define the type `text` as follows:

```
typedef struct {
    int4 length;
    char data[1];
} text;
```

Obviously, the data field declared here is not long enough to hold all possible strings. Since it's impossible to declare a variable-size structure in C, we rely on the knowledge that the C compiler won't range-check array subscripts. We just allocate the necessary amount of space and then access the array as if it were declared the right length. (This is a common trick, which you can read about in many textbooks about C.)

When manipulating variable-length types, we must be careful to allocate the correct amount of memory and set the length field correctly. For example, if we wanted to store 40 bytes in a `text` structure, we might use a code fragment like this:

```
#include "postgres.h"
...
char buffer[40]; /* our source data */
...
```

```

text *destination = (text *) palloc(VARHDRSZ + 40);
destination->length = VARHDRSZ + 40;
memcpy(destination->data, buffer, 40);
...

```

VARHDRSZ is the same as `sizeof(int4)`, but it's considered good style to use the macro VARHDRSZ to refer to the size of the overhead for a variable-length type.

Table 31-1 specifies which C type corresponds to which SQL type when writing a C-language function that uses a built-in type of PostgreSQL. The “Defined In” column gives the header file that needs to be included to get the type definition. (The actual definition may be in a different file that is included by the listed file. It is recommended that users stick to the defined interface.) Note that you should always include `postgres.h` first in any source file, because it declares a number of things that you will need anyway.

Table 31-1. Equivalent C Types for Built-In SQL Types

SQL Type	C Type	Defined In
abstime	AbsoluteTime	utils/nabstime.h
boolean	bool	postgres.h (maybe compiler built-in)
box	BOX*	utils/geo_decls.h
bytea	bytea*	postgres.h
"char"	char	(compiler built-in)
character	BpChar*	postgres.h
cid	CommandId	postgres.h
date	DateADT	utils/date.h
smallint (int2)	int2 or int16	postgres.h
int2vector	int2vector*	postgres.h
integer (int4)	int4 or int32	postgres.h
real (float4)	float4*	postgres.h
double precision (float8)	float8*	postgres.h
interval	Interval*	utils/timestamp.h
lseg	LSEG*	utils/geo_decls.h
name	Name	postgres.h
oid	Oid	postgres.h
oidvector	oidvector*	postgres.h
path	PATH*	utils/geo_decls.h
point	POINT*	utils/geo_decls.h
regproc	regproc	postgres.h
reltime	RelativeTime	utils/nabstime.h
text	text*	postgres.h
tid	ItemPointer	storage/itemptr.h
time	TimeADT	utils/date.h

SQL Type	C Type	Defined In
time with time zone	TimeTzADT	utils/date.h
timestamp	Timestamp*	utils/timestamp.h
tinterval	TimeInterval	utils/nabstime.h
varchar	VarChar*	postgres.h
xid	TransactionId	postgres.h

Now that we've gone over all of the possible structures for base types, we can show some examples of real functions.

31.9.3. Calling Conventions Version 0 for C-Language Functions

We present the “old style” calling convention first — although this approach is now deprecated, it's easier to get a handle on initially. In the version-0 method, the arguments and result of the C function are just declared in normal C style, but being careful to use the C representation of each SQL data type as shown above.

Here are some examples:

```
#include "postgres.h"
#include <string.h>

/* by value */

int
add_one(int arg)
{
    return arg + 1;
}

/* by reference, fixed length */

float8 *
add_one_float8(float8 *arg)
{
    float8    *result = (float8 *) palloc(sizeof(float8));

    *result = *arg + 1.0;

    return result;
}

Point *
makepoint(Point *pointx, Point *pointy)
{
    Point    *new_point = (Point *) palloc(sizeof(Point));

    new_point->x = pointx->x;
    new_point->y = pointy->y;
}
```

```

    return new_point;
}

/* by reference, variable length */

text *
copytext(text *t)
{
    /*
     * VARSIZE is the total size of the struct in bytes.
     */
    text *new_t = (text *) palloc(VARSIZE(t));
    VARATT_SIZEP(new_t) = VARSIZE(t);
    /*
     * VARDATA is a pointer to the data region of the struct.
     */
    memcpy((void *) VARDATA(new_t), /* destination */
           (void *) VARDATA(t),     /* source */
           VARSIZE(t)-VARHDRSZ);    /* how many bytes */
    return new_t;
}

text *
concat_text(text *arg1, text *arg2)
{
    int32 new_text_size = VARSIZE(arg1) + VARSIZE(arg2) - VARHDRSZ;
    text *new_text = (text *) palloc(new_text_size);

    VARATT_SIZEP(new_text) = new_text_size;
    memcpy(VARDATA(new_text), VARDATA(arg1), VARSIZE(arg1)-VARHDRSZ);
    memcpy(VARDATA(new_text) + (VARSIZE(arg1)-VARHDRSZ),
           VARDATA(arg2), VARSIZE(arg2)-VARHDRSZ);
    return new_text;
}

```

Supposing that the above code has been prepared in file `funcs.c` and compiled into a shared object, we could define the functions to PostgreSQL with commands like this:

```

CREATE FUNCTION add_one(integer) RETURNS integer
    AS 'DIRECTORY/funcs', 'add_one'
    LANGUAGE C STRICT;

-- note overloading of SQL function name "add_one"
CREATE FUNCTION add_one(double precision) RETURNS double precision
    AS 'DIRECTORY/funcs', 'add_one_float8'
    LANGUAGE C STRICT;

CREATE FUNCTION makepoint(point, point) RETURNS point
    AS 'DIRECTORY/funcs', 'makepoint'
    LANGUAGE C STRICT;

CREATE FUNCTION copytext(text) RETURNS text

```

```

AS 'DIRECTORY/funcs', 'copytext'
LANGUAGE C STRICT;

CREATE FUNCTION concat_text(text, text) RETURNS text
AS 'DIRECTORY/funcs', 'concat_text',
LANGUAGE C STRICT;

```

Here, *DIRECTORY* stands for the directory of the shared library file (for instance the PostgreSQL tutorial directory, which contains the code for the examples used in this section). (Better style would be to use just *funcs* in the *AS* clause, after having added *DIRECTORY* to the search path. In any case, we may omit the system-specific extension for a shared library, commonly *.so* or *.sl*.)

Notice that we have specified the functions as “strict”, meaning that the system should automatically assume a null result if any input value is null. By doing this, we avoid having to check for null inputs in the function code. Without this, we’d have to check for null values explicitly, by checking for a null pointer for each pass-by-reference argument. (For pass-by-value arguments, we don’t even have a way to check!)

Although this calling convention is simple to use, it is not very portable; on some architectures there are problems with passing data types that are smaller than *int* this way. Also, there is no simple way to return a null result, nor to cope with null arguments in any way other than making the function strict. The version-1 convention, presented next, overcomes these objections.

31.9.4. Calling Conventions Version 1 for C-Language Functions

The version-1 calling convention relies on macros to suppress most of the complexity of passing arguments and results. The C declaration of a version-1 function is always

```
Datum funcname(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
```

In addition, the macro call

```
PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(funcname);
```

must appear in the same source file. (Conventionally, it’s written just before the function itself.) This macro call is not needed for *internal*-language functions, since PostgreSQL assumes that all internal functions use the version-1 convention. It is, however, required for dynamically-loaded functions.

In a version-1 function, each actual argument is fetched using a *PG_GETARG_xxx()* macro that corresponds to the argument’s data type, and the result is returned using a *PG_RETURN_xxx()* macro for the return type. *PG_GETARG_xxx()* takes as its argument the number of the function argument to fetch, where the count starts at 0. *PG_RETURN_xxx()* takes as its argument the actual value to return.

Here we show the same functions as above, coded in version-1 style:

```

#include "postgres.h"
#include <string.h>
#include "fmgr.h"

/* by value */

```

```

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(add_one);

Datum
add_one(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    int32    arg = PG_GETARG_INT32(0);

    PG_RETURN_INT32(arg + 1);
}

/* b reference, fixed length */

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(add_one_float8);

Datum
add_one_float8(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    /* The macros for FLOAT8 hide its pass-by-reference nature. */
    float8   arg = PG_GETARG_FLOAT8(0);

    PG_RETURN_FLOAT8(arg + 1.0);
}

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(makepoint);

Datum
makepoint(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    /* Here, the pass-by-reference nature of Point is not hidden. */
    Point    *pointx = PG_GETARG_POINT_P(0);
    Point    *pointy = PG_GETARG_POINT_P(1);
    Point    *new_point = (Point *) palloc(sizeof(Point));

    new_point->x = pointx->x;
    new_point->y = pointy->y;

    PG_RETURN_POINT_P(new_point);
}

/* by reference, variable length */

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(copytext);

Datum
copytext(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    text     *t = PG_GETARG_TEXT_P(0);
    /*
     * VARSIZE is the total size of the struct in bytes.
     */
    text     *new_t = (text *) palloc(VARSIZE(t));
    VARATT_SIZEP(new_t) = VARSIZE(t);
    /*

```

```

    * VARDATA is a pointer to the data region of the struct.
    */
    memcpy((void *) VARDATA(new_t), /* destination */
           (void *) VARDATA(t),    /* source */
           VARSIZE(t)-VARHDRSZ);   /* how many bytes */
    PG_RETURN_TEXT_P(new_t);
}

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(concat_text);

Datum
concat_text(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    text *arg1 = PG_GETARG_TEXT_P(0);
    text *arg2 = PG_GETARG_TEXT_P(1);
    int32 new_text_size = VARSIZE(arg1) + VARSIZE(arg2) - VARHDRSZ;
    text *new_text = (text *) palloc(new_text_size);

    VARATT_SIZEP(new_text) = new_text_size;
    memcpy(VARDATA(new_text), VARDATA(arg1), VARSIZE(arg1)-VARHDRSZ);
    memcpy(VARDATA(new_text) + (VARSIZE(arg1)-VARHDRSZ),
           VARDATA(arg2), VARSIZE(arg2)-VARHDRSZ);
    PG_RETURN_TEXT_P(new_text);
}

```

The `CREATE FUNCTION` commands are the same as for the version-0 equivalents.

At first glance, the version-1 coding conventions may appear to be just pointless obscurantism. They do, however, offer a number of improvements, because the macros can hide unnecessary detail. An example is that in coding `add_one_float8`, we no longer need to be aware that `float8` is a pass-by-reference type. Another example is that the `GETARG` macros for variable-length types allow for more efficient fetching of “toasted” (compressed or out-of-line) values.

One big improvement in version-1 functions is better handling of null inputs and results. The macro `PG_ARGISNULL(n)` allows a function to test whether each input is null. (Of course, doing this is only necessary in functions not declared “strict”.) As with the `PG_GETARG_XXX()` macros, the input arguments are counted beginning at zero. Note that one should refrain from executing `PG_GETARG_XXX()` until one has verified that the argument isn’t null. To return a null result, execute `PG_RETURN_NULL()`; this works in both strict and nonstrict functions.

Other options provided in the new-style interface are two variants of the `PG_GETARG_XXX()` macros. The first of these, `PG_GETARG_XXX_COPY()`, guarantees to return a copy of the specified argument that is safe for writing into. (The normal macros will sometimes return a pointer to a value that is physically stored in a table, which must not be written to. Using the `PG_GETARG_XXX_COPY()` macros guarantees a writable result.) The second variant consists of the `PG_GETARG_XXX_SLICE()` macros which take three arguments. The first is the number of the function argument (as above). The second and third are the offset and length of the segment to be returned. Offsets are counted from zero, and a negative length requests that the remainder of the value be returned. These macros provide more efficient access to parts of large values in the case where they have storage type “external”. (The storage type of a column can be specified using `ALTER TABLE tablename ALTER COLUMN colname SET STORAGE storagetype`. *storagetype* is one of `plain`, `external`, `extended`, or `main`.)

Finally, the version-1 function call conventions make it possible to return set results (Section 31.9.10) and implement trigger functions (Chapter 32) and procedural-language call handlers (Chapter 45). Version-1 code is also more portable than version-0, because it does not break restrictions on function call protocol in the C standard. For more details see `src/backend/utils/fmgr/README` in the source distribution.

31.9.5. Writing Code

Before we turn to the more advanced topics, we should discuss some coding rules for PostgreSQL C-language functions. While it may be possible to load functions written in languages other than C into PostgreSQL, this is usually difficult (when it is possible at all) because other languages, such as C++, FORTRAN, or Pascal often do not follow the same calling convention as C. That is, other languages do not pass argument and return values between functions in the same way. For this reason, we will assume that your C-language functions are actually written in C.

The basic rules for writing and building C functions are as follows:

- Use `pg_config --includedir-server` to find out where the PostgreSQL server header files are installed on your system (or the system that your users will be running on). This option is new with PostgreSQL 7.2. For PostgreSQL 7.1 you should use the option `--includedir`. (`pg_config` will exit with a non-zero status if it encounters an unknown option.) For releases prior to 7.1 you will have to guess, but since that was before the current calling conventions were introduced, it is unlikely that you want to support those releases.
- When allocating memory, use the PostgreSQL functions `palloc` and `pfree` instead of the corresponding C library functions `malloc` and `free`. The memory allocated by `palloc` will be freed automatically at the end of each transaction, preventing memory leaks.
- Always zero the bytes of your structures using `memset`. Without this, it's difficult to support hash indexes or hash joins, as you must pick out only the significant bits of your data structure to compute a hash. Even if you initialize all fields of your structure, there may be alignment padding (holes in the structure) that may contain garbage values.
- Most of the internal PostgreSQL types are declared in `postgres.h`, while the function manager interfaces (`PG_FUNCTION_ARGS`, etc.) are in `fmgr.h`, so you will need to include at least these two files. For portability reasons it's best to include `postgres.h` *first*, before any other system or user header files. Including `postgres.h` will also include `eelog.h` and `palloc.h` for you.
- Symbol names defined within object files must not conflict with each other or with symbols defined in the PostgreSQL server executable. You will have to rename your functions or variables if you get error messages to this effect.
- Compiling and linking your code so that it can be dynamically loaded into PostgreSQL always requires special flags. See Section 31.9.6 for a detailed explanation of how to do it for your particular operating system.

31.9.6. Compiling and Linking Dynamically-Loaded Functions

Before you are able to use your PostgreSQL extension functions written in C, they must be compiled and linked in a special way to produce a file that can be dynamically loaded by the server. To be precise, a

shared library needs to be created.

For information beyond what is contained in this section you should read the documentation of your operating system, in particular the manual pages for the C compiler, `cc`, and the link editor, `ld`. In addition, the PostgreSQL source code contains several working examples in the `contrib` directory. If you rely on these examples you will make your modules dependent on the availability of the PostgreSQL source code, however.

Creating shared libraries is generally analogous to linking executables: first the source files are compiled into object files, then the object files are linked together. The object files need to be created as *position-independent code* (PIC), which conceptually means that they can be placed at an arbitrary location in memory when they are loaded by the executable. (Object files intended for executables are usually not compiled that way.) The command to link a shared library contains special flags to distinguish it from linking an executable (at least in theory — on some systems the practice is much uglier).

In the following examples we assume that your source code is in a file `foo.c` and we will create a shared library `foo.so`. The intermediate object file will be called `foo.o` unless otherwise noted. A shared library can contain more than one object file, but we only use one here.

BSD/OS

The compiler flag to create PIC is `-fpic`. The linker flag to create shared libraries is `-shared`.

```
gcc -fpic -c foo.c
ld -shared -o foo.so foo.o
```

This is applicable as of version 4.0 of BSD/OS.

FreeBSD

The compiler flag to create PIC is `-fpic`. To create shared libraries the compiler flag is `-shared`.

```
gcc -fpic -c foo.c
gcc -shared -o foo.so foo.o
```

This is applicable as of version 3.0 of FreeBSD.

HP-UX

The compiler flag of the system compiler to create PIC is `+z`. When using GCC it's `-fpic`. The linker flag for shared libraries is `-b`. So

```
cc +z -c foo.c
```

or

```
gcc -fpic -c foo.c
```

and then

```
ld -b -o foo.sl foo.o
```

HP-UX uses the extension `.sl` for shared libraries, unlike most other systems.

IRIX

PIC is the default, no special compiler options are necessary. The linker option to produce shared libraries is `-shared`.

```
cc -c foo.c
ld -shared -o foo.so foo.o
```

Linux

The compiler flag to create PIC is `-fpic`. On some platforms in some situations `-fPIC` must be used if `-fpic` does not work. Refer to the GCC manual for more information. The compiler flag to create a shared library is `-shared`. A complete example looks like this:

```
cc -fpic -c foo.c
cc -shared -o foo.so foo.o
```

MacOS X

Here is an example. It assumes the developer tools are installed.

```
cc -c foo.c
cc -bundle -flat_namespace -undefined suppress -o foo.so foo.o
```

NetBSD

The compiler flag to create PIC is `-fpic`. For ELF systems, the compiler with the flag `-shared` is used to link shared libraries. On the older non-ELF systems, `ld -Bshareable` is used.

```
gcc -fpic -c foo.c
gcc -shared -o foo.so foo.o
```

OpenBSD

The compiler flag to create PIC is `-fpic`. `ld -Bshareable` is used to link shared libraries.

```
gcc -fpic -c foo.c
ld -Bshareable -o foo.so foo.o
```

Solaris

The compiler flag to create PIC is `-KPIC` with the Sun compiler and `-fpic` with GCC. To link shared libraries, the compiler option is `-G` with either compiler or alternatively `-shared` with GCC.

```
cc -KPIC -c foo.c
cc -G -o foo.so foo.o
```

or

```
gcc -fpic -c foo.c
gcc -G -o foo.so foo.o
```

Tru64 UNIX

PIC is the default, so the compilation command is the usual one. `ld` with special options is used to do the linking:

```
cc -c foo.c
ld -shared -expect_unresolved '*' -o foo.so foo.o
```

The same procedure is used with GCC instead of the system compiler; no special options are required.

UnixWare

The compiler flag to create PIC is `-K PIC` with the SCO compiler and `-fpic` with GCC. To link shared libraries, the compiler option is `-G` with the SCO compiler and `-shared` with GCC.

```
cc -K PIC -c foo.c
cc -G -o foo.so foo.o
```

or

```
gcc -fpic -c foo.c
gcc -shared -o foo.so foo.o
```

Tip: If this is too complicated for you, you should consider using GNU Libtool¹, which hides the platform differences behind a uniform interface.

The resulting shared library file can then be loaded into PostgreSQL. When specifying the file name to the `CREATE FUNCTION` command, one must give it the name of the shared library file, not the intermediate object file. Note that the system's standard shared-library extension (usually `.so` or `.sl`) can be omitted from the `CREATE FUNCTION` command, and normally should be omitted for best portability.

Refer back to Section 31.9.1 about where the server expects to find the shared library files.

31.9.7. Extension Building Infrastructure

If you are thinking about distributing your PostgreSQL extension modules, setting up a portable build system for them can be fairly difficult. Therefore the PostgreSQL installation provides a build infrastructure for extensions, called PGXS, so that simple extension modules can be built simply against an already installed server. Note that this infrastructure is not intended to be a universal build system framework that can be used to build all software interfacing to PostgreSQL; it simply automates common build rules for simple server extension modules. For more complicated packages, you need to write your own build system.

To use the infrastructure for your extension, you must write a simple makefile. In that makefile, you need to set some variables and finally include the global PGXS makefile. Here is an example that builds an extension module named `isbn_issn` consisting of a shared library, an SQL script, and a documentation text file:

```
MODULES = isbn_issn
DATA_built = isbn_issn.sql
DOCS = README.isbn_issn

PGXS := $(shell pg_config --pgxs)
include $(PGXS)
```

1. <http://www.gnu.org/software/libtool/>

The last two lines should always be the same. Earlier in the file, you assign variables or add custom make rules.

The following variables can be set:

MODULES

list of shared objects to be build from source file with same stem (do not include suffix in this list)

DATA

random files to install into *prefix/share/contrib*

DATA_built

random files to install into *prefix/share/contrib*, which need to be built first

DOCS

random files to install under *prefix/doc/contrib*

SCRIPTS

script files (not binaries) to install into *prefix/bin*

SCRIPTS_built

script files (not binaries) to install into *prefix/bin*, which need to be built first

REGRESS

list of regression test cases (without suffix)

or at most one of these two:

PROGRAM

a binary program to build (list objects files in OBJS)

MODULE_big

a shared object to build (list object files in OBJS)

The following can also be set:

EXTRA_CLEAN

extra files to remove in make clean

PG_CPPFLAGS

will be added to CPPFLAGS

PG_LIBS

will be added to PROGRAM link line

SHLIB_LINK

will be added to MODULE_big link line

Put this makefile as `Makefile` in the directory which holds your extension. Then you can do `make` to compile, and later `make install` to install your module. The extension is compiled and installed for the PostgreSQL installation that corresponds to the first `pg_config` command found in your path.

31.9.8. Composite-Type Arguments in C-Language Functions

Composite types do not have a fixed layout like C structures. Instances of a composite type may contain null fields. In addition, composite types that are part of an inheritance hierarchy may have different fields than other members of the same inheritance hierarchy. Therefore, PostgreSQL provides a function interface for accessing fields of composite types from C.

Suppose we want to write a function to answer the query

```
SELECT name, c_overpaid(emp, 1500) AS overpaid
FROM emp
WHERE name = 'Bill' OR name = 'Sam';
```

Using call conventions version 0, we can define `c_overpaid` as:

```
#include "postgres.h"
#include "executor/executor.h" /* for GetAttributeByName() */

bool
c_overpaid(HeapTupleHeader t, /* the current row of emp */
           int32 limit)
{
    bool isnull;
    int32 salary;

    salary = DatumGetInt32(GetAttributeByName(t, "salary", &isnull));
    if (isnull)
        return false;
    return salary > limit;
}
```

In version-1 coding, the above would look like this:

```
#include "postgres.h"
#include "executor/executor.h" /* for GetAttributeByName() */

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(c_overpaid);

Datum
c_overpaid(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    HeapTupleHeader t = PG_GETARG_HEAPTUPLEHEADER(0);
    int32 limit = PG_GETARG_INT32(1);
    bool isnull;
    Datum salary;

    salary = GetAttributeByName(t, "salary", &isnull);
    if (isnull)
```

```

        PG_RETURN_BOOL(false);
    /* Alternatively, we might prefer to do PG_RETURN_NULL() for null salary. */
    PG_RETURN_BOOL(DatumGetInt32(salary) > limit);
}

```

`GetAttributeByName` is the PostgreSQL system function that returns attributes out of the specified row. It has three arguments: the argument of type `HeapTupleHeader` passed into the function, the name of the desired attribute, and a return parameter that tells whether the attribute is null. `GetAttributeByName` returns a `Datum` value that you can convert to the proper data type by using the appropriate `DatumGetXXX()` macro. Note that the return value is meaningless if the null flag is set; always check the null flag before trying to do anything with the result.

There is also `GetAttributeByNum`, which selects the target attribute by column number instead of name.

The following command declares the function `c_overpaid` in SQL:

```

CREATE FUNCTION c_overpaid(emp, integer) RETURNS boolean
AS 'DIRECTORY/funcs', 'c_overpaid'
LANGUAGE C STRICT;

```

Notice we have used `STRICT` so that we did not have to check whether the input arguments were `NULL`.

31.9.9. Returning Rows (Composite Types) from C-Language Functions

To return a row or composite-type value from a C-language function, you can use a special API that provides macros and functions to hide most of the complexity of building composite data types. To use this API, the source file must include:

```

#include "funcapi.h"

```

There are two ways you can build a composite data value (henceforth a “tuple”): you can build it from an array of `Datum` values, or from an array of C strings that can be passed to the input conversion functions of the tuple’s column data types. In either case, you first need to obtain or construct a `TupleDesc` descriptor for the tuple structure. When working with `Datums`, you pass the `TupleDesc` to `BlessTupleDesc`, and then call `heap_formtuple` for each row. When working with C strings, you pass the `TupleDesc` to `TupleDescGetAttInMetadata`, and then call `BuildTupleFromCStrings` for each row. In the case of a function returning a set of tuples, the setup steps can all be done once during the first call of the function.

Several helper functions are available for setting up the initial `TupleDesc`. If you want to use a named composite type, you can fetch the information from the system catalogs. Use

```

TupleDesc RelationNameGetTupleDesc(const char *relname)

```

to get a `TupleDesc` for a named relation, or

```

TupleDesc TypeGetTupleDesc(Oid typeoid, List *colaliases)

```

to get a `TupleDesc` based on a type `OID`. This can be used to get a `TupleDesc` for a base or composite type. When writing a function that returns `record`, the expected `TupleDesc` must be passed in by the caller.

Once you have a `TupleDesc`, call

```
TupleDesc BlessTupleDesc(TupleDesc tupdesc)
```

if you plan to work with `Datums`, or

```
AttInMetadata *TupleDescGetAttInMetadata(TupleDesc tupdesc)
```

if you plan to work with C strings. If you are writing a function returning set, you can save the results of these functions in the `FuncCallContext` structure — use the `tuple_desc` or `attinmeta` field respectively.

When working with `Datums`, use

```
HeapTuple heap_formtuple(TupleDesc tupdesc, Datum *values, char *nulls)
```

to build a `HeapTuple` given user data in `Datum` form.

When working with C strings, use

```
HeapTuple BuildTupleFromCStrings(AttInMetadata *attinmeta, char **values)
```

to build a `HeapTuple` given user data in C string form. `values` is an array of C strings, one for each attribute of the return row. Each C string should be in the form expected by the input function of the attribute data type. In order to return a null value for one of the attributes, the corresponding pointer in the `values` array should be set to `NULL`. This function will need to be called again for each row you return.

Once you have built a tuple to return from your function, it must be converted into a `Datum`. Use

```
HeapTupleGetDatum(HeapTuple tuple)
```

to convert a `HeapTuple` into a valid `Datum`. This `Datum` can be returned directly if you intend to return just a single row, or it can be used as the current return value in a set-returning function.

An example appears in the next section.

31.9.10. Returning Sets from C-Language Functions

There is also a special API that provides support for returning sets (multiple rows) from a C-language function. A set-returning function must follow the version-1 calling conventions. Also, source files must include `funcapi.h`, as above.

A set-returning function (SRF) is called once for each item it returns. The SRF must therefore save enough state to remember what it was doing and return the next item on each call. The structure `FuncCallContext` is provided to help control this process. Within a function, `fcinfo->flinfo->fn_extra` is used to hold a pointer to `FuncCallContext` across calls.

```
typedef struct
{
    /*
```

```

* Number of times we've been called before
*
* call_cntr is initialized to 0 for you by SRF_FIRSTCALL_INIT(), and
* incremented for you every time SRF_RETURN_NEXT() is called.
*/
uint32 call_cntr;

/*
* OPTIONAL maximum number of calls
*
* max_calls is here for convenience only and setting it is optional.
* If not set, you must provide alternative means to know when the
* function is done.
*/
uint32 max_calls;

/*
* OPTIONAL pointer to result slot
*
* This is obsolete and only present for backwards compatibility, viz,
* user-defined SRFs that use the deprecated TupleDescGetSlot().
*/
TupleTableSlot *slot;

/*
* OPTIONAL pointer to miscellaneous user-provided context information
*
* user_fctx is for use as a pointer to your own data to retain
* arbitrary context information between calls of your function.
*/
void *user_fctx;

/*
* OPTIONAL pointer to struct containing attribute type input metadata
*
* attinmeta is for use when returning tuples (i.e., composite data types)
* and is not used when returning base data types. It is only needed
* if you intend to use BuildTupleFromCStrings() to create the return
* tuple.
*/
AttInMetadata *attinmeta;

/*
* memory context used for structures that must live for multiple calls
*
* multi_call_memory_ctx is set by SRF_FIRSTCALL_INIT() for you, and used
* by SRF_RETURN_DONE() for cleanup. It is the most appropriate memory
* context for any memory that is to be reused across multiple calls
* of the SRF.
*/
MemoryContext multi_call_memory_ctx;

/*

```

```

    * OPTIONAL pointer to struct containing tuple description
    *
    * tuple_desc is for use when returning tuples (i.e. composite data types)
    * and is only needed if you are going to build the tuples with
    * heap_formtuple() rather than with BuildTupleFromCStrings(). Note that
    * the TupleDesc pointer stored here should usually have been run through
    * BlessTupleDesc() first.
    */
    TupleDesc tuple_desc;

} FuncCallContext;

```

An SRF uses several functions and macros that automatically manipulate the `FuncCallContext` structure (and expect to find it via `fn_extra`). Use

```
SRF_IS_FIRSTCALL()
```

to determine if your function is being called for the first or a subsequent time. On the first call (only) use

```
SRF_FIRSTCALL_INIT()
```

to initialize the `FuncCallContext`. On every function call, including the first, use

```
SRF_PERCALL_SETUP()
```

to properly set up for using the `FuncCallContext` and clearing any previously returned data left over from the previous pass.

If your function has data to return, use

```
SRF_RETURN_NEXT(funcctx, result)
```

to return it to the caller. (`result` must be of type `Datum`, either a single value or a tuple prepared as described above.) Finally, when your function is finished returning data, use

```
SRF_RETURN_DONE(funcctx)
```

to clean up and end the SRF.

The memory context that is current when the SRF is called is a transient context that will be cleared between calls. This means that you do not need to call `pfree` on everything you allocated using `palloc`; it will go away anyway. However, if you want to allocate any data structures to live across calls, you need to put them somewhere else. The memory context referenced by `multi_call_memory_ctx` is a suitable location for any data that needs to survive until the SRF is finished running. In most cases, this means that you should switch into `multi_call_memory_ctx` while doing the first-call setup.

A complete pseudo-code example looks like the following:

```

Datum
my_set_returning_function(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    FuncCallContext *funcctx;
    Datum            result;

```

```

MemoryContext    oldcontext;
further declarations as needed

if (SRF_IS_FIRSTCALL())
{
    funcctx = SRF_FIRSTCALL_INIT();
    oldcontext = MemoryContextSwitchTo(funcctx->multi_call_memory_ctx);
    /* One-time setup code appears here: */
    user code
    if returning composite
        build TupleDesc, and perhaps AttInMetadata
    endif returning composite
    user code
    MemoryContextSwitchTo(oldcontext);
}

/* Each-time setup code appears here: */
user code
funcctx = SRF_PERCALL_SETUP();
user code

/* this is just one way we might test whether we are done: */
if (funcctx->call_cntr < funcctx->max_calls)
{
    /* Here we want to return another item: */
    user code
    obtain result Datum
    SRF_RETURN_NEXT(funcctx, result);
}
else
{
    /* Here we are done returning items and just need to clean up: */
    user code
    SRF_RETURN_DONE(funcctx);
}
}

```

A complete example of a simple SRF returning a composite type looks like:

```

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(testpassbyval);

Datum
testpassbyval(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    FuncCallContext    *funcctx;
    int                 call_cntr;
    int                 max_calls;
    TupleDesc           tupdesc;
    AttInMetadata       *attinmeta;

    /* stuff done only on the first call of the function */
    if (SRF_IS_FIRSTCALL())

```

```

{
    MemoryContext    oldcontext;

    /* create a function context for cross-call persistence */
    funcctx = SRF_FIRSTCALL_INIT();

    /* switch to memory context appropriate for multiple function calls */
    oldcontext = MemoryContextSwitchTo(funcctx->multi_call_memory_ctx);

    /* total number of tuples to be returned */
    funcctx->max_calls = PG_GETARG_UINT32(0);

    /* Build a tuple description for a __testpassbyval tuple */
    tupdesc = RelationNameGetTupleDesc("__testpassbyval");

    /*
     * generate attribute metadata needed later to produce tuples from raw
     * C strings
     */
    attinmeta = TupleDescGetAttInMetadata(tupdesc);
    funcctx->attinmeta = attinmeta;

    MemoryContextSwitchTo(oldcontext);
}

/* stuff done on every call of the function */
funcctx = SRF_PERCALL_SETUP();

call_cntr = funcctx->call_cntr;
max_calls = funcctx->max_calls;
attinmeta = funcctx->attinmeta;

if (call_cntr < max_calls)    /* do when there is more left to send */
{
    char            **values;
    HeapTuple       tuple;
    Datum           result;

    /*
     * Prepare a values array for building the returned tuple.
     * This should be an array of C strings which will
     * be processed later by the type input functions.
     */
    values = (char **) palloc(3 * sizeof(char *));
    values[0] = (char *) palloc(16 * sizeof(char));
    values[1] = (char *) palloc(16 * sizeof(char));
    values[2] = (char *) palloc(16 * sizeof(char));

    snprintf(values[0], 16, "%d", 1 * PG_GETARG_INT32(1));
    snprintf(values[1], 16, "%d", 2 * PG_GETARG_INT32(1));
    snprintf(values[2], 16, "%d", 3 * PG_GETARG_INT32(1));

    /* build a tuple */

```

```

tuple = BuildTupleFromCStrings(atts, values);

/* make the tuple into a datum */
result = HeapTupleGetDatum(tuple);

/* clean up (this is not really necessary) */
pfree(values[0]);
pfree(values[1]);
pfree(values[2]);
pfree(values);

SRF_RETURN_NEXT(funcctx, result);
}
else /* do when there is no more left */
{
    SRF_RETURN_DONE(funcctx);
}
}

```

The SQL code to declare this function is:

```

CREATE TYPE __testpassbyval AS (f1 integer, f2 integer, f3 integer);

CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION testpassbyval(integer, integer) RETURNS SETOF __testpassbyval
AS 'filename', 'testpassbyval'
LANGUAGE C IMMUTABLE STRICT;

```

The directory `contrib/tablefunc` in the source distribution contains more examples of set-returning functions.

31.9.11. Polymorphic Arguments and Return Types

C-language functions may be declared to accept and return the polymorphic types `anyelement` and `anyarray`. See Section 31.2.5 for a more detailed explanation of polymorphic functions. When function arguments or return types are defined as polymorphic types, the function author cannot know in advance what data type it will be called with, or need to return. There are two routines provided in `fmgr.h` to allow a version-1 C function to discover the actual data types of its arguments and the type it is expected to return. The routines are called `get_fn_expr_rettype(FmgrInfo *flinfo)` and `get_fn_expr_argtype(FmgrInfo *flinfo, int argnum)`. They return the result or argument type OID, or `InvalidOid` if the information is not available. The structure `flinfo` is normally accessed as `fcinfo->flinfo`. The parameter `argnum` is zero based.

For example, suppose we want to write a function to accept a single element of any type, and return a one-dimensional array of that type:

```

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(make_array);
Datum
make_array(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    ArrayType *result;

```

```

Oid          element_type = get_fn_expr_argtype(fcinfo->flinfo, 0);
Datum        element;
int16        typlen;
bool         typbyval;
char         typalign;
int          ndims;
int          dims[MAXDIM];
int          lbs[MAXDIM];

if (!OidIsValid(element_type))
    elog(ERROR, "could not determine data type of input");

/* get the provided element */
element = PG_GETARG_DATUM(0);

/* we have one dimension */
ndims = 1;
/* and one element */
dims[0] = 1;
/* and lower bound is 1 */
lbs[0] = 1;

/* get required info about the element type */
get_typlenbyvalalign(element_type, &typlen, &typbyval, &typalign);

/* now build the array */
result = construct_md_array(&element, ndims, dims, lbs,
                           element_type, typlen, typbyval, typalign);

PG_RETURN_ARRAYTYPE_P(result);
}

```

The following command declares the function `make_array` in SQL:

```

CREATE FUNCTION make_array(anyelement) RETURNS anyarray
AS 'DIRECTORY/funcs', 'make_array'
LANGUAGE C STRICT;

```

Note the use of `STRICT`; this is essential since the code is not bothering to test for a null input.

31.10. User-Defined Aggregates

Aggregate functions in PostgreSQL are expressed as *state values* and *state transition functions*. That is, an aggregate can be defined in terms of state that is modified whenever an input item is processed. To define a new aggregate function, one selects a data type for the state value, an initial value for the state, and a state transition function. The state transition function is just an ordinary function that could also be used outside the context of the aggregate. A *final function* can also be specified, in case the desired result of the aggregate is different from the data that needs to be kept in the running state value.

Thus, in addition to the argument and result data types seen by a user of the aggregate, there is an internal state-value data type that may be different from both the argument and result types.

If we define an aggregate that does not use a final function, we have an aggregate that computes a running function of the column values from each row. `sum` is an example of this kind of aggregate. `sum` starts at zero and always adds the current row's value to its running total. For example, if we want to make a `sum` aggregate to work on a data type for complex numbers, we only need the addition function for that data type. The aggregate definition would be:

```
CREATE AGGREGATE complex_sum (
    sfunc = complex_add,
    basetype = complex,
    stype = complex,
    initcond = '(0,0)'
);

SELECT complex_sum(a) FROM test_complex;

complex_sum
-----
(34,53.9)
```

(In practice, we'd just name the aggregate `sum` and rely on PostgreSQL to figure out which kind of sum to apply to a column of type `complex`.)

The above definition of `sum` will return zero (the initial state condition) if there are no nonnull input values. Perhaps we want to return null in that case instead — the SQL standard expects `sum` to behave that way. We can do this simply by omitting the `initcond` phrase, so that the initial state condition is null. Ordinarily this would mean that the `sfunc` would need to check for a null state-condition input, but for `sum` and some other simple aggregates like `max` and `min`, it is sufficient to insert the first nonnull input value into the state variable and then start applying the transition function at the second nonnull input value. PostgreSQL will do that automatically if the initial condition is null and the transition function is marked “strict” (i.e., not to be called for null inputs).

Another bit of default behavior for a “strict” transition function is that the previous state value is retained unchanged whenever a null input value is encountered. Thus, null values are ignored. If you need some other behavior for null inputs, just do not define your transition function as strict, and code it to test for null inputs and do whatever is needed.

`avg` (average) is a more complex example of an aggregate. It requires two pieces of running state: the sum of the inputs and the count of the number of inputs. The final result is obtained by dividing these quantities. Average is typically implemented by using a two-element array as the state value. For example, the built-in implementation of `avg(float8)` looks like:

```
CREATE AGGREGATE avg (
    sfunc = float8_accum,
    basetype = float8,
    stype = float8[],
    finalfunc = float8_avg,
    initcond = '{0,0}'
);
```

Aggregate functions may use polymorphic state transition functions or final functions, so that the same functions can be used to implement multiple aggregates. See Section 31.2.5 for an explanation of polymorphic functions. Going a step further, the aggregate function itself may be specified with a polymorphic base type and state type, allowing a single aggregate definition to serve for multiple input data types. Here is an example of a polymorphic aggregate:

```
CREATE AGGREGATE array_accum (
    sfunc = array_append,
    basetype = anyelement,
    stype = anyarray,
    initcond = '{}')
);
```

Here, the actual state type for any aggregate call is the array type having the actual input type as elements.

Here's the output using two different actual data types as arguments:

```
SELECT attrelid::regclass, array_accum(attname)
   FROM pg_attribute
   WHERE attnum > 0 AND attrelid = 'pg_user'::regclass
   GROUP BY attrelid;
```

```
attrelid | array_accum
-----+-----
pg_user | {username,usesysid,usecreatedb,usesuper,usecatupd,passwd,valuntil,useconfig}
(1 row)
```

```
SELECT attrelid::regclass, array_accum(atttypid)
   FROM pg_attribute
   WHERE attnum > 0 AND attrelid = 'pg_user'::regclass
   GROUP BY attrelid;
```

```
attrelid | array_accum
-----+-----
pg_user | {19,23,16,16,16,25,702,1009}
(1 row)
```

For further details see the *CREATE AGGREGATE* command.

31.11. User-Defined Types

As described in Section 31.2, PostgreSQL can be extended to support new data types. This section describes how to define new base types, which are data types defined below the level of the SQL language. Creating a new base type requires implementing functions to operate on the type in a low-level language, usually C.

The examples in this section can be found in `complex.sql` and `complex.c` in the `src/tutorial` directory of the source distribution. See the `README` file in that directory for instructions about running the examples.

A user-defined type must always have input and output functions. These functions determine how the type appears in strings (for input by the user and output to the user) and how the type is organized in memory. The input function takes a null-terminated character string as its argument and returns the internal (in memory) representation of the type. The output function takes the internal representation of the type as argument and returns a null-terminated character string. If we want to do anything more with the type than merely store it, we must provide additional functions to implement whatever operations we'd like to have for the type.

Suppose we want to define a type `complex` that represents complex numbers. A natural way to represent a complex number in memory would be the following C structure:

```
typedef struct Complex {
    double    x;
    double    y;
} Complex;
```

We will need to make this a pass-by-reference type, since it's too large to fit into a single `Datum` value.

As the external string representation of the type, we choose a string of the form `(x,y)`.

The input and output functions are usually not hard to write, especially the output function. But when defining the external string representation of the type, remember that you must eventually write a complete and robust parser for that representation as your input function. For instance:

```
PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(complex_in);

Datum
complex_in(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    char        *str = PG_GETARG_CSTRING(0);
    double      x,
               y;
    Complex     *result;

    if (sscanf(str, " ( %lf , %lf )", &x, &y) != 2)
        ereport(ERROR,
                (errcode(ERRCODE_INVALID_TEXT_REPRESENTATION),
                 errmsg("invalid input syntax for complex: \"%s\"",
                        str)));

    result = (Complex *) palloc(sizeof(Complex));
    result->x = x;
    result->y = y;
    PG_RETURN_POINTER(result);
}
```

The output function can simply be:

```
PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(complex_out);

Datum
complex_out(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    Complex     *complex = (Complex *) PG_GETARG_POINTER(0);
```

```

char      *result;

result = (char *) palloc(100);
snprintf(result, 100, "(%g,%g)", complex->x, complex->y);
PG_RETURN_CSTRING(result);
}

```

You should be careful to make the input and output functions inverses of each other. If you do not, you will have severe problems when you need to dump your data into a file and then read it back in. This is a particularly common problem when floating-point numbers are involved.

Optionally, a user-defined type can provide binary input and output routines. Binary I/O is normally faster but less portable than textual I/O. As with textual I/O, it is up to you to define exactly what the external binary representation is. Most of the built-in data types try to provide a machine-independent binary representation. For `complex`, we will piggy-back on the binary I/O converters for type `float8`:

```

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(complex_recv);

Datum
complex_recv(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    StringInfo buf = (StringInfo) PG_GETARG_POINTER(0);
    Complex    *result;

    result = (Complex *) palloc(sizeof(Complex));
    result->x = pq_getmsgfloat8(buf);
    result->y = pq_getmsgfloat8(buf);
    PG_RETURN_POINTER(result);
}

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(complex_send);

Datum
complex_send(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    Complex    *complex = (Complex *) PG_GETARG_POINTER(0);
    StringInfoData buf;

    pq_begintypsend(&buf);
    pq_sendfloat8(&buf, complex->x);
    pq_sendfloat8(&buf, complex->y);
    PG_RETURN_BYTEA_P(pq_endtypsend(&buf));
}

```

To define the `complex` type, we need to create the user-defined I/O functions before creating the type:

```

CREATE FUNCTION complex_in(cstring)
    RETURNS complex
    AS 'filename'
    LANGUAGE C IMMUTABLE STRICT;

```

```

CREATE FUNCTION complex_out(complex)
    RETURNScstring
    AS 'filename'
    LANGUAGE C IMMUTABLE STRICT;

CREATE FUNCTION complex_recv(internal)
    RETURNScomplex
    AS 'filename'
    LANGUAGE C IMMUTABLE STRICT;

CREATE FUNCTION complex_send(complex)
    RETURNSbytea
    AS 'filename'
    LANGUAGE C IMMUTABLE STRICT;

```

Notice that the declarations of the input and output functions must reference the not-yet-defined type. This is allowed, but will draw warning messages that may be ignored. The input function must appear first.

Finally, we can declare the data type:

```

CREATE TYPE complex (
    internallength = 16,
    input = complex_in,
    output = complex_out,
    receive = complex_recv,
    send = complex_send,
    alignment = double
);

```

When you define a new base type, PostgreSQL automatically provides support for arrays of that type. For historical reasons, the array type has the same name as the base type with the underscore character (`_`) prepended.

Once the data type exists, we can declare additional functions to provide useful operations on the data type. Operators can then be defined atop the functions, and if needed, operator classes can be created to support indexing of the data type. These additional layers are discussed in following sections.

If the values of your data type might exceed a few hundred bytes in size (in internal form), you should make the data type TOAST-able (see Section 49.2). To do this, the internal representation must follow the standard layout for variable-length data: the first four bytes must be an `int32` containing the total length in bytes of the datum (including itself). The C functions operating on the data type must be careful to unpack any toasted values they are handed, by using `PG_DETOAST_DATUM`. (This detail is customarily hidden by defining type-specific `GETARG` macros.) Then, when running the `CREATE TYPE` command, specify the internal length as `variable` and select the appropriate storage option.

For further details see the description of the `CREATE TYPE` command.

31.12. User-Defined Operators

Every operator is “syntactic sugar” for a call to an underlying function that does the real work; so you must first create the underlying function before you can create the operator. However, an operator is *not merely* syntactic sugar, because it carries additional information that helps the query planner optimize queries that use the operator. The next section will be devoted to explaining that additional information.

PostgreSQL supports left unary, right unary, and binary operators. Operators can be overloaded; that is, the same operator name can be used for different operators that have different numbers and types of operands. When a query is executed, the system determines the operator to call from the number and types of the provided operands.

Here is an example of creating an operator for adding two complex numbers. We assume we’ve already created the definition of type `complex` (see Section 31.11). First we need a function that does the work, then we can define the operator:

```
CREATE FUNCTION complex_add(complex, complex)
    RETURNS complex
    AS 'filename', 'complex_add'
    LANGUAGE C IMMUTABLE STRICT;

CREATE OPERATOR + (
    leftarg = complex,
    rightarg = complex,
    procedure = complex_add,
    commutator = +
);
```

Now we could execute a query like this:

```
SELECT (a + b) AS c FROM test_complex;

      c
-----
(5.2,6.05)
(133.42,144.95)
```

We’ve shown how to create a binary operator here. To create unary operators, just omit one of `leftarg` (for left unary) or `rightarg` (for right unary). The `procedure` clause and the argument clauses are the only required items in `CREATE OPERATOR`. The `commutator` clause shown in the example is an optional hint to the query optimizer. Further details about `commutator` and other optimizer hints appear in the next section.

31.13. Operator Optimization Information

A PostgreSQL operator definition can include several optional clauses that tell the system useful things about how the operator behaves. These clauses should be provided whenever appropriate, because they can make for considerable speedups in execution of queries that use the operator. But if you provide them,

you must be sure that they are right! Incorrect use of an optimization clause can result in server process crashes, subtly wrong output, or other Bad Things. You can always leave out an optimization clause if you are not sure about it; the only consequence is that queries might run slower than they need to.

Additional optimization clauses might be added in future versions of PostgreSQL. The ones described here are all the ones that release 8.0.0 understands.

31.13.1. COMMUTATOR

The `COMMUTATOR` clause, if provided, names an operator that is the commutator of the operator being defined. We say that operator *A* is the commutator of operator *B* if $(x \ A \ y)$ equals $(y \ B \ x)$ for all possible input values *x*, *y*. Notice that *B* is also the commutator of *A*. For example, operators `<` and `>` for a particular data type are usually each others' commutators, and operator `+` is usually commutative with itself. But operator `-` is usually not commutative with anything.

The left operand type of a commutable operator is the same as the right operand type of its commutator, and vice versa. So the name of the commutator operator is all that PostgreSQL needs to be given to look up the commutator, and that's all that needs to be provided in the `COMMUTATOR` clause.

It's critical to provide commutator information for operators that will be used in indexes and join clauses, because this allows the query optimizer to "flip around" such a clause to the forms needed for different plan types. For example, consider a query with a `WHERE` clause like `tab1.x = tab2.y`, where `tab1.x` and `tab2.y` are of a user-defined type, and suppose that `tab2.y` is indexed. The optimizer cannot generate an index scan unless it can determine how to flip the clause around to `tab2.y = tab1.x`, because the index-scan machinery expects to see the indexed column on the left of the operator it is given. PostgreSQL will *not* simply assume that this is a valid transformation — the creator of the `=` operator must specify that it is valid, by marking the operator with commutator information.

When you are defining a self-commutative operator, you just do it. When you are defining a pair of commutative operators, things are a little trickier: how can the first one to be defined refer to the other one, which you haven't defined yet? There are two solutions to this problem:

- One way is to omit the `COMMUTATOR` clause in the first operator that you define, and then provide one in the second operator's definition. Since PostgreSQL knows that commutative operators come in pairs, when it sees the second definition it will automatically go back and fill in the missing `COMMUTATOR` clause in the first definition.
- The other, more straightforward way is just to include `COMMUTATOR` clauses in both definitions. When PostgreSQL processes the first definition and realizes that `COMMUTATOR` refers to a nonexistent operator, the system will make a dummy entry for that operator in the system catalog. This dummy entry will have valid data only for the operator name, left and right operand types, and result type, since that's all that PostgreSQL can deduce at this point. The first operator's catalog entry will link to this dummy entry. Later, when you define the second operator, the system updates the dummy entry with the additional information from the second definition. If you try to use the dummy operator before it's been filled in, you'll just get an error message.

31.13.2. NEGATOR

The `NEGATOR` clause, if provided, names an operator that is the negator of the operator being defined. We say that operator `A` is the negator of operator `B` if both return Boolean results and $(x \ A \ y)$ equals `NOT (x \ B \ y)` for all possible inputs `x`, `y`. Notice that `B` is also the negator of `A`. For example, `<` and `>=` are a negator pair for most data types. An operator can never validly be its own negator.

Unlike commutators, a pair of unary operators could validly be marked as each others' negators; that would mean $(A \ x)$ equals `NOT (B \ x)` for all `x`, or the equivalent for right unary operators.

An operator's negator must have the same left and/or right operand types as the operator to be defined, so just as with `COMMUTATOR`, only the operator name need be given in the `NEGATOR` clause.

Providing a negator is very helpful to the query optimizer since it allows expressions like `NOT (x = y)` to be simplified into `x <> y`. This comes up more often than you might think, because `NOT` operations can be inserted as a consequence of other rearrangements.

Pairs of negator operators can be defined using the same methods explained above for commutator pairs.

31.13.3. RESTRICT

The `RESTRICT` clause, if provided, names a restriction selectivity estimation function for the operator. (Note that this is a function name, not an operator name.) `RESTRICT` clauses only make sense for binary operators that return `boolean`. The idea behind a restriction selectivity estimator is to guess what fraction of the rows in a table will satisfy a `WHERE`-clause condition of the form

```
column OP constant
```

for the current operator and a particular constant value. This assists the optimizer by giving it some idea of how many rows will be eliminated by `WHERE` clauses that have this form. (What happens if the constant is on the left, you may be wondering? Well, that's one of the things that `COMMUTATOR` is for...)

Writing new restriction selectivity estimation functions is far beyond the scope of this chapter, but fortunately you can usually just use one of the system's standard estimators for many of your own operators. These are the standard restriction estimators:

```
eqsel for =
neqsel for <>
scalartsel for < or <=
scalargtsel for > or >=
```

It might seem a little odd that these are the categories, but they make sense if you think about it. `=` will typically accept only a small fraction of the rows in a table; `<>` will typically reject only a small fraction. `<` will accept a fraction that depends on where the given constant falls in the range of values for that table column (which, it just so happens, is information collected by `ANALYZE` and made available to the selectivity estimator). `<=` will accept a slightly larger fraction than `<` for the same comparison constant, but they're close enough to not be worth distinguishing, especially since we're not likely to do better than a rough guess anyhow. Similar remarks apply to `>` and `>=`.

You can frequently get away with using either `eqsel` or `neqsel` for operators that have very high or very low selectivity, even if they aren't really equality or inequality. For example, the approximate-equality geometric operators use `eqsel` on the assumption that they'll usually only match a small fraction of the entries in a table.

You can use `scalarltsel` and `scalargtsel` for comparisons on data types that have some sensible means of being converted into numeric scalars for range comparisons. If possible, add the data type to those understood by the function `convert_to_scalar()` in `src/backend/utils/adt/selfuncs.c`. (Eventually, this function should be replaced by per-data-type functions identified through a column of the `pg_type` system catalog; but that hasn't happened yet.) If you do not do this, things will still work, but the optimizer's estimates won't be as good as they could be.

There are additional selectivity estimation functions designed for geometric operators in `src/backend/utils/adt/geo_selfuncs.c`: `areasel`, `positionsel`, and `contsel`. At this writing these are just stubs, but you may want to use them (or even better, improve them) anyway.

31.13.4. JOIN

The `JOIN` clause, if provided, names a join selectivity estimation function for the operator. (Note that this is a function name, not an operator name.) `JOIN` clauses only make sense for binary operators that return `boolean`. The idea behind a join selectivity estimator is to guess what fraction of the rows in a pair of tables will satisfy a `WHERE`-clause condition of the form

```
table1.column1 OP table2.column2
```

for the current operator. As with the `RESTRICT` clause, this helps the optimizer very substantially by letting it figure out which of several possible join sequences is likely to take the least work.

As before, this chapter will make no attempt to explain how to write a join selectivity estimator function, but will just suggest that you use one of the standard estimators if one is applicable:

```
eqjoinsel for =
neqjoinsel for <>
scalarltjoinsel for < or <=
scalargtjoinsel for > or >=
areajoinsel for 2D area-based comparisons
positionjoinsel for 2D position-based comparisons
contjoinsel for 2D containment-based comparisons
```

31.13.5. HASHES

The `HASHES` clause, if present, tells the system that it is permissible to use the hash join method for a join based on this operator. `HASHES` only makes sense for a binary operator that returns `boolean`, and in practice the operator had better be equality for some data type.

The assumption underlying hash join is that the join operator can only return true for pairs of left and right values that hash to the same hash code. If two values get put in different hash buckets, the join will never compare them at all, implicitly assuming that the result of the join operator must be false. So it never makes sense to specify `HASHES` for operators that do not represent equality.

To be marked `HASHES`, the join operator must appear in a hash index operator class. This is not enforced when you create the operator, since of course the referencing operator class couldn't exist yet. But attempts

to use the operator in hash joins will fail at runtime if no such operator class exists. The system needs the operator class to find the data-type-specific hash function for the operator's input data type. Of course, you must also supply a suitable hash function before you can create the operator class.

Care should be exercised when preparing a hash function, because there are machine-dependent ways in which it might fail to do the right thing. For example, if your data type is a structure in which there may be uninteresting pad bits, you can't simply pass the whole structure to `hash_any`. (Unless you write your other operators and functions to ensure that the unused bits are always zero, which is the recommended strategy.) Another example is that on machines that meet the IEEE floating-point standard, negative zero and positive zero are different values (different bit patterns) but they are defined to compare equal. If a float value might contain negative zero then extra steps are needed to ensure it generates the same hash value as positive zero.

Note: The function underlying a hash-joinable operator must be marked immutable or stable. If it is volatile, the system will never attempt to use the operator for a hash join.

Note: If a hash-joinable operator has an underlying function that is marked strict, the function must also be complete: that is, it should return true or false, never null, for any two nonnull inputs. If this rule is not followed, hash-optimization of `IN` operations may generate wrong results. (Specifically, `IN` might return false where the correct answer according to the standard would be null; or it might yield an error complaining that it wasn't prepared for a null result.)

31.13.6. MERGES (SORT1, SORT2, LTCMP, GTCMP)

The `MERGES` clause, if present, tells the system that it is permissible to use the merge-join method for a join based on this operator. `MERGES` only makes sense for a binary operator that returns `boolean`, and in practice the operator must represent equality for some data type or pair of data types.

Merge join is based on the idea of sorting the left- and right-hand tables into order and then scanning them in parallel. So, both data types must be capable of being fully ordered, and the join operator must be one that can only succeed for pairs of values that fall at the "same place" in the sort order. In practice this means that the join operator must behave like equality. But unlike hash join, where the left and right data types had better be the same (or at least bitwise equivalent), it is possible to merge-join two distinct data types so long as they are logically compatible. For example, the `smallint-versus-integer` equality operator is merge-joinable. We only need sorting operators that will bring both data types into a logically compatible sequence.

Execution of a merge join requires that the system be able to identify four operators related to the merge-join equality operator: less-than comparison for the left operand data type, less-than comparison for the right operand data type, less-than comparison between the two data types, and greater-than comparison between the two data types. (These are actually four distinct operators if the merge-joinable operator has two different operand data types; but when the operand types are the same the three less-than operators are all the same operator.) It is possible to specify these operators individually by name, as the `SORT1`, `SORT2`, `LTCMP`, and `GTCMP` options respectively. The system will fill in the default names `<`, `<`, `<`, `>` respectively if any of these are omitted when `MERGES` is specified. Also, `MERGES` will be assumed to be implied if any

of these four operator options appear, so it is possible to specify just some of them and let the system fill in the rest.

The operand data types of the four comparison operators can be deduced from the operand types of the merge-joinable operator, so just as with `COMMUTATOR`, only the operator names need be given in these clauses. Unless you are using peculiar choices of operator names, it's sufficient to write `MERGES` and let the system fill in the details. (As with `COMMUTATOR` and `NEGATOR`, the system is able to make dummy operator entries if you happen to define the equality operator before the other ones.)

There are additional restrictions on operators that you mark merge-joinable. These restrictions are not currently checked by `CREATE OPERATOR`, but errors may occur when the operator is used if any are not true:

- A merge-joinable equality operator must have a merge-joinable commutator (itself if the two operand data types are the same, or a related equality operator if they are different).
- If there is a merge-joinable operator relating any two data types A and B, and another merge-joinable operator relating B to any third data type C, then A and C must also have a merge-joinable operator; in other words, having a merge-joinable operator must be transitive.
- Bizarre results will ensue at runtime if the four comparison operators you name do not sort the data values compatibly.

Note: The function underlying a merge-joinable operator must be marked immutable or stable. If it is volatile, the system will never attempt to use the operator for a merge join.

Note: In PostgreSQL versions before 7.3, the `MERGES` shorthand was not available: to make a merge-joinable operator one had to write both `SORT1` and `SORT2` explicitly. Also, the `LTCMP` and `GTCMP` options did not exist; the names of those operators were hardwired as `<` and `>` respectively.

31.14. Interfacing Extensions To Indexes

The procedures described thus far let you define new types, new functions, and new operators. However, we cannot yet define an index on a column of a new data type. To do this, we must define an *operator class* for the new data type. Later in this section, we will illustrate this concept in an example: a new operator class for the B-tree index method that stores and sorts complex numbers in ascending absolute value order.

Note: Prior to PostgreSQL release 7.3, it was necessary to make manual additions to the system catalogs `pg_amop`, `pg_amproc`, and `pg_opclass` in order to create a user-defined operator class. That approach is now deprecated in favor of using `CREATE OPERATOR CLASS`, which is a much simpler and less error-prone way of creating the necessary catalog entries.

31.14.1. Index Methods and Operator Classes

The `pg_am` table contains one row for every index method (internally known as access method). Support for regular access to tables is built into PostgreSQL, but all index methods are described in `pg_am`. It is possible to add a new index method by defining the required interface routines and then creating a row in `pg_am` — but that is far beyond the scope of this chapter.

The routines for an index method do not directly know anything about the data types that the index method will operate on. Instead, an *operator class* identifies the set of operations that the index method needs to use to work with a particular data type. Operator classes are so called because one thing they specify is the set of `WHERE`-clause operators that can be used with an index (i.e., can be converted into an index-scan qualification). An operator class may also specify some *support procedures* that are needed by the internal operations of the index method, but do not directly correspond to any `WHERE`-clause operator that can be used with the index.

It is possible to define multiple operator classes for the same data type and index method. By doing this, multiple sets of indexing semantics can be defined for a single data type. For example, a B-tree index requires a sort ordering to be defined for each data type it works on. It might be useful for a complex-number data type to have one B-tree operator class that sorts the data by complex absolute value, another that sorts by real part, and so on. Typically, one of the operator classes will be deemed most commonly useful and will be marked as the default operator class for that data type and index method.

The same operator class name can be used for several different index methods (for example, both B-tree and hash index methods have operator classes named `int4_ops`), but each such class is an independent entity and must be defined separately.

31.14.2. Index Method Strategies

The operators associated with an operator class are identified by “strategy numbers”, which serve to identify the semantics of each operator within the context of its operator class. For example, B-trees impose a strict ordering on keys, lesser to greater, and so operators like “less than” and “greater than or equal to” are interesting with respect to a B-tree. Because PostgreSQL allows the user to define operators, PostgreSQL cannot look at the name of an operator (e.g., `<` or `>=`) and tell what kind of comparison it is. Instead, the index method defines a set of “strategies”, which can be thought of as generalized operators. Each operator class specifies which actual operator corresponds to each strategy for a particular data type and interpretation of the index semantics.

The B-tree index method defines five strategies, shown in Table 31-2.

Table 31-2. B-tree Strategies

Operation	Strategy Number
less than	1
less than or equal	2
equal	3
greater than or equal	4
greater than	5

Hash indexes express only bitwise equality, and so they use only one strategy, shown in Table 31-3.

Table 31-3. Hash Strategies

Operation	Strategy Number
equal	1

R-tree indexes express rectangle-containment relationships. They use eight strategies, shown in Table 31-4.

Table 31-4. R-tree Strategies

Operation	Strategy Number
left of	1
left of or overlapping	2
overlapping	3
right of or overlapping	4
right of	5
same	6
contains	7
contained by	8

GiST indexes are even more flexible: they do not have a fixed set of strategies at all. Instead, the “consistency” support routine of each particular GiST operator class interprets the strategy numbers however it likes.

Note that all strategy operators return Boolean values. In practice, all operators defined as index method strategies must return type `boolean`, since they must appear at the top level of a `WHERE` clause to be used with an index.

By the way, the `amorderstrategy` column in `pg_am` tells whether the index method supports ordered scans. Zero means it doesn’t; if it does, `amorderstrategy` is the strategy number that corresponds to the ordering operator. For example, B-tree has `amorderstrategy = 1`, which is its “less than” strategy number.

31.14.3. Index Method Support Routines

Strategies aren’t usually enough information for the system to figure out how to use an index. In practice, the index methods require additional support routines in order to work. For example, the B-tree index method must be able to compare two keys and determine whether one is greater than, equal to, or less than the other. Similarly, the R-tree index method must be able to compute intersections, unions, and sizes of rectangles. These operations do not correspond to operators used in qualifications in SQL commands; they are administrative routines used by the index methods, internally.

Just as with strategies, the operator class identifies which specific functions should play each of these roles for a given data type and semantic interpretation. The index method defines the set of functions it needs, and the operator class identifies the correct functions to use by assigning them to the “support function numbers”.

B-trees require a single support function, shown in Table 31-5.

Table 31-5. B-tree Support Functions

Function	Support Number
Compare two keys and return an integer less than zero, zero, or greater than zero, indicating whether the first key is less than, equal to, or greater than the second.	1

Hash indexes likewise require one support function, shown in Table 31-6.

Table 31-6. Hash Support Functions

Function	Support Number
Compute the hash value for a key	1

R-tree indexes require three support functions, shown in Table 31-7.

Table 31-7. R-tree Support Functions

Function	Support Number
union	1
intersection	2
size	3

GiST indexes require seven support functions, shown in Table 31-8.

Table 31-8. GiST Support Functions

Function	Support Number
consistent	1
union	2
compress	3
decompress	4
penalty	5
picksplit	6
equal	7

Unlike strategy operators, support functions return whichever data type the particular index method expects, for example in the case of the comparison function for B-trees, a signed integer.

31.14.4. An Example

Now that we have seen the ideas, here is the promised example of creating a new operator class. (You can find a working copy of this example in `src/tutorial/complex.c` and `src/tutorial/complex.sql` in the source distribution.) The operator class encapsulates operators that sort complex numbers in abso-

lute value order, so we choose the name `complex_abs_ops`. First, we need a set of operators. The procedure for defining operators was discussed in Section 31.12. For an operator class on B-trees, the operators we require are:

- absolute-value less-than (strategy 1)
- absolute-value less-than-or-equal (strategy 2)
- absolute-value equal (strategy 3)
- absolute-value greater-than-or-equal (strategy 4)
- absolute-value greater-than (strategy 5)

The least error-prone way to define a related set of comparison operators is to write the B-tree comparison support function first, and then write the other functions as one-line wrappers around the support function. This reduces the odds of getting inconsistent results for corner cases. Following this approach, we first write

```
#define Mag(c) ((c)->x*(c)->x + (c)->y*(c)->y)

static int
complex_abs_cmp_internal(Complex *a, Complex *b)
{
    double    amag = Mag(a),
             bmag = Mag(b);

    if (amag < bmag)
        return -1;
    if (amag > bmag)
        return 1;
    return 0;
}
```

Now the less-than function looks like

```
PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(complex_abs_lt);

Datum
complex_abs_lt(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    Complex    *a = (Complex *) PG_GETARG_POINTER(0);
    Complex    *b = (Complex *) PG_GETARG_POINTER(1);

    PG_RETURN_BOOL(complex_abs_cmp_internal(a, b) < 0);
}
```

The other four functions differ only in how they compare the internal function's result to zero.

Next we declare the functions and the operators based on the functions to SQL:

```
CREATE FUNCTION complex_abs_lt(complex, complex) RETURNS bool
AS 'filename', 'complex_abs_lt'
LANGUAGE C IMMUTABLE STRICT;
```

```
CREATE OPERATOR < (
    leftarg = complex, rightarg = complex, procedure = complex_abs_lt,
    commutator = > , negator = >= ,
    restrict = scalarlttsel, join = scalarltjointsel
);
```

It is important to specify the correct commutator and negator operators, as well as suitable restriction and join selectivity functions, otherwise the optimizer will be unable to make effective use of the index. Note that the less-than, equal, and greater-than cases should use different selectivity functions.

Other things worth noting are happening here:

- There can only be one operator named, say, = and taking type `complex` for both operands. In this case we don't have any other operator = for `complex`, but if we were building a practical data type we'd probably want = to be the ordinary equality operation for complex numbers (and not the equality of the absolute values). In that case, we'd need to use some other operator name for `complex_abs_eq`.
- Although PostgreSQL can cope with functions having the same name as long as they have different argument data types, C can only cope with one global function having a given name. So we shouldn't name the C function something simple like `abs_eq`. Usually it's a good practice to include the data type name in the C function name, so as not to conflict with functions for other data types.
- We could have made the PostgreSQL name of the function `abs_eq`, relying on PostgreSQL to distinguish it by argument data types from any other PostgreSQL function of the same name. To keep the example simple, we make the function have the same names at the C level and PostgreSQL level.

The next step is the registration of the support routine required by B-trees. The example C code that implements this is in the same file that contains the operator functions. This is how we declare the function:

```
CREATE FUNCTION complex_abs_cmp(complex, complex)
    RETURNS integer
    AS 'filename'
    LANGUAGE C IMMUTABLE STRICT;
```

Now that we have the required operators and support routine, we can finally create the operator class:

```
CREATE OPERATOR CLASS complex_abs_ops
    DEFAULT FOR TYPE complex USING btree AS
    OPERATOR          1          < ,
    OPERATOR          2          <= ,
    OPERATOR          3          = ,
    OPERATOR          4          >= ,
    OPERATOR          5          > ,
    FUNCTION          1          complex_abs_cmp(complex, complex);
```

And we're done! It should now be possible to create and use B-tree indexes on `complex` columns.

We could have written the operator entries more verbosely, as in

```
OPERATOR          1          < (complex, complex) ,
```

but there is no need to do so when the operators take the same data type we are defining the operator class for.

The above example assumes that you want to make this new operator class the default B-tree operator class for the `complex` data type. If you don't, just leave out the word `DEFAULT`.

31.14.5. Cross-Data-Type Operator Classes

So far we have implicitly assumed that an operator class deals with only one data type. While there certainly can be only one data type in a particular index column, it is often useful to index operations that compare an indexed column to a value of a different data type. This is presently supported by the B-tree and GiST index methods.

B-trees require the left-hand operand of each operator to be the indexed data type, but the right-hand operand can be of a different type. There must be a support function having a matching signature. For example, the built-in operator class for type `bigint` (`int8`) allows cross-type comparisons to `int4` and `int2`. It could be duplicated by this definition:

```
CREATE OPERATOR CLASS int8_ops
DEFAULT FOR TYPE int8 USING btree AS
  -- standard int8 comparisons
  OPERATOR 1 < ,
  OPERATOR 2 <= ,
  OPERATOR 3 = ,
  OPERATOR 4 >= ,
  OPERATOR 5 > ,
  FUNCTION 1 btint8cmp(int8, int8) ,

  -- cross-type comparisons to int2 (smallint)
  OPERATOR 1 < (int8, int2) ,
  OPERATOR 2 <= (int8, int2) ,
  OPERATOR 3 = (int8, int2) ,
  OPERATOR 4 >= (int8, int2) ,
  OPERATOR 5 > (int8, int2) ,
  FUNCTION 1 btint82cmp(int8, int2) ,

  -- cross-type comparisons to int4 (integer)
  OPERATOR 1 < (int8, int4) ,
  OPERATOR 2 <= (int8, int4) ,
  OPERATOR 3 = (int8, int4) ,
  OPERATOR 4 >= (int8, int4) ,
  OPERATOR 5 > (int8, int4) ,
  FUNCTION 1 btint84cmp(int8, int4) ;
```

Notice that this definition “overloads” the operator strategy and support function numbers. This is allowed (for B-tree operator classes only) so long as each instance of a particular number has a different right-hand data type. The instances that are not cross-type are the default or primary operators of the operator class.

GiST indexes do not allow overloading of strategy or support function numbers, but it is still possible to get the effect of supporting multiple right-hand data types, by assigning a distinct strategy number to each operator that needs to be supported. The consistent support function must determine what it needs to

do based on the strategy number, and must be prepared to accept comparison values of the appropriate data types.

31.14.6. System Dependencies on Operator Classes

PostgreSQL uses operator classes to infer the properties of operators in more ways than just whether they can be used with indexes. Therefore, you might want to create operator classes even if you have no intention of indexing any columns of your data type.

In particular, there are SQL features such as `ORDER BY` and `DISTINCT` that require comparison and sorting of values. To implement these features on a user-defined data type, PostgreSQL looks for the default B-tree operator class for the data type. The “equals” member of this operator class defines the system’s notion of equality of values for `GROUP BY` and `DISTINCT`, and the sort ordering imposed by the operator class defines the default `ORDER BY` ordering.

Comparison of arrays of user-defined types also relies on the semantics defined by the default B-tree operator class.

If there is no default B-tree operator class for a data type, the system will look for a default hash operator class. But since that kind of operator class only provides equality, in practice it is only enough to support array equality.

When there is no default operator class for a data type, you will get errors like “could not identify an ordering operator” if you try to use these SQL features with the data type.

Note: In PostgreSQL versions before 7.4, sorting and grouping operations would implicitly use operators named `=`, `<`, and `>`. The new behavior of relying on default operator classes avoids having to make any assumption about the behavior of operators with particular names.

31.14.7. Special Features of Operator Classes

There are two special features of operator classes that we have not discussed yet, mainly because they are not useful with the most commonly used index methods.

Normally, declaring an operator as a member of an operator class means that the index method can retrieve exactly the set of rows that satisfy a `WHERE` condition using the operator. For example,

```
SELECT * FROM table WHERE integer_column < 4;
```

can be satisfied exactly by a B-tree index on the integer column. But there are cases where an index is useful as an inexact guide to the matching rows. For example, if an R-tree index stores only bounding boxes for objects, then it cannot exactly satisfy a `WHERE` condition that tests overlap between nonrectangular objects such as polygons. Yet we could use the index to find objects whose bounding box overlaps the bounding box of the target object, and then do the exact overlap test only on the objects found by the index. If this scenario applies, the index is said to be “lossy” for the operator, and we add `RECHECK` to the `OPERATOR` clause in the `CREATE OPERATOR CLASS` command. `RECHECK` is valid if the index is guaranteed to return all the required rows, plus perhaps some additional rows, which can be eliminated by performing the original operator invocation.

Consider again the situation where we are storing in the index only the bounding box of a complex object such as a polygon. In this case there's not much value in storing the whole polygon in the index entry — we may as well store just a simpler object of type `box`. This situation is expressed by the `STORAGE` option in `CREATE OPERATOR CLASS`: we'd write something like

```
CREATE OPERATOR CLASS polygon_ops
    DEFAULT FOR TYPE polygon USING gist AS
    ...
    STORAGE box;
```

At present, only the GiST index method supports a `STORAGE` type that's different from the column data type. The GiST `compress` and `decompress` support routines must deal with data-type conversion when `STORAGE` is used.

Chapter 32. Triggers

This chapter describes how to write trigger functions. Trigger functions can be written in C or in some of the available procedural languages. It is not currently possible to write a SQL-language trigger function.

32.1. Overview of Trigger Behavior

A trigger can be defined to execute before or after an `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE` operation, either once per modified row, or once per SQL statement. If a trigger event occurs, the trigger's function is called at the appropriate time to handle the event.

The trigger function must be defined before the trigger itself can be created. The trigger function must be declared as a function taking no arguments and returning type `trigger`. (The trigger function receives its input through a specially-passed `TriggerData` structure, not in the form of ordinary function arguments.)

Once a suitable trigger function has been created, the trigger is established with `CREATE TRIGGER`. The same trigger function can be used for multiple triggers.

There are two types of triggers: per-row triggers and per-statement triggers. In a per-row trigger, the trigger function is invoked once for every row that is affected by the statement that fired the trigger. In contrast, a per-statement trigger is invoked only once when an appropriate statement is executed, regardless of the number of rows affected by that statement. In particular, a statement that affects zero rows will still result in the execution of any applicable per-statement triggers. These two types of triggers are sometimes called “row-level triggers” and “statement-level triggers”, respectively.

Statement-level “before” triggers naturally fire before the statement starts to do anything, while statement-level “after” triggers fire at the very end of the statement. Row-level “before” triggers fire immediately before a particular row is operated on, while row-level “after” triggers fire at the end of the statement (but before any statement-level “after” triggers).

Trigger functions invoked by per-statement triggers should always return `NULL`. Trigger functions invoked by per-row triggers can return a table row (a value of type `HeapTuple`) to the calling executor, if they choose. A row-level trigger fired before an operation has the following choices:

- It can return `NULL` to skip the operation for the current row. This instructs the executor to not perform the row-level operation that invoked the trigger (the insertion or modification of a particular table row).
- For row-level `INSERT` and `UPDATE` triggers only, the returned row becomes the row that will be inserted or will replace the row being updated. This allows the trigger function to modify the row being inserted or updated.

A row-level before trigger that does not intend to cause either of these behaviors must be careful to return as its result the same row that was passed in (that is, the `NEW` row for `INSERT` and `UPDATE` triggers, the `OLD` row for `DELETE` triggers).

The return value is ignored for row-level triggers fired after an operation, and so they may as well return `NULL`.

If more than one trigger is defined for the same event on the same relation, the triggers will be fired in alphabetical order by trigger name. In the case of before triggers, the possibly-modified row returned by each trigger becomes the input to the next trigger. If any before trigger returns `NULL`, the operation is abandoned and subsequent triggers are not fired.

Typically, row before triggers are used for checking or modifying the data that will be inserted or updated. For example, a before trigger might be used to insert the current time into a timestamp column, or to check that two elements of the row are consistent. Row after triggers are most sensibly used to propagate the updates to other tables, or make consistency checks against other tables. The reason for this division of labor is that an after trigger can be certain it is seeing the final value of the row, while a before trigger cannot; there might be other before triggers firing after it. If you have no specific reason to make a trigger before or after, the before case is more efficient, since the information about the operation doesn't have to be saved until end of statement.

If a trigger function executes SQL commands then these commands may fire triggers again. This is known as cascading triggers. There is no direct limitation on the number of cascade levels. It is possible for cascades to cause a recursive invocation of the same trigger; for example, an `INSERT` trigger might execute a command that inserts an additional row into the same table, causing the `INSERT` trigger to be fired again. It is the trigger programmer's responsibility to avoid infinite recursion in such scenarios.

When a trigger is being defined, arguments can be specified for it. The purpose of including arguments in the trigger definition is to allow different triggers with similar requirements to call the same function. As an example, there could be a generalized trigger function that takes as its arguments two column names and puts the current user in one and the current time stamp in the other. Properly written, this trigger function would be independent of the specific table it is triggering on. So the same function could be used for `INSERT` events on any table with suitable columns, to automatically track creation of records in a transaction table for example. It could also be used to track last-update events if defined as an `UPDATE` trigger.

Each programming language that supports triggers has its own method for making the trigger input data available to the trigger function. This input data includes the type of trigger event (e.g., `INSERT` or `UPDATE`) as well as any arguments that were listed in `CREATE TRIGGER`. For a row-level trigger, the input data also includes the `NEW` row for `INSERT` and `UPDATE` triggers, and/or the `OLD` row for `UPDATE` and `DELETE` triggers. Statement-level triggers do not currently have any way to examine the individual row(s) modified by the statement.

32.2. Visibility of Data Changes

If you execute SQL commands in your trigger function, and these commands access the table that the trigger is for, then you need to be aware of the data visibility rules, because they determine whether these SQL commands will see the data change that the trigger is fired for. Briefly:

- Statement-level triggers follow simple visibility rules: none of the changes made by a statement are visible to statement-level triggers that are invoked before the statement, whereas all modifications are visible to statement-level after triggers.
- The data change (insertion, update, or deletion) causing the trigger to fire is naturally *not* visible to SQL commands executed in a row-level before trigger, because it hasn't happened yet.
- However, SQL commands executed in a row-level before trigger *will* see the effects of data changes for rows previously processed in the same outer command. This requires caution, since the ordering of these change events is not in general predictable; a SQL command that affects multiple rows may visit the rows in any order.

- When a row-level after trigger is fired, all data changes made by the outer command are already complete, and are visible to the invoked trigger function.

Further information about data visibility rules can be found in Section 39.4. The example in Section 32.4 contains a demonstration of these rules.

32.3. Writing Trigger Functions in C

This section describes the low-level details of the interface to a trigger function. This information is only needed when writing a trigger function in C. If you are using a higher-level language then these details are handled for you. The documentation of each procedural language explains how to write a trigger in that language.

Trigger functions must use the “version 1” function manager interface.

When a function is called by the trigger manager, it is not passed any normal arguments, but it is passed a “context” pointer pointing to a `TriggerData` structure. C functions can check whether they were called from the trigger manager or not by executing the macro

```
CALLED_AS_TRIGGER(fcinfo)
```

which expands to

```
((fcinfo)->context != NULL && IsA((fcinfo)->context, TriggerData))
```

If this returns true, then it is safe to cast `fcinfo->context` to type `TriggerData *` and make use of the pointed-to `TriggerData` structure. The function must *not* alter the `TriggerData` structure or any of the data it points to.

`struct TriggerData` is defined in `commands/trigger.h`:

```
typedef struct TriggerData
{
    NodeTag      type;
    TriggerEvent tg_event;
    Relation     tg_relation;
    HeapTuple    tg_trigtuple;
    HeapTuple    tg_newtuple;
    Trigger      *tg_trigger;
    Buffer        tg_trigtuplebuf;
    Buffer        tg_newtuplebuf;
} TriggerData;
```

where the members are defined as follows:

type

Always `T_TriggerData`.

`tg_event`

Describes the event for which the function is called. You may use the following macros to examine `tg_event`:

`TRIGGER_FIRED_BEFORE(tg_event)`

Returns true if the trigger fired before the operation.

`TRIGGER_FIRED_AFTER(tg_event)`

Returns true if the trigger fired after the operation.

`TRIGGER_FIRED_FOR_ROW(tg_event)`

Returns true if the trigger fired for a row-level event.

`TRIGGER_FIRED_FOR_STATEMENT(tg_event)`

Returns true if the trigger fired for a statement-level event.

`TRIGGER_FIRED_BY_INSERT(tg_event)`

Returns true if the trigger was fired by an `INSERT` command.

`TRIGGER_FIRED_BY_UPDATE(tg_event)`

Returns true if the trigger was fired by an `UPDATE` command.

`TRIGGER_FIRED_BY_DELETE(tg_event)`

Returns true if the trigger was fired by a `DELETE` command.

`tg_relation`

A pointer to a structure describing the relation that the trigger fired for. Look at `utils/rel.h` for details about this structure. The most interesting things are `tg_relation->rd_att` (descriptor of the relation tuples) and `tg_relation->rd_rel->relname` (relation name; the type is not `char*` but `NameData`; use `SPI_getrelname(tg_relation)` to get a `char*` if you need a copy of the name).

`tg_trigtuple`

A pointer to the row for which the trigger was fired. This is the row being inserted, updated, or deleted. If this trigger was fired for an `INSERT` or `DELETE` then this is what you should return from the function if you don't want to replace the row with a different one (in the case of `INSERT`) or skip the operation.

`tg_newtuple`

A pointer to the new version of the row, if the trigger was fired for an `UPDATE`, and `NULL` if it is for an `INSERT` or a `DELETE`. This is what you have to return from the function if the event is an `UPDATE` and you don't want to replace this row by a different one or skip the operation.

`tg_trigger`

A pointer to a structure of type `Trigger`, defined in `utils/rel.h`:

```
typedef struct Trigger
{
```

```

    Oid          tgoid;
    char         *tgname;
    Oid          tgfoid;
    int16        tgtype;
    bool         tgenabled;
    bool         tgisconstraint;
    Oid          tgconstrrelid;
    bool         tgdeferrable;
    bool         tginitdeferred;
    int16        tgnargs;
    int16        tgattr[FUNC_MAX_ARGS];
    char         **tgargs;
} Trigger;

```

where `tgname` is the trigger's name, `tgnargs` is number of arguments in `tgargs`, and `tgargs` is an array of pointers to the arguments specified in the `CREATE TRIGGER` statement. The other members are for internal use only.

`tg_trigtuplebuf`

The buffer containing `tg_trigtuple`, or `InvalidBuffer` if there is no such tuple or it is not stored in a disk buffer.

`tg_newtuplebuf`

The buffer containing `tg_newtuple`, or `InvalidBuffer` if there is no such tuple or it is not stored in a disk buffer.

A trigger function must return either a `HeapTuple` pointer or a `NULL` pointer (*not* an SQL null value, that is, do not set `isNull` true). Be careful to return either `tg_trigtuple` or `tg_newtuple`, as appropriate, if you don't want to modify the row being operated on.

32.4. A Complete Example

Here is a very simple example of a trigger function written in C. (Examples of triggers written in procedural languages may be found in the documentation of the procedural languages.)

The function `trigf` reports the number of rows in the table `ttest` and skips the actual operation if the command attempts to insert a null value into the column `x`. (So the trigger acts as a not-null constraint but doesn't abort the transaction.)

First, the table definition:

```

CREATE TABLE ttest (
    x integer
);

```

This is the source code of the trigger function:

```

#include "postgres.h"

```

```

#include "executor/spi.h"      /* this is what you need to work with SPI */
#include "commands/trigger.h" /* ... and triggers */

extern Datum trigf(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS);

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(trigf);

Datum
trigf(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    TriggerData *trigdata = (TriggerData *) fcinfo->context;
    TupleDesc   tupdesc;
    HeapTuple   rettuple;
    char        *when;
    bool        checknull = false;
    bool        isnull;
    int         ret, i;

    /* make sure it's called as a trigger at all */
    if (!CALLED_AS_TRIGGER(fcinfo))
        elog(ERROR, "trigf: not called by trigger manager");

    /* tuple to return to executor */
    if (TRIGGER_FIRED_BY_UPDATE(trigdata->tg_event))
        rettuple = trigdata->tg_newtuple;
    else
        rettuple = trigdata->tg_trigtuple;

    /* check for null values */
    if (!TRIGGER_FIRED_BY_DELETE(trigdata->tg_event)
        && TRIGGER_FIRED_BEFORE(trigdata->tg_event))
        checknull = true;

    if (TRIGGER_FIRED_BEFORE(trigdata->tg_event))
        when = "before";
    else
        when = "after ";

    tupdesc = trigdata->tg_relation->rd_att;

    /* connect to SPI manager */
    if ((ret = SPI_connect()) < 0)
        elog(INFO, "trigf (fired %s): SPI_connect returned %d", when, ret);

    /* get number of rows in table */
    ret = SPI_exec("SELECT count(*) FROM ttest", 0);

    if (ret < 0)
        elog(NOTICE, "trigf (fired %s): SPI_exec returned %d", when, ret);

    /* count(*) returns int8, so be careful to convert */
    i = DatumGetInt64(SPI_getbinval(SPI_tuptable->vals[0],
                                    SPI_tuptable->tupdesc,

```

```

        1,
        &isnull));

elog (INFO, "trigf (fired %s): there are %d rows in ttest", when, i);

SPI_finish();

if (checknull)
{
    SPI_getbinval(rettuple, tupdesc, 1, &isnull);
    if (isnull)
        rettuple = NULL;
}

return PointerGetDatum(rettuple);
}

```

After you have compiled the source code, declare the function and the triggers:

```

CREATE FUNCTION trigf() RETURNS trigger
AS 'filename'
LANGUAGE C;

CREATE TRIGGER tbefore BEFORE INSERT OR UPDATE OR DELETE ON ttest
FOR EACH ROW EXECUTE PROCEDURE trigf();

CREATE TRIGGER tafter AFTER INSERT OR UPDATE OR DELETE ON ttest
FOR EACH ROW EXECUTE PROCEDURE trigf();

```

Now you can test the operation of the trigger:

```

=> INSERT INTO ttest VALUES (NULL);
INFO:  trigf (fired before): there are 0 rows in ttest
INSERT 0 0

-- Insertion skipped and AFTER trigger is not fired

=> SELECT * FROM ttest;
 x
---
(0 rows)

=> INSERT INTO ttest VALUES (1);
INFO:  trigf (fired before): there are 0 rows in ttest
INFO:  trigf (fired after ): there are 1 rows in ttest
      ^^^^^^^^
      remember what we said about visibility.

INSERT 167793 1
vac=> SELECT * FROM ttest;
 x

```

```

---
1
(1 row)

=> INSERT INTO ttest SELECT x * 2 FROM ttest;
INFO:  trigf (fired before): there are 1 rows in ttest
INFO:  trigf (fired after ): there are 2 rows in ttest
      ^^^^^^
      remember what we said about visibility.

INSERT 167794 1
=> SELECT * FROM ttest;
 x
---
 1
 2
(2 rows)

=> UPDATE ttest SET x = NULL WHERE x = 2;
INFO:  trigf (fired before): there are 2 rows in ttest
UPDATE 0
=> UPDATE ttest SET x = 4 WHERE x = 2;
INFO:  trigf (fired before): there are 2 rows in ttest
INFO:  trigf (fired after ): there are 2 rows in ttest
UPDATE 1
vac=> SELECT * FROM ttest;
 x
---
 1
 4
(2 rows)

=> DELETE FROM ttest;
INFO:  trigf (fired before): there are 2 rows in ttest
INFO:  trigf (fired after ): there are 1 rows in ttest
INFO:  trigf (fired before): there are 1 rows in ttest
INFO:  trigf (fired after ): there are 0 rows in ttest
      ^^^^^^
      remember what we said about visibility.

DELETE 2
=> SELECT * FROM ttest;
 x
---
(0 rows)

```

There are more complex examples in `src/test/regress/regress.c` and in `contrib/spi`.

Chapter 33. The Rule System

This chapter discusses the rule system in PostgreSQL. Production rule systems are conceptually simple, but there are many subtle points involved in actually using them.

Some other database systems define active database rules, which are usually stored procedures and triggers. In PostgreSQL, these can be implemented using functions and triggers as well.

The rule system (more precisely speaking, the query rewrite rule system) is totally different from stored procedures and triggers. It modifies queries to take rules into consideration, and then passes the modified query to the query planner for planning and execution. It is very powerful, and can be used for many things such as query language procedures, views, and versions. The theoretical foundations and the power of this rule system are also discussed in *On Rules, Procedures, Caching and Views in Database Systems* and *A Unified Framework for Version Modeling Using Production Rules in a Database System*.

33.1. The Query Tree

To understand how the rule system works it is necessary to know when it is invoked and what its input and results are.

The rule system is located between the parser and the planner. It takes the output of the parser, one query tree, and the user-defined rewrite rules, which are also query trees with some extra information, and creates zero or more query trees as result. So its input and output are always things the parser itself could have produced and thus, anything it sees is basically representable as an SQL statement.

Now what is a query tree? It is an internal representation of an SQL statement where the single parts that it is built from are stored separately. These query trees can be shown in the server log if you set the configuration parameters `debug_print_parse`, `debug_print_rewritten`, or `debug_print_plan`. The rule actions are also stored as query trees, in the system catalog `pg_rewrite`. They are not formatted like the log output, but they contain exactly the same information.

Reading a raw query tree requires some experience. But since SQL representations of query trees are sufficient to understand the rule system, this chapter will not teach how to read them.

When reading the SQL representations of the query trees in this chapter it is necessary to be able to identify the parts the statement is broken into when it is in the query tree structure. The parts of a query tree are

the command type

This is a simple value telling which command (`SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`) produced the query tree.

the range table

The range table is a list of relations that are used in the query. In a `SELECT` statement these are the relations given after the `FROM` key word.

Every range table entry identifies a table or view and tells by which name it is called in the other parts of the query. In the query tree, the range table entries are referenced by number rather than by name, so here it doesn't matter if there are duplicate names as it would in an SQL statement. This can happen after the range tables of rules have been merged in. The examples in this chapter will not have this situation.

the result relation

This is an index into the range table that identifies the relation where the results of the query go.

`SELECT` queries normally don't have a result relation. The special case of a `SELECT INTO` is mostly identical to a `CREATE TABLE` followed by a `INSERT . . . SELECT` and is not discussed separately here.

For `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` commands, the result relation is the table (or view!) where the changes are to take effect.

the target list

The target list is a list of expressions that define the result of the query. In the case of a `SELECT`, these expressions are the ones that build the final output of the query. They correspond to the expressions between the key words `SELECT` and `FROM`. (* is just an abbreviation for all the column names of a relation. It is expanded by the parser into the individual columns, so the rule system never sees it.)

`DELETE` commands don't need a target list because they don't produce any result. In fact, the planner will add a special `CTID` entry to the empty target list, but this is after the rule system and will be discussed later; for the rule system, the target list is empty.

For `INSERT` commands, the target list describes the new rows that should go into the result relation. It consists of the expressions in the `VALUES` clause or the ones from the `SELECT` clause in `INSERT . . . SELECT`. The first step of the rewrite process adds target list entries for any columns that were not assigned to by the original command but have defaults. Any remaining columns (with neither a given value nor a default) will be filled in by the planner with a constant null expression.

For `UPDATE` commands, the target list describes the new rows that should replace the old ones. In the rule system, it contains just the expressions from the `SET column = expression` part of the command. The planner will handle missing columns by inserting expressions that copy the values from the old row into the new one. And it will add the special `CTID` entry just as for `DELETE`, too.

Every entry in the target list contains an expression that can be a constant value, a variable pointing to a column of one of the relations in the range table, a parameter, or an expression tree made of function calls, constants, variables, operators, etc.

the qualification

The query's qualification is an expression much like one of those contained in the target list entries. The result value of this expression is a Boolean that tells whether the operation (`INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, or `SELECT`) for the final result row should be executed or not. It corresponds to the `WHERE` clause of an SQL statement.

the join tree

The query's join tree shows the structure of the `FROM` clause. For a simple query like `SELECT . . . FROM a, b, c`, the join tree is just a list of the `FROM` items, because we are allowed to join them in any order. But when `JOIN` expressions, particularly outer joins, are used, we have to join in the order shown by the joins. In that case, the join tree shows the structure of the `JOIN` expressions. The restrictions associated with particular `JOIN` clauses (from `ON` or `USING` expressions) are stored as qualification expressions attached to those join-tree nodes. It turns out to be convenient to store the top-level `WHERE` expression as a qualification attached to the top-level join-tree item, too. So really the join tree represents both the `FROM` and `WHERE` clauses of a `SELECT`.

the others

The other parts of the query tree like the `ORDER BY` clause aren't of interest here. The rule system substitutes some entries there while applying rules, but that doesn't have much to do with the fundamentals of the rule system.

33.2. Views and the Rule System

Views in PostgreSQL are implemented using the rule system. In fact, there is essentially no difference between

```
CREATE VIEW myview AS SELECT * FROM mytab;
```

compared against the two commands

```
CREATE TABLE myview (same column list as mytab);
CREATE RULE "_RETURN" AS ON SELECT TO myview DO INSTEAD
    SELECT * FROM mytab;
```

because this is exactly what the `CREATE VIEW` command does internally. This has some side effects. One of them is that the information about a view in the PostgreSQL system catalogs is exactly the same as it is for a table. So for the parser, there is absolutely no difference between a table and a view. They are the same thing: relations.

33.2.1. How `SELECT` Rules Work

Rules `ON SELECT` are applied to all queries as the last step, even if the command given is an `INSERT`, `UPDATE` or `DELETE`. And they have different semantics from rules on the other command types in that they modify the query tree in place instead of creating a new one. So `SELECT` rules are described first.

Currently, there can be only one action in an `ON SELECT` rule, and it must be an unconditional `SELECT` action that is `INSTEAD`. This restriction was required to make rules safe enough to open them for ordinary users, and it restricts `ON SELECT` rules to act like views.

The examples for this chapter are two join views that do some calculations and some more views using them in turn. One of the two first views is customized later by adding rules for `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` operations so that the final result will be a view that behaves like a real table with some magic functionality. This is not such a simple example to start from and this makes things harder to get into. But it's better to have one example that covers all the points discussed step by step rather than having many different ones that might mix up in mind.

For the example, we need a little `min` function that returns the lower of 2 integer values. We create that as

```
CREATE FUNCTION min(integer, integer) RETURNS integer AS $$
    SELECT CASE WHEN $1 < $2 THEN $1 ELSE $2 END
$$ LANGUAGE SQL STRICT;
```

The real tables we need in the first two rule system descriptions are these:

```
CREATE TABLE shoe_data (
    shoename  text,           -- primary key
    sh_avail  integer,       -- available number of pairs
    slcolor   text,         -- preferred shoelace color
    slminlen  real,         -- minimum shoelace length
    slmaxlen  real,         -- maximum shoelace length
    slunit    text          -- length unit
);

CREATE TABLE shoelace_data (
    sl_name   text,         -- primary key
    sl_avail  integer,     -- available number of pairs
    sl_color  text,        -- shoelace color
    sl_len    real,        -- shoelace length
    sl_unit   text         -- length unit
);

CREATE TABLE unit (
    un_name   text,        -- primary key
    un_fact   real         -- factor to transform to cm
);
```

As you can see, they represent shoe-store data.

The views are created as

```
CREATE VIEW shoe AS
    SELECT sh.shoename,
           sh.sh_avail,
           sh.slcolor,
           sh.slminlen,
           sh.slminlen * un.un_fact AS slminlen_cm,
           sh.slmaxlen,
           sh.slmaxlen * un.un_fact AS slmaxlen_cm,
           sh.slunit
    FROM shoe_data sh, unit un
    WHERE sh.slunit = un.un_name;

CREATE VIEW shoelace AS
    SELECT s.sl_name,
           s.sl_avail,
           s.sl_color,
           s.sl_len,
           s.sl_unit,
           s.sl_len * u.un_fact AS sl_len_cm
    FROM shoelace_data s, unit u
    WHERE s.sl_unit = u.un_name;

CREATE VIEW shoe_ready AS
    SELECT rsh.shoename,
           rsh.sh_avail,
           rsl.sl_name,
```

```

        rsl.sl_avail,
        min(rsh.sh_avail, rsl.sl_avail) AS total_avail
FROM shoe rsh, shoelace rsl
WHERE rsl.sl_color = rsh.slcolor
      AND rsl.sl_len_cm >= rsh.slminlen_cm
      AND rsl.sl_len_cm <= rsh.slmaxlen_cm;

```

The CREATE VIEW command for the shoelace view (which is the simplest one we have) will create a relation shoelace and an entry in pg_rewrite that tells that there is a rewrite rule that must be applied whenever the relation shoelace is referenced in a query's range table. The rule has no rule qualification (discussed later, with the non-SELECT rules, since SELECT rules currently cannot have them) and it is INSTEAD. Note that rule qualifications are not the same as query qualifications. The action of our rule has a query qualification. The action of the rule is one query tree that is a copy of the SELECT statement in the view creation command.

Note: The two extra range table entries for NEW and OLD (named *NEW* and *OLD* for historical reasons in the printed query tree) you can see in the pg_rewrite entry aren't of interest for SELECT rules.

Now we populate unit, shoe_data and shoelace_data and run a simple query on a view:

```

INSERT INTO unit VALUES ('cm', 1.0);
INSERT INTO unit VALUES ('m', 100.0);
INSERT INTO unit VALUES ('inch', 2.54);

INSERT INTO shoe_data VALUES ('sh1', 2, 'black', 70.0, 90.0, 'cm');
INSERT INTO shoe_data VALUES ('sh2', 0, 'black', 30.0, 40.0, 'inch');
INSERT INTO shoe_data VALUES ('sh3', 4, 'brown', 50.0, 65.0, 'cm');
INSERT INTO shoe_data VALUES ('sh4', 3, 'brown', 40.0, 50.0, 'inch');

INSERT INTO shoelace_data VALUES ('sl1', 5, 'black', 80.0, 'cm');
INSERT INTO shoelace_data VALUES ('sl2', 6, 'black', 100.0, 'cm');
INSERT INTO shoelace_data VALUES ('sl3', 0, 'black', 35.0, 'inch');
INSERT INTO shoelace_data VALUES ('sl4', 8, 'black', 40.0, 'inch');
INSERT INTO shoelace_data VALUES ('sl5', 4, 'brown', 1.0, 'm');
INSERT INTO shoelace_data VALUES ('sl6', 0, 'brown', 0.9, 'm');
INSERT INTO shoelace_data VALUES ('sl7', 7, 'brown', 60, 'cm');
INSERT INTO shoelace_data VALUES ('sl8', 1, 'brown', 40, 'inch');

SELECT * FROM shoelace;

```

sl_name	sl_avail	sl_color	sl_len	sl_unit	sl_len_cm
sl1	5	black	80	cm	80
sl2	6	black	100	cm	100
sl7	7	brown	60	cm	60
sl3	0	black	35	inch	88.9
sl4	8	black	40	inch	101.6
sl8	1	brown	40	inch	101.6
sl5	4	brown	1	m	100
sl6	0	brown	0.9	m	90

(8 rows)

This is the simplest SELECT you can do on our views, so we take this opportunity to explain the basics of view rules. The SELECT * FROM shoelace was interpreted by the parser and produced the query tree

```
SELECT shoelace.sl_name, shoelace.sl_avail,
       shoelace.sl_color, shoelace.sl_len,
       shoelace.sl_unit, shoelace.sl_len_cm
FROM shoelace shoelace;
```

and this is given to the rule system. The rule system walks through the range table and checks if there are rules for any relation. When processing the range table entry for shoelace (the only one up to now) it finds the _RETURN rule with the query tree

```
SELECT s.sl_name, s.sl_avail,
       s.sl_color, s.sl_len, s.sl_unit,
       s.sl_len * u.un_fact AS sl_len_cm
FROM shoelace *OLD*, shoelace *NEW*,
     shoelace_data s, unit u
WHERE s.sl_unit = u.un_name;
```

To expand the view, the rewriter simply creates a subquery range-table entry containing the rule's action query tree, and substitutes this range table entry for the original one that referenced the view. The resulting rewritten query tree is almost the same as if you had typed

```
SELECT shoelace.sl_name, shoelace.sl_avail,
       shoelace.sl_color, shoelace.sl_len,
       shoelace.sl_unit, shoelace.sl_len_cm
FROM (SELECT s.sl_name,
            s.sl_avail,
            s.sl_color,
            s.sl_len,
            s.sl_unit,
            s.sl_len * u.un_fact AS sl_len_cm
      FROM shoelace_data s, unit u
      WHERE s.sl_unit = u.un_name) shoelace;
```

There is one difference however: the subquery's range table has two extra entries shoelace *OLD* and shoelace *NEW*. These entries don't participate directly in the query, since they aren't referenced by the subquery's join tree or target list. The rewriter uses them to store the access privilege check information that was originally present in the range-table entry that referenced the view. In this way, the executor will still check that the user has proper privileges to access the view, even though there's no direct use of the view in the rewritten query.

That was the first rule applied. The rule system will continue checking the remaining range-table entries in the top query (in this example there are no more), and it will recursively check the range-table entries in the added subquery to see if any of them reference views. (But it won't expand *OLD* or *NEW* — otherwise we'd have infinite recursion!) In this example, there are no rewrite rules for shoelace_data or unit, so rewriting is complete and the above is the final result given to the planner.

No we want to write a query that finds out for which shoes currently in the store we have the matching shoelaces (color and length) and where the total number of exactly matching pairs is greater or equal to two.

```
SELECT * FROM shoe_ready WHERE total_avail >= 2;
```

shoename	sh_avail	sl_name	sl_avail	total_avail
sh1	2	sl1	5	2
sh3	4	sl7	7	4

(2 rows)

The output of the parser this time is the query tree

```
SELECT shoe_ready.shoename, shoe_ready.sh_avail,
       shoe_ready.sl_name, shoe_ready.sl_avail,
       shoe_ready.total_avail
FROM shoe_ready shoe_ready
WHERE shoe_ready.total_avail >= 2;
```

The first rule applied will be the one for the shoe_ready view and it results in the query tree

```
SELECT shoe_ready.shoename, shoe_ready.sh_avail,
       shoe_ready.sl_name, shoe_ready.sl_avail,
       shoe_ready.total_avail
FROM (SELECT rsh.shoename,
            rsh.sh_avail,
            rsl.sl_name,
            rsl.sl_avail,
            min(rsh.sh_avail, rsl.sl_avail) AS total_avail
      FROM shoe rsh, shoelace rsl
      WHERE rsl.sl_color = rsh.slcolor
            AND rsl.sl_len_cm >= rsh.slminlen_cm
            AND rsl.sl_len_cm <= rsh.slmaxlen_cm) shoe_ready
WHERE shoe_ready.total_avail >= 2;
```

Similarly, the rules for shoe and shoelace are substituted into the range table of the subquery, leading to a three-level final query tree:

```
SELECT shoe_ready.shoename, shoe_ready.sh_avail,
       shoe_ready.sl_name, shoe_ready.sl_avail,
       shoe_ready.total_avail
FROM (SELECT rsh.shoename,
            rsh.sh_avail,
            rsl.sl_name,
            rsl.sl_avail,
            min(rsh.sh_avail, rsl.sl_avail) AS total_avail
      FROM (SELECT sh.shoename,
                  sh.sh_avail,
                  sh.slcolor,
                  sh.slminlen,
                  sh.slminlen * un.un_fact AS slminlen_cm,
```

```

        sh.slmaxlen,
        sh.slmaxlen * un.un_fact AS slmaxlen_cm,
        sh.slunit
    FROM shoe_data sh, unit un
    WHERE sh.slunit = un.un_name) rsh,
    (SELECT s.sl_name,
        s.sl_avail,
        s.sl_color,
        s.sl_len,
        s.sl_unit,
        s.sl_len * u.un_fact AS sl_len_cm
    FROM shoelace_data s, unit u
    WHERE s.sl_unit = u.un_name) rsl
    WHERE rsl.sl_color = rsh.slcolor
        AND rsl.sl_len_cm >= rsh.slminlen_cm
        AND rsl.sl_len_cm <= rsh.slmaxlen_cm) shoe_ready
    WHERE shoe_ready.total_avail > 2;

```

It turns out that the planner will collapse this tree into a two-level query tree: the bottommost `SELECT` commands will be “pulled up” into the middle `SELECT` since there’s no need to process them separately. But the middle `SELECT` will remain separate from the top, because it contains aggregate functions. If we pulled those up it would change the behavior of the topmost `SELECT`, which we don’t want. However, collapsing the query tree is an optimization that the rewrite system doesn’t have to concern itself with.

Note: There is currently no recursion stopping mechanism for view rules in the rule system (only for the other kinds of rules). This doesn’t hurt much, because the only way to push this into an endless loop (bloating up the server process until it reaches the memory limit) is to create tables and then setup the view rules by hand with `CREATE RULE` in such a way, that one selects from the other that selects from the one. This could never happen if `CREATE VIEW` is used because for the first `CREATE VIEW`, the second relation does not exist and thus the first view cannot select from the second.

33.2.2. View Rules in Non-`SELECT` Statements

Two details of the query tree aren’t touched in the description of view rules above. These are the command type and the result relation. In fact, view rules don’t need this information.

There are only a few differences between a query tree for a `SELECT` and one for any other command. Obviously, they have a different command type and for a command other than a `SELECT`, the result relation points to the range-table entry where the result should go. Everything else is absolutely the same. So having two tables `t1` and `t2` with columns `a` and `b`, the query trees for the two statements

```
SELECT t2.b FROM t1, t2 WHERE t1.a = t2.a;
```

```
UPDATE t1 SET b = t2.b WHERE t1.a = t2.a;
```

are nearly identical. In particular:

- The range tables contain entries for the tables `t1` and `t2`.
- The target lists contain one variable that points to column `b` of the range table entry for table `t2`.
- The qualification expressions compare the columns `a` of both range-table entries for equality.
- The join trees show a simple join between `t1` and `t2`.

The consequence is, that both query trees result in similar execution plans: They are both joins over the two tables. For the `UPDATE` the missing columns from `t1` are added to the target list by the planner and the final query tree will read as

```
UPDATE t1 SET a = t1.a, b = t2.b WHERE t1.a = t2.a;
```

and thus the executor run over the join will produce exactly the same result set as a

```
SELECT t1.a, t2.b FROM t1, t2 WHERE t1.a = t2.a;
```

will do. But there is a little problem in `UPDATE`: The executor does not care what the results from the join it is doing are meant for. It just produces a result set of rows. The difference that one is a `SELECT` command and the other is an `UPDATE` is handled in the caller of the executor. The caller still knows (looking at the query tree) that this is an `UPDATE`, and it knows that this result should go into table `t1`. But which of the rows that are there has to be replaced by the new row?

To resolve this problem, another entry is added to the target list in `UPDATE` (and also in `DELETE`) statements: the current tuple ID (CTID). This is a system column containing the file block number and position in the block for the row. Knowing the table, the CTID can be used to retrieve the original row of `t1` to be updated. After adding the CTID to the target list, the query actually looks like

```
SELECT t1.a, t2.b, t1.ctid FROM t1, t2 WHERE t1.a = t2.a;
```

Now another detail of PostgreSQL enters the stage. Old table rows aren't overwritten, and this is why `ROLLBACK` is fast. In an `UPDATE`, the new result row is inserted into the table (after stripping the CTID) and in the row header of the old row, which the CTID pointed to, the `cmx` and `xmx` entries are set to the current command counter and current transaction ID. Thus the old row is hidden, and after the transaction committed the vacuum cleaner can really move it out.

Knowing all that, we can simply apply view rules in absolutely the same way to any command. There is no difference.

33.2.3. The Power of Views in PostgreSQL

The above demonstrates how the rule system incorporates view definitions into the original query tree. In the second example, a simple `SELECT` from one view created a final query tree that is a join of 4 tables (`unit` was used twice with different names).

The benefit of implementing views with the rule system is, that the planner has all the information about which tables have to be scanned plus the relationships between these tables plus the restrictive qualifications from the views plus the qualifications from the original query in one single query tree. And this is still the situation when the original query is already a join over views. The planner has to decide which is the best path to execute the query, and the more information the planner has, the better this decision

can be. And the rule system as implemented in PostgreSQL ensures, that this is all information available about the query up to that point.

33.2.4. Updating a View

What happens if a view is named as the target relation for an `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE`? After doing the substitutions described above, we will have a query tree in which the result relation points at a subquery range-table entry. This will not work, so the rewriter throws an error if it sees it has produced such a thing.

To change this, we can define rules that modify the behavior of these kinds of commands. This is the topic of the next section.

33.3. Rules on `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE`

Rules that are defined on `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` are significantly different from the view rules described in the previous section. First, their `CREATE RULE` command allows more:

- They are allowed to have no action.
- They can have multiple actions.
- They can be `INSTEAD` or `ALSO` (default).
- The pseudorelations `NEW` and `OLD` become useful.
- They can have rule qualifications.

Second, they don't modify the query tree in place. Instead they create zero or more new query trees and can throw away the original one.

33.3.1. How Update Rules Work

Keep the syntax

```
CREATE RULE rule_name AS ON event
    TO object [WHERE rule_qualification]
    DO [ALSO|INSTEAD] [action | (actions) | NOTHING];
```

in mind. In the following, *update rules* means rules that are defined on `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE`.

Update rules get applied by the rule system when the result relation and the command type of a query tree are equal to the object and event given in the `CREATE RULE` command. For update rules, the rule system creates a list of query trees. Initially the query-tree list is empty. There can be zero (`NOTHING` key word), one, or multiple actions. To simplify, we will look at a rule with one action. This rule can have a qualification or not and it can be `INSTEAD` or `ALSO` (default).

What is a rule qualification? It is a restriction that tells when the actions of the rule should be done and when not. This qualification can only reference the pseudorelations `NEW` and/or `OLD`, which basically represent the relation that was given as object (but with a special meaning).

So we have four cases that produce the following query trees for a one-action rule.

No qualification and `ALSO`

the query tree from the rule action with the original query tree's qualification added

No qualification but `INSTEAD`

the query tree from the rule action with the original query tree's qualification added

Qualification given and `ALSO`

the query tree from the rule action with the rule qualification and the original query tree's qualification added

Qualification given and `INSTEAD`

the query tree from the rule action with the rule qualification and the original query tree's qualification; and the original query tree with the negated rule qualification added

Finally, if the rule is `ALSO`, the unchanged original query tree is added to the list. Since only qualified `INSTEAD` rules already add the original query tree, we end up with either one or two output query trees for a rule with one action.

For `ON INSERT` rules, the original query (if not suppressed by `INSTEAD`) is done before any actions added by rules. This allows the actions to see the inserted row(s). But for `ON UPDATE` and `ON DELETE` rules, the original query is done after the actions added by rules. This ensures that the actions can see the to-be-updated or to-be-deleted rows; otherwise, the actions might do nothing because they find no rows matching their qualifications.

The query trees generated from rule actions are thrown into the rewrite system again, and maybe more rules get applied resulting in more or less query trees. So the query trees in the rule actions must have either a different command type or a different result relation, otherwise, this recursive process will end up in a loop. There is a fixed recursion limit of currently 100 iterations. If after 100 iterations there are still update rules to apply, the rule system assumes a loop over multiple rule definitions and reports an error.

The query trees found in the actions of the `pg_rewrite` system catalog are only templates. Since they can reference the range-table entries for `NEW` and `OLD`, some substitutions have to be made before they can be used. For any reference to `NEW`, the target list of the original query is searched for a corresponding entry. If found, that entry's expression replaces the reference. Otherwise, `NEW` means the same as `OLD` (for an `UPDATE`) or is replaced by a null value (for an `INSERT`). Any reference to `OLD` is replaced by a reference to the range-table entry that is the result relation.

After the system is done applying update rules, it applies view rules to the produced query tree(s). Views cannot insert new update actions so there is no need to apply update rules to the output of view rewriting.

33.3.1.1. A First Rule Step by Step

Say we want to trace changes to the `sl_avail` column in the `shoelace_data` relation. So we set up a log table and a rule that conditionally writes a log entry when an `UPDATE` is performed on `shoelace_data`.

```
CREATE TABLE shoelace_log (
    sl_name    text,          -- shoelace changed
    sl_avail   integer,      -- new available value
    log_who    text,         -- who did it
    log_when   timestamp     -- when
);
```

```
CREATE RULE log_shoelace AS ON UPDATE TO shoelace_data
  WHERE NEW.sl_avail <> OLD.sl_avail
  DO INSERT INTO shoelace_log VALUES (
    NEW.sl_name,
    NEW.sl_avail,
    current_user,
    current_timestamp
  );
```

Now someone does:

```
UPDATE shoelace_data SET sl_avail = 6 WHERE sl_name = 'sl7';
```

and we look at the log table:

```
SELECT * FROM shoelace_log;

sl_name | sl_avail | log_who | log_when
-----+-----+-----+-----
sl7     |        6 | Al      | Tue Oct 20 16:14:45 1998 MET DST
(1 row)
```

That's what we expected. What happened in the background is the following. The parser created the query tree

```
UPDATE shoelace_data SET sl_avail = 6
  FROM shoelace_data shoelace_data
  WHERE shoelace_data.sl_name = 'sl7';
```

There is a rule `log_shoelace` that is ON UPDATE with the rule qualification expression

```
NEW.sl_avail <> OLD.sl_avail
```

and the action

```
INSERT INTO shoelace_log VALUES (
  *NEW*.sl_name, *NEW*.sl_avail,
  current_user, current_timestamp )
  FROM shoelace_data *NEW*, shoelace_data *OLD*;
```

(This looks a little strange since you can't normally write `INSERT ... VALUES ... FROM`. The `FROM` clause here is just to indicate that there are range-table entries in the query tree for `*NEW*` and `*OLD*`. These are needed so that they can be referenced by variables in the `INSERT` command's query tree.)

The rule is a qualified `ALSO` rule, so the rule system has to return two query trees: the modified rule action and the original query tree. In step 1, the range table of the original query is incorporated into the rule's action query tree. This results in:

```
INSERT INTO shoelace_log VALUES (
  *NEW*.sl_name, *NEW*.sl_avail,
```

```

        current_user, current_timestamp )
FROM shoelace_data *NEW*, shoelace_data *OLD*,
    shoelace_data shoelace_data;

```

In step 2, the rule qualification is added to it, so the result set is restricted to rows where `sl_avail` changes:

```

INSERT INTO shoelace_log VALUES (
    *NEW*.sl_name, *NEW*.sl_avail,
    current_user, current_timestamp )
FROM shoelace_data *NEW*, shoelace_data *OLD*,
    shoelace_data shoelace_data
WHERE *NEW*.sl_avail <> *OLD*.sl_avail;

```

(This looks even stranger, since `INSERT ... VALUES` doesn't have a `WHERE` clause either, but the planner and executor will have no difficulty with it. They need to support this same functionality anyway for `INSERT ... SELECT`.)

In step 3, the original query tree's qualification is added, restricting the result set further to only the rows that would have been touched by the original query:

```

INSERT INTO shoelace_log VALUES (
    *NEW*.sl_name, *NEW*.sl_avail,
    current_user, current_timestamp )
FROM shoelace_data *NEW*, shoelace_data *OLD*,
    shoelace_data shoelace_data
WHERE *NEW*.sl_avail <> *OLD*.sl_avail
    AND shoelace_data.sl_name = 'sl7';

```

Step 4 replaces references to `NEW` by the target list entries from the original query tree or by the matching variable references from the result relation:

```

INSERT INTO shoelace_log VALUES (
    shoelace_data.sl_name, 6,
    current_user, current_timestamp )
FROM shoelace_data *NEW*, shoelace_data *OLD*,
    shoelace_data shoelace_data
WHERE 6 <> *OLD*.sl_avail
    AND shoelace_data.sl_name = 'sl7';

```

Step 5 changes `OLD` references into result relation references:

```

INSERT INTO shoelace_log VALUES (
    shoelace_data.sl_name, 6,
    current_user, current_timestamp )
FROM shoelace_data *NEW*, shoelace_data *OLD*,
    shoelace_data shoelace_data
WHERE 6 <> shoelace_data.sl_avail
    AND shoelace_data.sl_name = 'sl7';

```

That's it. Since the rule is ALSO, we also output the original query tree. In short, the output from the rule system is a list of two query trees that correspond to these statements:

```
INSERT INTO shoelace_log VALUES (
    shoelace_data.sl_name, 6,
    current_user, current_timestamp )
FROM shoelace_data
WHERE 6 <> shoelace_data.sl_avail
    AND shoelace_data.sl_name = 'sl7';

UPDATE shoelace_data SET sl_avail = 6
WHERE sl_name = 'sl7';
```

These are executed in this order, and that is exactly what the rule was meant to do.

The substitutions and the added qualifications ensure that, if the original query would be, say,

```
UPDATE shoelace_data SET sl_color = 'green'
WHERE sl_name = 'sl7';
```

no log entry would get written. In that case, the original query tree does not contain a target list entry for `sl_avail`, so `NEW.sl_avail` will get replaced by `shoelace_data.sl_avail`. Thus, the extra command generated by the rule is

```
INSERT INTO shoelace_log VALUES (
    shoelace_data.sl_name, shoelace_data.sl_avail,
    current_user, current_timestamp )
FROM shoelace_data
WHERE shoelace_data.sl_avail <> shoelace_data.sl_avail
    AND shoelace_data.sl_name = 'sl7';
```

and that qualification will never be true.

It will also work if the original query modifies multiple rows. So if someone issued the command

```
UPDATE shoelace_data SET sl_avail = 0
WHERE sl_color = 'black';
```

four rows in fact get updated (`s11`, `s12`, `s13`, and `s14`). But `s13` already has `sl_avail = 0`. In this case, the original query trees qualification is different and that results in the extra query tree

```
INSERT INTO shoelace_log
SELECT shoelace_data.sl_name, 0,
    current_user, current_timestamp
FROM shoelace_data
WHERE 0 <> shoelace_data.sl_avail
    AND shoelace_data.sl_color = 'black';
```

being generated by the rule. This query tree will surely insert three new log entries. And that's absolutely correct.

Here we can see why it is important that the original query tree is executed last. If the `UPDATE` had been executed first, all the rows would have already been set to zero, so the logging `INSERT` would not find any row where `0 <> shoelace_data.sl_avail`.

33.3.2. Cooperation with Views

A simple way to protect view relations from the mentioned possibility that someone can try to run INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE on them is to let those query trees get thrown away. So we create the rules

```
CREATE RULE shoe_ins_protect AS ON INSERT TO shoe
DO INSTEAD NOTHING;
CREATE RULE shoe_upd_protect AS ON UPDATE TO shoe
DO INSTEAD NOTHING;
CREATE RULE shoe_del_protect AS ON DELETE TO shoe
DO INSTEAD NOTHING;
```

If someone now tries to do any of these operations on the view relation `shoe`, the rule system will apply these rules. Since the rules have no actions and are `INSTEAD`, the resulting list of query trees will be empty and the whole query will become nothing because there is nothing left to be optimized or executed after the rule system is done with it.

A more sophisticated way to use the rule system is to create rules that rewrite the query tree into one that does the right operation on the real tables. To do that on the `shoelace` view, we create the following rules:

```
CREATE RULE shoelace_ins AS ON INSERT TO shoelace
DO INSTEAD
INSERT INTO shoelace_data VALUES (
    NEW.sl_name,
    NEW.sl_avail,
    NEW.sl_color,
    NEW.sl_len,
    NEW.sl_unit
);

CREATE RULE shoelace_upd AS ON UPDATE TO shoelace
DO INSTEAD
UPDATE shoelace_data
SET sl_name = NEW.sl_name,
    sl_avail = NEW.sl_avail,
    sl_color = NEW.sl_color,
    sl_len = NEW.sl_len,
    sl_unit = NEW.sl_unit
WHERE sl_name = OLD.sl_name;

CREATE RULE shoelace_del AS ON DELETE TO shoelace
DO INSTEAD
DELETE FROM shoelace_data
WHERE sl_name = OLD.sl_name;
```

Now assume that once in a while, a pack of shoelaces arrives at the shop and a big parts list along with it. But you don't want to manually update the `shoelace` view every time. Instead we setup two little tables: one where you can insert the items from the part list, and one with a special trick. The creation commands for these are:

```
CREATE TABLE shoelace_arrive (
```

```

        arr_name    text,
        arr_quant   integer
    );

CREATE TABLE shoelace_ok (
    ok_name    text,
    ok_quant   integer
);

CREATE RULE shoelace_ok_ins AS ON INSERT TO shoelace_ok
DO INSTEAD
UPDATE shoelace
    SET sl_avail = sl_avail + NEW.ok_quant
    WHERE sl_name = NEW.ok_name;

```

Now you can fill the table `shoelace_arrive` with the data from the parts list:

```
SELECT * FROM shoelace_arrive;
```

arr_name	arr_quant
s13	10
s16	20
s18	20

(3 rows)

Take a quick look at the current data:

```
SELECT * FROM shoelace;
```

sl_name	sl_avail	sl_color	sl_len	sl_unit	sl_len_cm
s11	5	black	80	cm	80
s12	6	black	100	cm	100
s17	6	brown	60	cm	60
s13	0	black	35	inch	88.9
s14	8	black	40	inch	101.6
s18	1	brown	40	inch	101.6
s15	4	brown	1	m	100
s16	0	brown	0.9	m	90

(8 rows)

Now move the arrived shoelaces in:

```
INSERT INTO shoelace_ok SELECT * FROM shoelace_arrive;
```

and check the results:

```
SELECT * FROM shoelace ORDER BY sl_name;
```

sl_name	sl_avail	sl_color	sl_len	sl_unit	sl_len_cm
s11	5	black	80	cm	80
s12	6	black	100	cm	100

```

s17      |          6 | brown   |          60 | cm      |          60
s14      |          8 | black   |          40 | inch    |         101.6
s13      |         10 | black   |          35 | inch    |          88.9
s18      |         21 | brown   |          40 | inch    |         101.6
s15      |          4 | brown   |           1 | m       |          100
s16      |         20 | brown   |          0.9 | m       |           90
(8 rows)

```

```
SELECT * FROM shoelace_log;
```

```

s1_name | sl_avail | log_who | log_when
-----+-----+-----+-----
s17     |         6 | Al      | Tue Oct 20 19:14:45 1998 MET DST
s13     |        10 | Al      | Tue Oct 20 19:25:16 1998 MET DST
s16     |        20 | Al      | Tue Oct 20 19:25:16 1998 MET DST
s18     |        21 | Al      | Tue Oct 20 19:25:16 1998 MET DST
(4 rows)

```

It's a long way from the one `INSERT ... SELECT` to these results. And the description of the query-tree transformation will be the last in this chapter. First, there is the parser's output

```

INSERT INTO shoelace_ok
SELECT shoelace_arrive.arr_name, shoelace_arrive.arr_quant
FROM shoelace_arrive shoelace_arrive, shoelace_ok shoelace_ok;

```

Now the first rule `shoelace_ok_ins` is applied and turns this into

```

UPDATE shoelace
SET sl_avail = shoelace.sl_avail + shoelace_arrive.arr_quant
FROM shoelace_arrive shoelace_arrive, shoelace_ok shoelace_ok,
shoelace_ok *OLD*, shoelace_ok *NEW*,
shoelace shoelace
WHERE shoelace.sl_name = shoelace_arrive.arr_name;

```

and throws away the original `INSERT` on `shoelace_ok`. This rewritten query is passed to the rule system again, and the second applied rule `shoelace_upd` produces

```

UPDATE shoelace_data
SET sl_name = shoelace.sl_name,
sl_avail = shoelace.sl_avail + shoelace_arrive.arr_quant,
sl_color = shoelace.sl_color,
sl_len = shoelace.sl_len,
sl_unit = shoelace.sl_unit
FROM shoelace_arrive shoelace_arrive, shoelace_ok shoelace_ok,
shoelace_ok *OLD*, shoelace_ok *NEW*,
shoelace shoelace, shoelace *OLD*,
shoelace *NEW*, shoelace_data shoelace_data
WHERE shoelace.sl_name = shoelace_arrive.arr_name
AND shoelace_data.sl_name = shoelace.sl_name;

```

Again it's an INSTEAD rule and the previous query tree is trashed. Note that this query still uses the view shoelace. But the rule system isn't finished with this step, so it continues and applies the `_RETURN` rule on it, and we get

```
UPDATE shoelace_data
  SET sl_name = s.sl_name,
      sl_avail = s.sl_avail + shoelace_arrive.arr_quant,
      sl_color = s.sl_color,
      sl_len = s.sl_len,
      sl_unit = s.sl_unit
  FROM shoelace_arrive shoelace_arrive, shoelace_ok shoelace_ok,
       shoelace_ok *OLD*, shoelace_ok *NEW*,
       shoelace shoelace, shoelace *OLD*,
       shoelace *NEW*, shoelace_data shoelace_data,
       shoelace *OLD*, shoelace *NEW*,
       shoelace_data s, unit u
 WHERE s.sl_name = shoelace_arrive.arr_name
       AND shoelace_data.sl_name = s.sl_name;
```

Finally, the rule `log_shoelace` gets applied, producing the extra query tree

```
INSERT INTO shoelace_log
SELECT s.sl_name,
       s.sl_avail + shoelace_arrive.arr_quant,
       current_user,
       current_timestamp
  FROM shoelace_arrive shoelace_arrive, shoelace_ok shoelace_ok,
       shoelace_ok *OLD*, shoelace_ok *NEW*,
       shoelace shoelace, shoelace *OLD*,
       shoelace *NEW*, shoelace_data shoelace_data,
       shoelace *OLD*, shoelace *NEW*,
       shoelace_data s, unit u,
       shoelace_data *OLD*, shoelace_data *NEW*
       shoelace_log shoelace_log
 WHERE s.sl_name = shoelace_arrive.arr_name
       AND shoelace_data.sl_name = s.sl_name
       AND (s.sl_avail + shoelace_arrive.arr_quant) <> s.sl_avail;
```

After that the rule system runs out of rules and returns the generated query trees.

So we end up with two final query trees that are equivalent to the SQL statements

```
INSERT INTO shoelace_log
SELECT s.sl_name,
       s.sl_avail + shoelace_arrive.arr_quant,
       current_user,
       current_timestamp
  FROM shoelace_arrive shoelace_arrive, shoelace_data shoelace_data,
       shoelace_data s
 WHERE s.sl_name = shoelace_arrive.arr_name
       AND shoelace_data.sl_name = s.sl_name
       AND s.sl_avail + shoelace_arrive.arr_quant <> s.sl_avail;

UPDATE shoelace_data
```

```

SET sl_avail = shoelace_data.sl_avail + shoelace_arrive.arr_quant
FROM shoelace_arrive shoelace_arrive,
     shoelace_data shoelace_data,
     shoelace_data s
WHERE s.sl_name = shoelace_arrive.sl_name
     AND shoelace_data.sl_name = s.sl_name;

```

The result is that data coming from one relation inserted into another, changed into updates on a third, changed into updating a fourth plus logging that final update in a fifth gets reduced into two queries.

There is a little detail that's a bit ugly. Looking at the two queries, it turns out that the `shoelace_data` relation appears twice in the range table where it could definitely be reduced to one. The planner does not handle it and so the execution plan for the rule systems output of the `INSERT` will be

```

Nested Loop
-> Merge Join
    -> Seq Scan
        -> Sort
            -> Seq Scan on s
    -> Seq Scan
        -> Sort
            -> Seq Scan on shoelace_arrive
-> Seq Scan on shoelace_data

```

while omitting the extra range table entry would result in a

```

Merge Join
-> Seq Scan
    -> Sort
        -> Seq Scan on s
-> Seq Scan
    -> Sort
        -> Seq Scan on shoelace_arrive

```

which produces exactly the same entries in the log table. Thus, the rule system caused one extra scan on the table `shoelace_data` that is absolutely not necessary. And the same redundant scan is done once more in the `UPDATE`. But it was a really hard job to make that all possible at all.

Now we make a final demonstration of the PostgreSQL rule system and its power. Say you add some shoelaces with extraordinary colors to your database:

```

INSERT INTO shoelace VALUES ('sl9', 0, 'pink', 35.0, 'inch', 0.0);
INSERT INTO shoelace VALUES ('sl10', 1000, 'magenta', 40.0, 'inch', 0.0);

```

We would like to make a view to check which `shoelace` entries do not fit any shoe in color. The view for this is

```

CREATE VIEW shoelace_mismatch AS
SELECT * FROM shoelace WHERE NOT EXISTS
    (SELECT shoename FROM shoe WHERE slcolor = sl_color);

```

Its output is

```

SELECT * FROM shoelace_mismatch;

```

sl_name	sl_avail	sl_color	sl_len	sl_unit	sl_len_cm
s19	0	pink	35	inch	88.9
s110	1000	magenta	40	inch	101.6

Now we want to set it up so that mismatching shoelaces that are not in stock are deleted from the database. To make it a little harder for PostgreSQL, we don't delete it directly. Instead we create one more view

```
CREATE VIEW shoelace_can_delete AS
  SELECT * FROM shoelace_mismatch WHERE sl_avail = 0;
```

and do it this way:

```
DELETE FROM shoelace WHERE EXISTS
  (SELECT * FROM shoelace_can_delete
   WHERE sl_name = shoelace.sl_name);
```

Voilà:

```
SELECT * FROM shoelace;
```

sl_name	sl_avail	sl_color	sl_len	sl_unit	sl_len_cm
s11	5	black	80	cm	80
s12	6	black	100	cm	100
s17	6	brown	60	cm	60
s14	8	black	40	inch	101.6
s13	10	black	35	inch	88.9
s18	21	brown	40	inch	101.6
s110	1000	magenta	40	inch	101.6
s15	4	brown	1	m	100
s16	20	brown	0.9	m	90

(9 rows)

A `DELETE` on a view, with a subquery qualification that in total uses 4 nesting/joined views, where one of them itself has a subquery qualification containing a view and where calculated view columns are used, gets rewritten into one single query tree that deletes the requested data from a real table.

There are probably only a few situations out in the real world where such a construct is necessary. But it makes you feel comfortable that it works.

33.4. Rules and Privileges

Due to rewriting of queries by the PostgreSQL rule system, other tables/views than those used in the original query get accessed. When update rules are used, this can include write access to tables.

Rewrite rules don't have a separate owner. The owner of a relation (table or view) is automatically the owner of the rewrite rules that are defined for it. The PostgreSQL rule system changes the behavior of the default access control system. Relations that are used due to rules get checked against the privileges of the rule owner, not the user invoking the rule. This means that a user only needs the required privileges for the tables/views that he names explicitly in his queries.

For example: A user has a list of phone numbers where some of them are private, the others are of interest for the secretary of the office. He can construct the following:

```
CREATE TABLE phone_data (person text, phone text, private boolean);
CREATE VIEW phone_number AS
    SELECT person, phone FROM phone_data WHERE NOT private;
GRANT SELECT ON phone_number TO secretary;
```

Nobody except him (and the database superusers) can access the `phone_data` table. But because of the `GRANT`, the secretary can run a `SELECT` on the `phone_number` view. The rule system will rewrite the `SELECT` from `phone_number` into a `SELECT` from `phone_data` and add the qualification that only entries where `private` is false are wanted. Since the user is the owner of `phone_number` and therefore the owner of the rule, the read access to `phone_data` is now checked against his privileges and the query is permitted. The check for accessing `phone_number` is also performed, but this is done against the invoking user, so nobody but the user and the secretary can use it.

The privileges are checked rule by rule. So the secretary is for now the only one who can see the public phone numbers. But the secretary can setup another view and grant access to that to the public. Then, anyone can see the `phone_number` data through the secretary's view. What the secretary cannot do is to create a view that directly accesses `phone_data`. (Actually he can, but it will not work since every access will be denied during the permission checks.) And as soon as the user will notice, that the secretary opened his `phone_number` view, he can revoke his access. Immediately, any access to the secretary's view would fail.

One might think that this rule-by-rule checking is a security hole, but in fact it isn't. But if it did not work this way, the secretary could set up a table with the same columns as `phone_number` and copy the data to there once per day. Then it's his own data and he can grant access to everyone he wants. A `GRANT` command means, "I trust you". If someone you trust does the thing above, it's time to think it over and then use `REVOKE`.

This mechanism also works for update rules. In the examples of the previous section, the owner of the tables in the example database could grant the privileges `SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` on the `shoelace` view to someone else, but only `SELECT` on `shoelace_log`. The rule action to write log entries will still be executed successfully, and that other user could see the log entries. But he cannot create fake entries, nor could he manipulate or remove existing ones.

33.5. Rules and Command Status

The PostgreSQL server returns a command status string, such as `INSERT 149592 1`, for each command it receives. This is simple enough when there are no rules involved, but what happens when the query is rewritten by rules?

Rules affect the command status as follows:

- If there is no unconditional `INSTEAD` rule for the query, then the originally given query will be executed, and its command status will be returned as usual. (But note that if there were any conditional `INSTEAD` rules, the negation of their qualifications will have been added to the original query. This may reduce the number of rows it processes, and if so the reported status will be affected.)
- If there is any unconditional `INSTEAD` rule for the query, then the original query will not be executed at all. In this case, the server will return the command status for the last query that was inserted by an `INSTEAD` rule (conditional or unconditional) and is of the same command type (`INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE`) as the original query. If no query meeting those requirements is added by any rule, then the returned command status shows the original query type and zeroes for the row-count and OID fields.

(This system was established in PostgreSQL 7.3. In versions before that, the command status might show different results when rules exist.)

The programmer can ensure that any desired `INSTEAD` rule is the one that sets the command status in the second case, by giving it the alphabetically last rule name among the active rules, so that it gets applied last.

33.6. Rules versus Triggers

Many things that can be done using triggers can also be implemented using the PostgreSQL rule system. One of the things that cannot be implemented by rules are some kinds of constraints, especially foreign keys. It is possible to place a qualified rule that rewrites a command to `NOTHING` if the value of a column does not appear in another table. But then the data is silently thrown away and that's not a good idea. If checks for valid values are required, and in the case of an invalid value an error message should be generated, it must be done by a trigger.

On the other hand, a trigger that is fired on `INSERT` on a view can do the same as a rule: put the data somewhere else and suppress the insert in the view. But it cannot do the same thing on `UPDATE` or `DELETE`, because there is no real data in the view relation that could be scanned, and thus the trigger would never get called. Only a rule will help.

For the things that can be implemented by both, which is best depends on the usage of the database. A trigger is fired for any affected row once. A rule manipulates the query or generates an additional query. So if many rows are affected in one statement, a rule issuing one extra command is likely to be faster than a trigger that is called for every single row and must execute its operations many times. However, the trigger approach is conceptually far simpler than the rule approach, and is easier for novices to get right.

Here we show an example of how the choice of rules versus triggers plays out in one situation. There are two tables:

```
CREATE TABLE computer (
    hostname      text,      -- indexed
    manufacturer  text      -- indexed
);

CREATE TABLE software (
    software      text,      -- indexed
    hostname      text      -- indexed
);
```

Both tables have many thousands of rows and the indexes on `hostname` are unique. The rule or trigger should implement a constraint that deletes rows from `software` that reference a deleted computer. The trigger would use this command:

```
DELETE FROM software WHERE hostname = $1;
```

Since the trigger is called for each individual row deleted from `computer`, it can prepare and save the plan for this command and pass the `hostname` value in the parameter. The rule would be written as

```
CREATE RULE computer_del AS ON DELETE TO computer
DO DELETE FROM software WHERE hostname = OLD.hostname;
```

Now we look at different types of deletes. In the case of a

```
DELETE FROM computer WHERE hostname = 'mypc.local.net';
```

the table `computer` is scanned by index (fast), and the command issued by the trigger would also use an index scan (also fast). The extra command from the rule would be

```
DELETE FROM software WHERE computer.hostname = 'mypc.local.net'
AND software.hostname = computer.hostname;
```

Since there are appropriate indexes setup, the planner will create a plan of

```
Nestloop
-> Index Scan using comp_hostidx on computer
-> Index Scan using soft_hostidx on software
```

So there would be not that much difference in speed between the trigger and the rule implementation.

With the next delete we want to get rid of all the 2000 computers where the `hostname` starts with `old`. There are two possible commands to do that. One is

```
DELETE FROM computer WHERE hostname >= 'old'
AND hostname < 'ole'
```

The command added by the rule will be

```
DELETE FROM software WHERE computer.hostname >= 'old' AND computer.hostname < 'ole'
AND software.hostname = computer.hostname;
```

with the plan

```
Hash Join
-> Seq Scan on software
-> Hash
-> Index Scan using comp_hostidx on computer
```

The other possible command is

```
DELETE FROM computer WHERE hostname ~ '^old';
```

which results in the following executing plan for the command added by the rule:

```
Nestloop
-> Index Scan using comp_hostidx on computer
-> Index Scan using soft_hostidx on software
```

This shows, that the planner does not realize that the qualification for `hostname` in `computer` could also be used for an index scan on `software` when there are multiple qualification expressions combined with `AND`, which is what it does in the regular-expression version of the command. The trigger will get invoked once for each of the 2000 old computers that have to be deleted, and that will result in one index scan over `computer` and 2000 index scans over `software`. The rule implementation will do it with two commands that use indexes. And it depends on the overall size of the table `software` whether the rule will still be faster in the sequential scan situation. 2000 command executions from the trigger over the SPI manager take some time, even if all the index blocks will soon be in the cache.

The last command we look at is

```
DELETE FROM computer WHERE manufacturer = 'bim';
```

Again this could result in many rows to be deleted from `computer`. So the trigger will again run many commands through the executor. The command generated by the rule will be

```
DELETE FROM software WHERE computer.manufacturer = 'bim'
AND software.hostname = computer.hostname;
```

The plan for that command will again be the nested loop over two index scans, only using a different index on `computer`:

```
Nestloop
-> Index Scan using comp_manufidx on computer
-> Index Scan using soft_hostidx on software
```

In any of these cases, the extra commands from the rule system will be more or less independent from the number of affected rows in a command.

The summary is, rules will only be significantly slower than triggers if their actions result in large and badly qualified joins, a situation where the planner fails.

Chapter 34. Procedural Languages

PostgreSQL allows user-defined functions to be written in other languages besides SQL and C. These other languages are generically called *procedural languages* (PLs). For a function written in a procedural language, the database server has no built-in knowledge about how to interpret the function's source text. Instead, the task is passed to a special handler that knows the details of the language. The handler could either do all the work of parsing, syntax analysis, execution, etc. itself, or it could serve as “glue” between PostgreSQL and an existing implementation of a programming language. The handler itself is a C language function compiled into a shared object and loaded on demand, just like any other C function.

There are currently four procedural languages available in the standard PostgreSQL distribution: PL/pgSQL (Chapter 35), PL/Tcl (Chapter 36), PL/Perl (Chapter 37), and PL/Python (Chapter 38). Other languages can be defined by users. The basics of developing a new procedural language are covered in Chapter 45.

There are additional procedural languages available that are not included in the core distribution. Appendix H has information about finding them.

34.1. Installing Procedural Languages

A procedural language must be “installed” into each database where it is to be used. But procedural languages installed in the database `template1` are automatically available in all subsequently created databases, since their entries in `template1` will be copied by `CREATE DATABASE`. So the database administrator can decide which languages are available in which databases and can make some languages available by default if he chooses.

For the languages supplied with the standard distribution, the program `createlang` may be used to install the language instead of carrying out the details by hand. For example, to install the language PL/pgSQL into the database `template1`, use

```
createlang plpgsql template1
```

The manual procedure described below is only recommended for installing custom languages that `createlang` does not know about.

Manual Procedural Language Installation

A procedural language is installed in a database in four steps, which must be carried out by a database superuser. The `createlang` program automates all but step 1.

1. The shared object for the language handler must be compiled and installed into an appropriate library directory. This works in the same way as building and installing modules with regular user-defined C functions does; see Section 31.9.6. Often, the language handler will depend on an external library that provides the actual programming language engine; if so, that must be installed as well.
2. The handler must be declared with the command

```
CREATE FUNCTION handler_function_name()
  RETURNS language_handler
  AS 'path-to-shared-object'
  LANGUAGE C;
```

The special return type of `language_handler` tells the database system that this function does not return one of the defined SQL data types and is not directly usable in SQL statements.

3. Optionally, the language handler may provide a “validator” function that checks a function definition for correctness without actually executing it. The validator function is called by `CREATE FUNCTION` if it exists. If a validator function is provided by the handler, declare it with a command like

```
CREATE FUNCTION validator_function_name(oid)
  RETURNS void
  AS 'path-to-shared-object'
  LANGUAGE C;
```

4. The PL must be declared with the command

```
CREATE [TRUSTED] [PROCEDURAL] LANGUAGE language-name
  HANDLER handler_function_name
  [VALIDATOR validator_function_name] ;
```

The optional key word `TRUSTED` specifies that ordinary database users that have no superuser privileges should be allowed to use this language to create functions and trigger procedures. Since PL functions are executed inside the database server, the `TRUSTED` flag should only be given for languages that do not allow access to database server internals or the file system. The languages PL/pgSQL, PL/Tcl, and PL/Perl are considered trusted; the languages PL/TclU, PL/PerlU, and PL/PythonU are designed to provide unlimited functionality and should *not* be marked trusted.

Example 34-1 shows how the manual installation procedure would work with the language PL/pgSQL.

Example 34-1. Manual Installation of PL/pgSQL

The following command tells the database server where to find the shared object for the PL/pgSQL language’s call handler function.

```
CREATE FUNCTION plpgsql_call_handler() RETURNS language_handler AS
  '$libdir/plpgsql' LANGUAGE C;
```

PL/pgSQL has a validator function, so we declare that too:

```
CREATE FUNCTION plpgsql_validator(oid) RETURNS void AS
  '$libdir/plpgsql' LANGUAGE C;
```

The command

```
CREATE TRUSTED PROCEDURAL LANGUAGE plpgsql
  HANDLER plpgsql_call_handler
  VALIDATOR plpgsql_validator;
```

then defines that the previously declared functions should be invoked for functions and trigger procedures where the language attribute is `plpgsql`.

In a default PostgreSQL installation, the handler for the PL/pgSQL language is built and installed into the “library” directory. If Tcl support is configured in, the handlers for PL/Tcl and PL/TclU are also built and installed in the same location. Likewise, the PL/Perl and PL/PerlU handlers are built and installed if Perl support is configured, and PL/PythonU is installed if Python support is configured.

Chapter 35. PL/pgSQL - SQL Procedural Language

PL/pgSQL is a loadable procedural language for the PostgreSQL database system. The design goals of PL/pgSQL were to create a loadable procedural language that

- can be used to create functions and trigger procedures,
- adds control structures to the SQL language,
- can perform complex computations,
- inherits all user-defined types, functions, and operators,
- can be defined to be trusted by the server,
- is easy to use.

Except for input/output conversion and calculation functions for user-defined types, anything that can be defined in C language functions can also be done with PL/pgSQL. For example, it is possible to create complex conditional computation functions and later use them to define operators or use them in index expressions.

35.1. Overview

The PL/pgSQL call handler parses the function's source text and produces an internal binary instruction tree the first time the function is called (within each session). The instruction tree fully translates the PL/pgSQL statement structure, but individual SQL expressions and SQL commands used in the function are not translated immediately.

As each expression and SQL command is first used in the function, the PL/pgSQL interpreter creates a prepared execution plan (using the SPI manager's `SPI_prepare` and `SPI_saveplan` functions). Subsequent visits to that expression or command reuse the prepared plan. Thus, a function with conditional code that contains many statements for which execution plans might be required will only prepare and save those plans that are really used during the lifetime of the database connection. This can substantially reduce the total amount of time required to parse, and generate execution plans for the statements in a PL/pgSQL function. A disadvantage is that errors in a specific expression or command may not be detected until that part of the function is reached in execution.

Once PL/pgSQL has made an execution plan for a particular command in a function, it will reuse that plan for the life of the database connection. This is usually a win for performance, but it can cause some problems if you dynamically alter your database schema. For example:

```
CREATE FUNCTION populate() RETURNS integer AS $$
DECLARE
    -- declarations
BEGIN
    PERFORM my_function();
```

```
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
```

If you execute the above function, it will reference the OID for `my_function()` in the execution plan produced for the `PERFORM` statement. Later, if you drop and recreate `my_function()`, then `populate()` will not be able to find `my_function()` anymore. You would then have to recreate `populate()`, or at least start a new database session so that it will be compiled afresh. Another way to avoid this problem is to use `CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION` when updating the definition of `my_function` (when a function is “replaced”, its OID is not changed).

Because PL/pgSQL saves execution plans in this way, SQL commands that appear directly in a PL/pgSQL function must refer to the same tables and columns on every execution; that is, you cannot use a parameter as the name of a table or column in an SQL command. To get around this restriction, you can construct dynamic commands using the PL/pgSQL `EXECUTE` statement — at the price of constructing a new execution plan on every execution.

Note: The PL/pgSQL `EXECUTE` statement is not related to the `EXECUTE SQL` statement supported by the PostgreSQL server. The server’s `EXECUTE` statement cannot be used within PL/pgSQL functions (and is not needed).

35.1.1. Advantages of Using PL/pgSQL

SQL is the language PostgreSQL and most other relational databases use as query language. It’s portable and easy to learn. But every SQL statement must be executed individually by the database server.

That means that your client application must send each query to the database server, wait for it to be processed, receive the results, do some computation, then send other queries to the server. All this incurs interprocess communication and may also incur network overhead if your client is on a different machine than the database server.

With PL/pgSQL you can group a block of computation and a series of queries *inside* the database server, thus having the power of a procedural language and the ease of use of SQL, but saving lots of time because you don’t have the whole client/server communication overhead. This can make for a considerable performance increase.

Also, with PL/pgSQL you can use all the data types, operators and functions of SQL.

35.1.2. Supported Argument and Result Data Types

Functions written in PL/pgSQL can accept as arguments any scalar or array data type supported by the server, and they can return a result of any of these types. They can also accept or return any composite type (row type) specified by name. It is also possible to declare a PL/pgSQL function as returning `record`, which means that the result is a row type whose columns are determined by specification in the calling query, as discussed in Section 7.2.1.4.

PL/pgSQL functions may also be declared to accept and return the polymorphic types `anyelement` and `anyarray`. The actual data types handled by a polymorphic function can vary from call to call, as discussed in Section 31.2.5. An example is shown in Section 35.4.1.

PL/pgSQL functions can also be declared to return a “set”, or table, of any data type they can return a single instance of. Such a function generates its output by executing `RETURN NEXT` for each desired element of the result set.

Finally, a PL/pgSQL function may be declared to return `void` if it has no useful return value.

PL/pgSQL does not currently have full support for domain types: it treats a domain the same as the underlying scalar type. This means that constraints associated with the domain will not be enforced. This is not an issue for function arguments, but it is a hazard if you declare a PL/pgSQL function as returning a domain type.

35.2. Tips for Developing in PL/pgSQL

One good way to develop in PL/pgSQL is to use the text editor of your choice to create your functions, and in another window, use `psql` to load and test those functions. If you are doing it this way, it is a good idea to write the function using `CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION`. That way you can just reload the file to update the function definition. For example:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION testfunc(integer) RETURNS integer AS $$
    ....
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
```

While running `psql`, you can load or reload such a function definition file with

```
\i filename.sql
```

and then immediately issue SQL commands to test the function.

Another good way to develop in PL/pgSQL is with a GUI database access tool that facilitates development in a procedural language. One example of such a tool is PgAccess, although others exist. These tools often provide convenient features such as escaping single quotes and making it easier to recreate and debug functions.

35.2.1. Handling of Quotation Marks

The code of a PL/pgSQL function is specified in `CREATE FUNCTION` as a string literal. If you write the string literal in the ordinary way with surrounding single quotes, then any single quotes inside the function body must be doubled; likewise any backslashes must be doubled. Doubling quotes is at best tedious, and in more complicated cases the code can become downright incomprehensible, because you can easily find yourself needing half a dozen or more adjacent quote marks. It's recommended that you instead write the function body as a “dollar-quoted” string literal (see Section 4.1.2.2). In the dollar-quoting approach, you never double any quote marks, but instead take care to choose a different dollar-quoting delimiter for each level of nesting you need. For example, you might write the `CREATE FUNCTION` command as

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION testfunc(integer) RETURNS integer AS $PROC$
    ....
$PROC$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
```

Within this, you might use quote marks for simple literal strings in SQL commands and \$\$ to delimit fragments of SQL commands that you are assembling as strings. If you need to quote text that includes \$\$, you could use \$Q\$, and so on.

The following chart shows what you have to do when writing quote marks without dollar quoting. It may be useful when translating pre-dollar quoting code into something more comprehensible.

1 quotation mark

To begin and end the function body, for example:

```
CREATE FUNCTION foo() RETURNS integer AS '
    . . .
' LANGUAGE plpgsql;
```

Anywhere within a single-quoted function body, quote marks *must* appear in pairs.

2 quotation marks

For string literals inside the function body, for example:

```
a_output := "Blah";
SELECT * FROM users WHERE f_name="foobar";
```

In the dollar-quoting approach, you'd just write

```
a_output := 'Blah';
SELECT * FROM users WHERE f_name='foobar';
```

which is exactly what the PL/pgSQL parser would see in either case.

4 quotation marks

When you need a single quotation mark in a string constant inside the function body, for example:

```
a_output := a_output || " AND name LIKE ""foobar"" AND xyz"
```

The value actually appended to `a_output` would be: `AND name LIKE 'foobar' AND xyz`.

In the dollar-quoting approach, you'd write

```
a_output := a_output || $$ AND name LIKE 'foobar' AND xyz$$
```

being careful that any dollar-quote delimiters around this are not just \$\$.

6 quotation marks

When a single quotation mark in a string inside the function body is adjacent to the end of that string constant, for example:

```
a_output := a_output || " AND name LIKE ""foobar""
```

The value appended to `a_output` would then be: `AND name LIKE 'foobar'`.

In the dollar-quoting approach, this becomes

```
a_output := a_output || $$ AND name LIKE 'foobar'$$
```

10 quotation marks

When you want two single quotation marks in a string constant (which accounts for 8 quotation marks) and this is adjacent to the end of that string constant (2 more). You will probably only need that if you are writing a function that generates other functions, as in Example 35-5. For example:

```
a_output := a_output || " if v_" ||
referrer_keys.kind || " like """"
|| referrer_keys.key_string || """"
then return "" | referrer_keys.referrer_type
|| """; end if;";
```

The value of `a_output` would then be:

```
if v_... like "... " then return "..."; end if;
```

In the dollar-quoting approach, this becomes

```
a_output := a_output || $$ if v_$$ || referrer_keys.kind || $$ like '$$
|| referrer_keys.key_string || $$'
then return '$$ | referrer_keys.referrer_type
|| $$'; end if;$$;
```

where we assume we only need to put single quote marks into `a_output`, because it will be re-quoted before use.

A variant approach is to escape quotation marks in the function body with a backslash rather than by doubling them. With this method you'll find yourself writing things like `\'\'` instead of `""`. Some find this easier to keep track of, some do not.

35.3. Structure of PL/pgSQL

PL/pgSQL is a block-structured language. The complete text of a function definition must be a *block*. A block is defined as:

```
[ <<label>> ]
[ DECLARE
  declarations ]
BEGIN
  statements
END;
```

Each declaration and each statement within a block is terminated by a semicolon. A block that appears within another block must have a semicolon after `END`, as shown above; however the final `END` that concludes a function body does not require a semicolon.

All key words and identifiers can be written in mixed upper and lower case. Identifiers are implicitly converted to lowercase unless double-quoted.

There are two types of comments in PL/pgSQL. A double dash (--) starts a comment that extends to the end of the line. A /* starts a block comment that extends to the next occurrence of */. Block comments cannot be nested, but double dash comments can be enclosed into a block comment and a double dash can hide the block comment delimiters /* and */.

Any statement in the statement section of a block can be a *subblock*. Subblocks can be used for logical grouping or to localize variables to a small group of statements.

The variables declared in the declarations section preceding a block are initialized to their default values every time the block is entered, not only once per function call. For example:

```
CREATE FUNCTION somefunc() RETURNS integer AS $$
DECLARE
    quantity integer := 30;
BEGIN
    RAISE NOTICE 'Quantity here is %', quantity; -- Quantity here is 30
    quantity := 50;
    --
    -- Create a subblock
    --
    DECLARE
        quantity integer := 80;
    BEGIN
        RAISE NOTICE 'Quantity here is %', quantity; -- Quantity here is 80
    END;

    RAISE NOTICE 'Quantity here is %', quantity; -- Quantity here is 50

    RETURN quantity;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
```

It is important not to confuse the use of BEGIN/END for grouping statements in PL/pgSQL with the database commands for transaction control. PL/pgSQL's BEGIN/END are only for grouping; they do not start or end a transaction. Functions and trigger procedures are always executed within a transaction established by an outer query — they cannot start or commit that transaction, since there would be no context for them to execute in. However, a block containing an EXCEPTION clause effectively forms a subtransaction that can be rolled back without affecting the outer transaction. For more about that see Section 35.7.5.

35.4. Declarations

All variables used in a block must be declared in the declarations section of the block. (The only exception is that the loop variable of a FOR loop iterating over a range of integer values is automatically declared as an integer variable.)

PL/pgSQL variables can have any SQL data type, such as integer, varchar, and char.

Here are some examples of variable declarations:

```
user_id integer;
```

```

quantity numeric(5);
url varchar;
myrow tablename%ROWTYPE;
myfield tablename.columnname%TYPE;
arow RECORD;

```

The general syntax of a variable declaration is:

```

name [ CONSTANT ] type [ NOT NULL ] [ { DEFAULT | := } expression ];

```

The `DEFAULT` clause, if given, specifies the initial value assigned to the variable when the block is entered. If the `DEFAULT` clause is not given then the variable is initialized to the SQL null value. The `CONSTANT` option prevents the variable from being assigned to, so that its value remains constant for the duration of the block. If `NOT NULL` is specified, an assignment of a null value results in a run-time error. All variables declared as `NOT NULL` must have a nonnull default value specified.

The default value is evaluated every time the block is entered. So, for example, assigning `now()` to a variable of type `timestamp` causes the variable to have the time of the current function call, not the time when the function was precompiled.

Examples:

```

quantity integer DEFAULT 32;
url varchar := 'http://mysite.com';
user_id CONSTANT integer := 10;

```

35.4.1. Aliases for Function Parameters

Parameters passed to functions are named with the identifiers `$1`, `$2`, etc. Optionally, aliases can be declared for `$n` parameter names for increased readability. Either the alias or the numeric identifier can then be used to refer to the parameter value.

There are two ways to create an alias. The preferred way is to give a name to the parameter in the `CREATE FUNCTION` command, for example:

```

CREATE FUNCTION sales_tax(subtotal real) RETURNS real AS $$
BEGIN
    RETURN subtotal * 0.06;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

The other way, which was the only way available before PostgreSQL 8.0, is to explicitly declare an alias, using the declaration syntax

```

name ALIAS FOR $n;

```

The same example in this style looks like

```

CREATE FUNCTION sales_tax(real) RETURNS real AS $$
DECLARE

```

```

    subtotal ALIAS FOR $1;
BEGIN
    RETURN subtotal * 0.06;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

Some more examples:

```

CREATE FUNCTION instr(vchar, integer) RETURNS integer AS $$
DECLARE
    v_string ALIAS FOR $1;
    index ALIAS FOR $2;
BEGIN
    -- some computations here
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

```

CREATE FUNCTION concat_selected_fields(in_t tablename) RETURNS text AS $$
BEGIN
    RETURN in_t.f1 || in_t.f3 || in_t.f5 || in_t.f7;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

When the return type of a PL/pgSQL function is declared as a polymorphic type (`anyelement` or `anyarray`), a special parameter `$0` is created. Its data type is the actual return type of the function, as deduced from the actual input types (see Section 31.2.5). This allows the function to access its actual return type as shown in Section 35.4.2. `$0` is initialized to null and can be modified by the function, so it can be used to hold the return value if desired, though that is not required. `$0` can also be given an alias. For example, this function works on any data type that has a `+` operator:

```

CREATE FUNCTION add_three_values(v1 anyelement, v2 anyelement, v3 anyelement)
RETURNS anyelement AS $$
DECLARE
    result ALIAS FOR $0;
BEGIN
    result := v1 + v2 + v3;
    RETURN result;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

35.4.2. Copying Types

```
variable%TYPE
```

`%TYPE` provides the data type of a variable or table column. You can use this to declare variables that will hold database values. For example, let's say you have a column named `user_id` in your `users` table. To declare a variable with the same data type as `users.user_id` you write:

```
user_id users.user_id%TYPE;
```

By using `%TYPE` you don't need to know the data type of the structure you are referencing, and most importantly, if the data type of the referenced item changes in the future (for instance: you change the type of `user_id` from `integer` to `real`), you may not need to change your function definition.

`%TYPE` is particularly valuable in polymorphic functions, since the data types needed for internal variables may change from one call to the next. Appropriate variables can be created by applying `%TYPE` to the function's arguments or result placeholders.

35.4.3. Row Types

```
name table_name%ROWTYPE;
name composite_type_name;
```

A variable of a composite type is called a *row variable* (or *row-type variable*). Such a variable can hold a whole row of a `SELECT` or `FOR` query result, so long as that query's column set matches the declared type of the variable. The individual fields of the row value are accessed using the usual dot notation, for example `rowvar.field`.

A row variable can be declared to have the same type as the rows of an existing table or view, by using the `table_name%ROWTYPE` notation; or it can be declared by giving a composite type's name. (Since every table has an associated composite type of the same name, it actually does not matter in PostgreSQL whether you write `%ROWTYPE` or not. But the form with `%ROWTYPE` is more portable.)

Parameters to a function can be composite types (complete table rows). In that case, the corresponding identifier `$n` will be a row variable, and fields can be selected from it, for example `$1.user_id`.

Only the user-defined columns of a table row are accessible in a row-type variable, not the OID or other system columns (because the row could be from a view). The fields of the row type inherit the table's field size or precision for data types such as `char(n)`.

Here is an example of using composite types:

```
CREATE FUNCTION merge_fields(t_row tablename) RETURNS text AS $$
DECLARE
    t2_row table2name%ROWTYPE;
BEGIN
    SELECT * INTO t2_row FROM table2name WHERE ... ;
    RETURN t_row.f1 || t2_row.f3 || t_row.f5 || t2_row.f7;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

SELECT merge_fields(t.*) FROM tablename t WHERE ... ;
```

35.4.4. Record Types

```
name RECORD;
```

Record variables are similar to row-type variables, but they have no predefined structure. They take on the actual row structure of the row they are assigned during a `SELECT` or `FOR` command. The substructure of a record variable can change each time it is assigned to. A consequence of this is that until a record variable is first assigned to, it has no substructure, and any attempt to access a field in it will draw a run-time error.

Note that `RECORD` is not a true data type, only a placeholder. One should also realize that when a PL/pgSQL function is declared to return type `record`, this is not quite the same concept as a record variable, even though such a function may well use a record variable to hold its result. In both cases the actual row structure is unknown when the function is written, but for a function returning `record` the actual structure is determined when the calling query is parsed, whereas a record variable can change its row structure on-the-fly.

35.4.5. RENAME

```
RENAME oldname TO newname;
```

Using the `RENAME` declaration you can change the name of a variable, record or row. This is primarily useful if `NEW` or `OLD` should be referenced by another name inside a trigger procedure. See also `ALIAS`.

Examples:

```
RENAME id TO user_id;
RENAME this_var TO that_var;
```

Note: `RENAME` appears to be broken as of PostgreSQL 7.3. Fixing this is of low priority, since `ALIAS` covers most of the practical uses of `RENAME`.

35.5. Expressions

All expressions used in PL/pgSQL statements are processed using the server's regular SQL executor. In effect, a query like

```
SELECT expression
```

is executed using the SPI manager. Before evaluation, occurrences of PL/pgSQL variable identifiers are replaced by parameters, and the actual values from the variables are passed to the executor in the parameter array. This allows the query plan for the `SELECT` to be prepared just once and then reused for subsequent evaluations.

The evaluation done by the PostgreSQL main parser has some side effects on the interpretation of constant values. In detail there is a difference between what these two functions do:

```
CREATE FUNCTION logfunc1(logtxt text) RETURNS timestamp AS $$
BEGIN
    INSERT INTO logtable VALUES (logtxt, 'now');
```

```

        RETURN 'now';
    END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

and

```

CREATE FUNCTION logfunc2(logtxt text) RETURNS timestamp AS $$
    DECLARE
        curtime timestamp;
    BEGIN
        curtime := 'now';
        INSERT INTO logtable VALUES (logtxt, curtime);
        RETURN curtime;
    END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

In the case of `logfunc1`, the PostgreSQL main parser knows when preparing the plan for the `INSERT`, that the string `'now'` should be interpreted as `timestamp` because the target column of `logtable` is of that type. Thus, it will make a constant from it at this time and this constant value is then used in all invocations of `logfunc1` during the lifetime of the session. Needless to say that this isn't what the programmer wanted.

In the case of `logfunc2`, the PostgreSQL main parser does not know what type `'now'` should become and therefore it returns a data value of type `text` containing the string `now`. During the ensuing assignment to the local variable `curtime`, the PL/pgSQL interpreter casts this string to the `timestamp` type by calling the `text_out` and `timestamp_in` functions for the conversion. So, the computed time stamp is updated on each execution as the programmer expects.

The mutable nature of record variables presents a problem in this connection. When fields of a record variable are used in expressions or statements, the data types of the fields must not change between calls of one and the same expression, since the expression will be planned using the data type that is present when the expression is first reached. Keep this in mind when writing trigger procedures that handle events for more than one table. (`EXECUTE` can be used to get around this problem when necessary.)

35.6. Basic Statements

In this section and the following ones, we describe all the statement types that are explicitly understood by PL/pgSQL. Anything not recognized as one of these statement types is presumed to be an SQL command and is sent to the main database engine to execute (after substitution of any PL/pgSQL variables used in the statement). Thus, for example, the SQL commands `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` may be considered to be statements of PL/pgSQL, but they are not specifically listed here.

35.6.1. Assignment

An assignment of a value to a variable or row/record field is written as:

```
identifier := expression;
```

As explained above, the expression in such a statement is evaluated by means of an SQL `SELECT` command sent to the main database engine. The expression must yield a single value.

If the expression's result data type doesn't match the variable's data type, or the variable has a specific size/precision (like `char(20)`), the result value will be implicitly converted by the PL/pgSQL interpreter using the result type's output-function and the variable type's input-function. Note that this could potentially result in run-time errors generated by the input function, if the string form of the result value is not acceptable to the input function.

Examples:

```
user_id := 20;
tax := subtotal * 0.06;
```

35.6.2. SELECT INTO

The result of a `SELECT` command yielding multiple columns (but only one row) can be assigned to a record variable, row-type variable, or list of scalar variables. This is done by:

```
SELECT INTO target select_expressions FROM ...;
```

where *target* can be a record variable, a row variable, or a comma-separated list of simple variables and record/row fields. The *select_expressions* and the remainder of the command are the same as in regular SQL.

Note that this is quite different from PostgreSQL's normal interpretation of `SELECT INTO`, where the `INTO` target is a newly created table. If you want to create a table from a `SELECT` result inside a PL/pgSQL function, use the syntax `CREATE TABLE ... AS SELECT`.

If a row or a variable list is used as target, the selected values must exactly match the structure of the target, or a run-time error occurs. When a record variable is the target, it automatically configures itself to the row type of the query result columns.

Except for the `INTO` clause, the `SELECT` statement is the same as a normal SQL `SELECT` command and can use its full power.

The `INTO` clause can appear almost anywhere in the `SELECT` statement. Customarily it is written either just after `SELECT` as shown above, or just before `FROM` — that is, either just before or just after the list of *select_expressions*.

If the query returns zero rows, null values are assigned to the target(s). If the query returns multiple rows, the first row is assigned to the target(s) and the rest are discarded. (Note that “the first row” is not well-defined unless you've used `ORDER BY`.)

You can check the special `FOUND` variable (see Section 35.6.6) after a `SELECT INTO` statement to determine whether the assignment was successful, that is, at least one row was returned by the query. For example:

```
SELECT INTO myrec * FROM emp WHERE empname = myname;
IF NOT FOUND THEN
    RAISE EXCEPTION 'employee % not found', myname;
END IF;
```

To test for whether a record/row result is null, you can use the `IS NULL` conditional. There is, however, no way to tell whether any additional rows might have been discarded. Here is an example that handles the case where no rows have been returned:

```

DECLARE
    users_rec RECORD;
BEGIN
    SELECT INTO users_rec * FROM users WHERE user_id=3;

    IF users_rec.homepage IS NULL THEN
        -- user entered no homepage, return "http://"
        RETURN 'http://';
    END IF;
END;
```

35.6.3. Executing an Expression or Query With No Result

Sometimes one wishes to evaluate an expression or query but discard the result (typically because one is calling a function that has useful side-effects but no useful result value). To do this in PL/pgSQL, use the `PERFORM` statement:

```
PERFORM query;
```

This executes *query* and discards the result. Write the *query* the same way as you would in an SQL `SELECT` command, but replace the initial keyword `SELECT` with `PERFORM`. PL/pgSQL variables will be substituted into the query as usual. Also, the special variable `FOUND` is set to true if the query produced at least one row or false if it produced no rows.

Note: One might expect that `SELECT` with no `INTO` clause would accomplish this result, but at present the only accepted way to do it is `PERFORM`.

An example:

```
PERFORM create_mv('cs_session_page_requests_mv', my_query);
```

35.6.4. Doing Nothing At All

Sometimes a placeholder statement that does nothing is useful. For example, it can indicate that one arm of an if/then/else chain is deliberately empty. For this purpose, use the `NULL` statement:

```
NULL;
```

For example, the following two fragments of code are equivalent:

```
BEGIN
    y := x / 0;
EXCEPTION
    WHEN division_by_zero THEN
        NULL; -- ignore the error
END;

BEGIN
    y := x / 0;
EXCEPTION
    WHEN division_by_zero THEN -- ignore the error
END;
```

Which is preferable is a matter of taste.

Note: In Oracle's PL/SQL, empty statement lists are not allowed, and so `NULL` statements are *required* for situations such as this. PL/pgSQL allows you to just write nothing, instead.

35.6.5. Executing Dynamic Commands

Oftentimes you will want to generate dynamic commands inside your PL/pgSQL functions, that is, commands that will involve different tables or different data types each time they are executed. PL/pgSQL's normal attempts to cache plans for commands will not work in such scenarios. To handle this sort of problem, the `EXECUTE` statement is provided:

```
EXECUTE command-string;
```

where *command-string* is an expression yielding a string (of type `text`) containing the command to be executed. This string is fed literally to the SQL engine.

Note in particular that no substitution of PL/pgSQL variables is done on the command string. The values of variables must be inserted in the command string as it is constructed.

Unlike all other commands in PL/pgSQL, a command run by an `EXECUTE` statement is not prepared and saved just once during the life of the session. Instead, the command is prepared each time the statement is run. The command string can be dynamically created within the function to perform actions on different tables and columns.

The results from `SELECT` commands are discarded by `EXECUTE`, and `SELECT INTO` is not currently supported within `EXECUTE`. So there is no way to extract a result from a dynamically-created `SELECT` using the plain `EXECUTE` command. There are two other ways to do it, however: one is to use the `FOR-IN-EXECUTE` loop form described in Section 35.7.4, and the other is to use a cursor with `OPEN-FOR-EXECUTE`, as described in Section 35.8.2.

When working with dynamic commands you will often have to handle escaping of single quotes. The recommended method for quoting fixed text in your function body is dollar quoting. (If you have legacy code that does not use dollar quoting, please refer to the overview in Section 35.2.1, which can save you some effort when translating said code to a more reasonable scheme.)

Dynamic values that are to be inserted into the constructed query require special handling since they might themselves contain quote characters. An example (this assumes that you are using dollar quoting for the function as a whole, so the quote marks need not be doubled):

```
EXECUTE 'UPDATE tbl SET '
      || quote_ident(colname)
      || ' = '
      || quote_literal(newvalue)
      || ' WHERE key = '
      || quote_literal(keyvalue);
```

This example shows use of the functions `quote_ident(text)` and `quote_literal(text)`. For safety, variables containing column and table identifiers should be passed to function `quote_ident`. Variables containing values that should be literal strings in the constructed command should be passed to `quote_literal`. Both take the appropriate steps to return the input text enclosed in double or single quotes respectively, with any embedded special characters properly escaped.

Note that dollar quoting is only useful for quoting fixed text. It would be a very bad idea to try to do the above example as

```
EXECUTE 'UPDATE tbl SET '
      || quote_ident(colname)
      || ' = $$'
      || newvalue
      || '$$ WHERE key = '
      || quote_literal(keyvalue);
```

because it would break if the contents of `newvalue` happened to contain `$$`. The same objection would apply to any other dollar-quoting delimiter you might pick. So, to safely quote text that is not known in advance, you *must* use `quote_literal`.

A much larger example of a dynamic command and `EXECUTE` can be seen in Example 35-5, which builds and executes a `CREATE FUNCTION` command to define a new function.

35.6.6. Obtaining the Result Status

There are several ways to determine the effect of a command. The first method is to use the `GET DIAGNOSTICS` command, which has the form:

```
GET DIAGNOSTICS variable = item [ , ... ] ;
```

This command allows retrieval of system status indicators. Each *item* is a key word identifying a state value to be assigned to the specified variable (which should be of the right data type to receive it). The currently available status items are `ROW_COUNT`, the number of rows processed by the last SQL command sent down to the SQL engine, and `RESULT_OID`, the OID of the last row inserted by the most recent SQL command. Note that `RESULT_OID` is only useful after an `INSERT` command.

An example:

```
GET DIAGNOSTICS integer_var = ROW_COUNT;
```

The second method to determine the effects of a command is to check the special variable named `FOUND`, which is of type `boolean`. `FOUND` starts out false within each PL/pgSQL function call. It is set by each of the following types of statements:

- A `SELECT INTO` statement sets `FOUND` true if it returns a row, false if no row is returned.
- A `PERFORM` statement sets `FOUND` true if it produces (and discards) a row, false if no row is produced.
- `UPDATE`, `INSERT`, and `DELETE` statements set `FOUND` true if at least one row is affected, false if no row is affected.
- A `FETCH` statement sets `FOUND` true if it returns a row, false if no row is returned.
- A `FOR` statement sets `FOUND` true if it iterates one or more times, else false. This applies to all three variants of the `FOR` statement (integer `FOR` loops, record-set `FOR` loops, and dynamic record-set `FOR` loops). `FOUND` is set this way when the `FOR` loop exits; inside the execution of the loop, `FOUND` is not modified by the `FOR` statement, although it may be changed by the execution of other statements within the loop body.

`FOUND` is a local variable within each PL/pgSQL function; so any changes to it affect only the current function.

35.7. Control Structures

Control structures are probably the most useful (and important) part of PL/pgSQL. With PL/pgSQL's control structures, you can manipulate PostgreSQL data in a very flexible and powerful way.

35.7.1. Returning From a Function

There are two commands available that allow you to return data from a function: `RETURN` and `RETURN NEXT`.

35.7.1.1. RETURN

```
RETURN expression;
```

`RETURN` with an expression terminates the function and returns the value of *expression* to the caller. This form is to be used for PL/pgSQL functions that do not return a set.

When returning a scalar type, any expression can be used. The expression's result will be automatically cast into the function's return type as described for assignments. To return a composite (row) value, you must write a record or row variable as the *expression*.

The return value of a function cannot be left undefined. If control reaches the end of the top-level block of the function without hitting a `RETURN` statement, a run-time error will occur.

If you have declared the function to return `void`, a `RETURN` statement must still be provided; but in this case the expression following `RETURN` is optional and will be ignored if present.

35.7.1.2. RETURN NEXT

```
RETURN NEXT expression;
```

When a PL/pgSQL function is declared to return `SETOF sometype`, the procedure to follow is slightly different. In that case, the individual items to return are specified in `RETURN NEXT` commands, and then a final `RETURN` command with no argument is used to indicate that the function has finished executing. `RETURN NEXT` can be used with both scalar and composite data types; in the latter case, an entire “table” of results will be returned.

Functions that use `RETURN NEXT` should be called in the following fashion:

```
SELECT * FROM some_func();
```

That is, the function must be used as a table source in a `FROM` clause.

`RETURN NEXT` does not actually return from the function; it simply saves away the value of the expression. Execution then continues with the next statement in the PL/pgSQL function. As successive `RETURN NEXT` commands are executed, the result set is built up. A final `RETURN`, which should have no argument, causes control to exit the function.

Note: The current implementation of `RETURN NEXT` for PL/pgSQL stores the entire result set before returning from the function, as discussed above. That means that if a PL/pgSQL function produces a very large result set, performance may be poor: data will be written to disk to avoid memory exhaustion, but the function itself will not return until the entire result set has been generated. A future version of PL/pgSQL may allow users to define set-returning functions that do not have this limitation. Currently, the point at which data begins being written to disk is controlled by the `work_mem` configuration variable. Administrators who have sufficient memory to store larger result sets in memory should consider increasing this parameter.

35.7.2. Conditionals

`IF` statements let you execute commands based on certain conditions. PL/pgSQL has five forms of `IF`:

- `IF ... THEN`
- `IF ... THEN ... ELSE`
- `IF ... THEN ... ELSE IF`
- `IF ... THEN ... ELSIF ... THEN ... ELSE`
- `IF ... THEN ... ELSEIF ... THEN ... ELSE`

35.7.2.1. IF-THEN

```
IF boolean-expression THEN
    statements
```

```
END IF;
```

IF-THEN statements are the simplest form of IF. The statements between THEN and END IF will be executed if the condition is true. Otherwise, they are skipped.

Example:

```
IF v_user_id <> 0 THEN
    UPDATE users SET email = v_email WHERE user_id = v_user_id;
END IF;
```

35.7.2.2. IF-THEN-ELSE

```
IF boolean-expression THEN
    statements
ELSE
    statements
END IF;
```

IF-THEN-ELSE statements add to IF-THEN by letting you specify an alternative set of statements that should be executed if the condition evaluates to false.

Examples:

```
IF parentid IS NULL OR parentid = ''
THEN
    RETURN fullname;
ELSE
    RETURN hp_true_filename(parentid) || '/' || fullname;
END IF;

IF v_count > 0 THEN
    INSERT INTO users_count (count) VALUES (v_count);
    RETURN 't';
ELSE
    RETURN 'f';
END IF;
```

35.7.2.3. IF-THEN-ELSE IF

IF statements can be nested, as in the following example:

```
IF demo_row.sex = 'm' THEN
    pretty_sex := 'man';
ELSE
    IF demo_row.sex = 'f' THEN
        pretty_sex := 'woman';
    END IF;
END IF;
```

When you use this form, you are actually nesting an `IF` statement inside the `ELSE` part of an outer `IF` statement. Thus you need one `END IF` statement for each nested `IF` and one for the parent `IF-ELSE`. This is workable but grows tedious when there are many alternatives to be checked. Hence the next form.

35.7.2.4. IF-THEN-ELSIF-ELSE

```

IF boolean-expression THEN
    statements
[ ELSEIF boolean-expression THEN
    statements
[ ELSEIF boolean-expression THEN
    statements
...]]
[ ELSE
    statements ]
END IF;

```

`IF-THEN-ELSIF-ELSE` provides a more convenient method of checking many alternatives in one statement. Formally it is equivalent to nested `IF-THEN-ELSE-IF-THEN` commands, but only one `END IF` is needed.

Here is an example:

```

IF number = 0 THEN
    result := 'zero';
ELSIF number > 0 THEN
    result := 'positive';
ELSIF number < 0 THEN
    result := 'negative';
ELSE
    -- hmm, the only other possibility is that number is null
    result := 'NULL';
END IF;

```

35.7.2.5. IF-THEN-ELSEIF-ELSE

`ELSEIF` is an alias for `ELSIF`.

35.7.3. Simple Loops

With the `LOOP`, `EXIT`, `WHILE`, and `FOR` statements, you can arrange for your PL/pgSQL function to repeat a series of commands.

35.7.3.1. LOOP

```

[<<label>>]
LOOP
    statements
END LOOP;

```

LOOP defines an unconditional loop that is repeated indefinitely until terminated by an EXIT or RETURN statement. The optional label can be used by EXIT statements in nested loops to specify which level of nesting should be terminated.

35.7.3.2. EXIT

```

EXIT [ label ] [ WHEN expression ];

```

If no *label* is given, the innermost loop is terminated and the statement following END LOOP is executed next. If *label* is given, it must be the label of the current or some outer level of nested loop or block. Then the named loop or block is terminated and control continues with the statement after the loop's/block's corresponding END.

If WHEN is present, loop exit occurs only if the specified condition is true, otherwise control passes to the statement after EXIT.

EXIT can be used to cause early exit from all types of loops; it is not limited to use with unconditional loops.

Examples:

```

LOOP
    -- some computations
    IF count > 0 THEN
        EXIT; -- exit loop
    END IF;
END LOOP;

LOOP
    -- some computations
    EXIT WHEN count > 0; -- same result as previous example
END LOOP;

BEGIN
    -- some computations
    IF stocks > 100000 THEN
        EXIT; -- causes exit from the BEGIN block
    END IF;
END;

```

35.7.3.3. WHILE

```
[<<label>>]
WHILE expression LOOP
    statements
END LOOP;
```

The WHILE statement repeats a sequence of statements so long as the condition expression evaluates to true. The condition is checked just before each entry to the loop body.

For example:

```
WHILE amount_owed > 0 AND gift_certificate_balance > 0 LOOP
    -- some computations here
END LOOP;

WHILE NOT boolean_expression LOOP
    -- some computations here
END LOOP;
```

35.7.3.4. FOR (integer variant)

```
[<<label>>]
FOR name IN [ REVERSE ] expression .. expression LOOP
    statements
END LOOP;
```

This form of FOR creates a loop that iterates over a range of integer values. The variable *name* is automatically defined as type *integer* and exists only inside the loop. The two expressions giving the lower and upper bound of the range are evaluated once when entering the loop. The iteration step is normally 1, but is -1 when REVERSE is specified.

Some examples of integer FOR loops:

```
FOR i IN 1..10 LOOP
    -- some computations here
    RAISE NOTICE 'i is %', i;
END LOOP;

FOR i IN REVERSE 10..1 LOOP
    -- some computations here
END LOOP;
```

If the lower bound is greater than the upper bound (or less than, in the REVERSE case), the loop body is not executed at all. No error is raised.

35.7.4. Looping Through Query Results

Using a different type of FOR loop, you can iterate through the results of a query and manipulate that data accordingly. The syntax is:

```
[<<label>>]
FOR record_or_row IN query LOOP
    statements
END LOOP;
```

The record or row variable is successively assigned each row resulting from the *query* (which must be a SELECT command) and the loop body is executed for each row. Here is an example:

```
CREATE FUNCTION cs_refresh_mvviews() RETURNS integer AS $$
DECLARE
    mvviews RECORD;
BEGIN
    PERFORM cs_log('Refreshing materialized views...');

    FOR mvviews IN SELECT * FROM cs_materialized_views ORDER BY sort_key LOOP

        -- Now "mvviews" has one record from cs_materialized_views

        PERFORM cs_log('Refreshing materialized view ' || quote_ident(mvviews.mv_name) |
EXECUTE 'TRUNCATE TABLE ' || quote_ident(mvviews.mv_name);
EXECUTE 'INSERT INTO ' || quote_ident(mvviews.mv_name) || ' ' || mvviews.mv_query
END LOOP;

    PERFORM cs_log('Done refreshing materialized views.');
```

```
RETURN 1;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
```

If the loop is terminated by an EXIT statement, the last assigned row value is still accessible after the loop.

The FOR-IN-EXECUTE statement is another way to iterate over rows:

```
[<<label>>]
FOR record_or_row IN EXECUTE text_expression LOOP
    statements
END LOOP;
```

This is like the previous form, except that the source SELECT statement is specified as a string expression, which is evaluated and replanned on each entry to the FOR loop. This allows the programmer to choose the speed of a preplanned query or the flexibility of a dynamic query, just as with a plain EXECUTE statement.

Note: The PL/pgSQL parser presently distinguishes the two kinds of FOR loops (integer or query result) by checking whether .. appears outside any parentheses between IN and LOOP. If .. is not seen then the loop is presumed to be a loop over rows. Mistyping the .. is thus likely to lead to a complaint along the lines of “loop variable of loop over rows must be a record or row variable”, rather than the simple syntax error one might expect to get.

35.7.5. Trapping Errors

By default, any error occurring in a PL/pgSQL function aborts execution of the function, and indeed of the surrounding transaction as well. You can trap errors and recover from them by using a `BEGIN` block with an `EXCEPTION` clause. The syntax is an extension of the normal syntax for a `BEGIN` block:

```
[ <<label>> ]
[ DECLARE
  declarations ]
BEGIN
  statements
EXCEPTION
  WHEN condition [ OR condition ... ] THEN
    handler_statements
  [ WHEN condition [ OR condition ... ] THEN
    handler_statements
  ... ]
END;
```

If no error occurs, this form of block simply executes all the *statements*, and then control passes to the next statement after `END`. But if an error occurs within the *statements*, further processing of the *statements* is abandoned, and control passes to the `EXCEPTION` list. The list is searched for the first *condition* matching the error that occurred. If a match is found, the corresponding *handler_statements* are executed, and then control passes to the next statement after `END`. If no match is found, the error propagates out as though the `EXCEPTION` clause were not there at all: the error can be caught by an enclosing block with `EXCEPTION`, or if there is none it aborts processing of the function.

The *condition* names can be any of those shown in Appendix A. A category name matches any error within its category. The special condition name `OTHERS` matches every error type except `QUERY_CANCELED`. (It is possible, but often unwise, to trap `QUERY_CANCELED` by name.) Condition names are not case-sensitive.

If a new error occurs within the selected *handler_statements*, it cannot be caught by this `EXCEPTION` clause, but is propagated out. A surrounding `EXCEPTION` clause could catch it.

When an error is caught by an `EXCEPTION` clause, the local variables of the PL/pgSQL function remain as they were when the error occurred, but all changes to persistent database state within the block are rolled back. As an example, consider this fragment:

```
INSERT INTO mytab(firstname, lastname) VALUES('Tom', 'Jones');
BEGIN
  UPDATE mytab SET firstname = 'Joe' WHERE lastname = 'Jones';
  x := x + 1;
  y := x / 0;
EXCEPTION
  WHEN division_by_zero THEN
    RAISE NOTICE 'caught division_by_zero';
    RETURN x;
END;
```

When control reaches the assignment to `y`, it will fail with a `division_by_zero` error. This will be caught by the `EXCEPTION` clause. The value returned in the `RETURN` statement will be the incremented value of `x`, but the effects of the `UPDATE` command will have been rolled back. The `INSERT` command preceding the block is not rolled back, however, so the end result is that the database contains Tom Jones not Joe Jones.

Tip: A block containing an `EXCEPTION` clause is significantly more expensive to enter and exit than a block without one. Therefore, don't use `EXCEPTION` without need.

35.8. Cursors

Rather than executing a whole query at once, it is possible to set up a *cursor* that encapsulates the query, and then read the query result a few rows at a time. One reason for doing this is to avoid memory overrun when the result contains a large number of rows. (However, PL/pgSQL users do not normally need to worry about that, since `FOR` loops automatically use a cursor internally to avoid memory problems.) A more interesting usage is to return a reference to a cursor that a function has created, allowing the caller to read the rows. This provides an efficient way to return large row sets from functions.

35.8.1. Declaring Cursor Variables

All access to cursors in PL/pgSQL goes through cursor variables, which are always of the special data type `refcursor`. One way to create a cursor variable is just to declare it as a variable of type `refcursor`. Another way is to use the cursor declaration syntax, which in general is:

```
name CURSOR [ ( arguments ) ] FOR query ;
```

(`FOR` may be replaced by `IS` for Oracle compatibility.) *arguments*, if specified, is a comma-separated list of pairs *name datatype* that define names to be replaced by parameter values in the given query. The actual values to substitute for these names will be specified later, when the cursor is opened.

Some examples:

```
DECLARE
    curs1 refcursor;
    curs2 CURSOR FOR SELECT * FROM tenk1;
    curs3 CURSOR (key integer) IS SELECT * FROM tenk1 WHERE unique1 = key;
```

All three of these variables have the data type `refcursor`, but the first may be used with any query, while the second has a fully specified query already *bound* to it, and the last has a parameterized query bound to it. (*key* will be replaced by an integer parameter value when the cursor is opened.) The variable `curs1` is said to be *unbound* since it is not bound to any particular query.

35.8.2. Opening Cursors

Before a cursor can be used to retrieve rows, it must be *opened*. (This is the equivalent action to the SQL command `DECLARE CURSOR`.) PL/pgSQL has three forms of the `OPEN` statement, two of which use unbound cursor variables while the third uses a bound cursor variable.

35.8.2.1. OPEN FOR SELECT

```
OPEN unbound_cursor FOR SELECT ...;
```

The cursor variable is opened and given the specified query to execute. The cursor cannot be open already, and it must have been declared as an unbound cursor (that is, as a simple `refcursor` variable). The `SELECT` query is treated in the same way as other `SELECT` statements in PL/pgSQL: PL/pgSQL variable names are substituted, and the query plan is cached for possible reuse.

An example:

```
OPEN curs1 FOR SELECT * FROM foo WHERE key = mykey;
```

35.8.2.2. OPEN FOR EXECUTE

```
OPEN unbound_cursor FOR EXECUTE query_string;
```

The cursor variable is opened and given the specified query to execute. The cursor cannot be open already, and it must have been declared as an unbound cursor (that is, as a simple `refcursor` variable). The query is specified as a string expression in the same way as in the `EXECUTE` command. As usual, this gives flexibility so the query can vary from one run to the next.

An example:

```
OPEN curs1 FOR EXECUTE 'SELECT * FROM ' || quote_ident($1);
```

35.8.2.3. Opening a Bound Cursor

```
OPEN bound_cursor [ ( argument_values ) ];
```

This form of `OPEN` is used to open a cursor variable whose query was bound to it when it was declared. The cursor cannot be open already. A list of actual argument value expressions must appear if and only if the cursor was declared to take arguments. These values will be substituted in the query. The query plan for a bound cursor is always considered cacheable; there is no equivalent of `EXECUTE` in this case.

Examples:

```
OPEN curs2;
OPEN curs3(42);
```

35.8.3. Using Cursors

Once a cursor has been opened, it can be manipulated with the statements described here.

These manipulations need not occur in the same function that opened the cursor to begin with. You can return a `refcursor` value out of a function and let the caller operate on the cursor. (Internally, a `refcursor` value is simply the string name of a so-called portal containing the active query for the cursor. This name can be passed around, assigned to other `refcursor` variables, and so on, without disturbing the portal.)

All portals are implicitly closed at transaction end. Therefore a `refcursor` value is usable to reference an open cursor only until the end of the transaction.

35.8.3.1. FETCH

```
FETCH cursor INTO target;
```

`FETCH` retrieves the next row from the cursor into a target, which may be a row variable, a record variable, or a comma-separated list of simple variables, just like `SELECT INTO`. As with `SELECT INTO`, the special variable `FOUND` may be checked to see whether a row was obtained or not.

An example:

```
FETCH curs1 INTO rowvar;
FETCH curs2 INTO foo, bar, baz;
```

35.8.3.2. CLOSE

```
CLOSE cursor;
```

`CLOSE` closes the portal underlying an open cursor. This can be used to release resources earlier than end of transaction, or to free up the cursor variable to be opened again.

An example:

```
CLOSE curs1;
```

35.8.3.3. Returning Cursors

PL/pgSQL functions can return cursors to the caller. This is useful to return multiple rows or columns, especially with very large result sets. To do this, the function opens the cursor and returns the cursor name to the caller (or simply opens the cursor using a portal name specified by or otherwise known to the caller). The caller can then fetch rows from the cursor. The cursor can be closed by the caller, or it will be closed automatically when the transaction closes.

The portal name used for a cursor can be specified by the programmer or automatically generated. To specify a portal name, simply assign a string to the `refcursor` variable before opening it. The string value of the `refcursor` variable will be used by `OPEN` as the name of the underlying portal. However,

if the `refcursor` variable is null, `OPEN` automatically generates a name that does not conflict with any existing portal, and assigns it to the `refcursor` variable.

Note: A bound cursor variable is initialized to the string value representing its name, so that the portal name is the same as the cursor variable name, unless the programmer overrides it by assignment before opening the cursor. But an unbound cursor variable defaults to the null value initially, so it will receive an automatically-generated unique name, unless overridden.

The following example shows one way a cursor name can be supplied by the caller:

```
CREATE TABLE test (col text);
INSERT INTO test VALUES ('123');

CREATE FUNCTION reffunc(refcursor) RETURNS refcursor AS '
BEGIN
    OPEN $1 FOR SELECT col FROM test;
    RETURN $1;
END;
' LANGUAGE plpgsql;

BEGIN;
SELECT reffunc('funcursor');
FETCH ALL IN funcursor;
COMMIT;
```

The following example uses automatic cursor name generation:

```
CREATE FUNCTION reffunc2() RETURNS refcursor AS '
DECLARE
    ref refcursor;
BEGIN
    OPEN ref FOR SELECT col FROM test;
    RETURN ref;
END;
' LANGUAGE plpgsql;

BEGIN;
SELECT reffunc2();

      reffunc2
-----
 <unnamed cursor 1>
(1 row)

FETCH ALL IN "<unnamed cursor 1>";
COMMIT;
```

The following example shows one way to return multiple cursors from a single function:

```

CREATE FUNCTION myfunc(refcursor, refcursor) RETURNS SETOF refcursor AS $$
BEGIN
    OPEN $1 FOR SELECT * FROM table_1;
    RETURN NEXT $1;
    OPEN $2 FOR SELECT * FROM table_2;
    RETURN NEXT $2;
    RETURN;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

-- need to be in a transaction to use cursors.
BEGIN;

SELECT * FROM myfunc('a', 'b');

FETCH ALL FROM a;
FETCH ALL FROM b;
COMMIT;

```

35.9. Errors and Messages

Use the RAISE statement to report messages and raise errors.

```
RAISE level 'format' [, variable [, ...]];
```

Possible levels are DEBUG, LOG, INFO, NOTICE, WARNING, and EXCEPTION. EXCEPTION raises an error (which normally aborts the current transaction); the other levels only generate messages of different priority levels. Whether messages of a particular priority are reported to the client, written to the server log, or both is controlled by the `log_min_messages` and `client_min_messages` configuration variables. See Section 16.4 for more information.

Inside the format string, % is replaced by the next optional argument's string representation. Write %% to emit a literal %. Note that the optional arguments must presently be simple variables, not expressions, and the format must be a simple string literal.

In this example, the value of `v_job_id` will replace the % in the string:

```
RAISE NOTICE 'Calling cs_create_job(%)', v_job_id;
```

This example will abort the transaction with the given error message:

```
RAISE EXCEPTION 'Nonexistent ID --> %', user_id;
```

`RAISE EXCEPTION` presently always generates the same `SQLSTATE` code, `P0001`, no matter what message it is invoked with. It is possible to trap this exception with `EXCEPTION ... WHEN RAISE_EXCEPTION THEN ...` but there is no way to tell one `RAISE` from another.

35.10. Trigger Procedures

PL/pgSQL can be used to define trigger procedures. A trigger procedure is created with the `CREATE FUNCTION` command, declaring it as a function with no arguments and a return type of `trigger`. Note that the function must be declared with no arguments even if it expects to receive arguments specified in `CREATE TRIGGER` — trigger arguments are passed via `TG_ARGV`, as described below.

When a PL/pgSQL function is called as a trigger, several special variables are created automatically in the top-level block. They are:

`NEW`

Data type `RECORD`; variable holding the new database row for `INSERT/UPDATE` operations in row-level triggers. This variable is `NULL` in statement-level triggers.

`OLD`

Data type `RECORD`; variable holding the old database row for `UPDATE/DELETE` operations in row-level triggers. This variable is `NULL` in statement-level triggers.

`TG_NAME`

Data type name; variable that contains the name of the trigger actually fired.

`TG_WHEN`

Data type `text`; a string of either `BEFORE` or `AFTER` depending on the trigger's definition.

`TG_LEVEL`

Data type `text`; a string of either `ROW` or `STATEMENT` depending on the trigger's definition.

`TG_OP`

Data type `text`; a string of `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE` telling for which operation the trigger was fired.

`TG_RELID`

Data type `oid`; the object ID of the table that caused the trigger invocation.

`TG_RELNAME`

Data type name; the name of the table that caused the trigger invocation.

`TG_NARGS`

Data type `integer`; the number of arguments given to the trigger procedure in the `CREATE TRIGGER` statement.

`TG_ARGV[]`

Data type array of `text`; the arguments from the `CREATE TRIGGER` statement. The index counts from 0. Invalid indices (less than 0 or greater than or equal to `tg_nargs`) result in a null value.

A trigger function must return either `NULL` or a record/row value having exactly the structure of the table the trigger was fired for.

Row-level triggers fired `BEFORE` may return null to signal the trigger manager to skip the rest of the operation for this row (i.e., subsequent triggers are not fired, and the `INSERT/UPDATE/DELETE` does not occur for this row). If a nonnull value is returned then the operation proceeds with that row value. Returning a row value different from the original value of `NEW` alters the row that will be inserted or updated (but has no direct effect in the `DELETE` case). To alter the row to be stored, it is possible to replace single values directly in `NEW` and return the modified `NEW`, or to build a complete new record/row to return.

The return value of a `BEFORE` or `AFTER` statement-level trigger or an `AFTER` row-level trigger is always ignored; it may as well be null. However, any of these types of triggers can still abort the entire operation by raising an error.

Example 35-1 shows an example of a trigger procedure in PL/pgSQL.

Example 35-1. A PL/pgSQL Trigger Procedure

This example trigger ensures that any time a row is inserted or updated in the table, the current user name and time are stamped into the row. And it checks that an employee's name is given and that the salary is a positive value.

```
CREATE TABLE emp (
    empname text,
    salary integer,
    last_date timestamp,
    last_user text
);

CREATE FUNCTION emp_stamp() RETURNS trigger AS $emp_stamp$
BEGIN
    -- Check that empname and salary are given
    IF NEW.empname IS NULL THEN
        RAISE EXCEPTION 'empname cannot be null';
    END IF;
    IF NEW.salary IS NULL THEN
        RAISE EXCEPTION '% cannot have null salary', NEW.empname;
    END IF;

    -- Who works for us when she must pay for it?
    IF NEW.salary < 0 THEN
        RAISE EXCEPTION '% cannot have a negative salary', NEW.empname;
    END IF;

    -- Remember who changed the payroll when
    NEW.last_date := 'now';
    NEW.last_user := current_user;
    RETURN NEW;
END;
$emp_stamp$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

CREATE TRIGGER emp_stamp BEFORE INSERT OR UPDATE ON emp
```

```
FOR EACH ROW EXECUTE PROCEDURE emp_stamp();
```

Another way to log changes to a table involves creating a new table that holds a row for each insert, update, or delete that occurs. This approach can be thought of as auditing changes to a table. Example 35-2 shows an example of an audit trigger procedure in PL/pgSQL.

Example 35-2. A PL/pgSQL Trigger Procedure For Auditing

This example trigger ensures that any insert, update or delete of a row in the `emp` table is recorded (i.e., audited) in the `emp_audit` table. The current time and user name are stamped into the row, together with the type of operation performed on it.

```
CREATE TABLE emp (
    empname          text NOT NULL,
    salary           integer
);

CREATE TABLE emp_audit(
    operation        char(1)  NOT NULL,
    stamp            timestamp NOT NULL,
    userid           text     NOT NULL,
    empname          text     NOT NULL,
    salary integer
);

CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION process_emp_audit() RETURNS TRIGGER AS $emp_audit$
BEGIN
    --
    -- Create a row in emp_audit to reflect the operation performed on emp,
    -- make use of the special variable TG_OP to work out the operation.
    --
    IF (TG_OP = 'DELETE') THEN
        INSERT INTO emp_audit SELECT 'D', now(), user, OLD.*;
        RETURN OLD;
    ELSIF (TG_OP = 'UPDATE') THEN
        INSERT INTO emp_audit SELECT 'U', now(), user, NEW.*;
        RETURN NEW;
    ELSIF (TG_OP = 'INSERT') THEN
        INSERT INTO emp_audit SELECT 'I', now(), user, NEW.*;
        RETURN NEW;
    END IF;
    RETURN NULL; -- result is ignored since this is an AFTER trigger
END;
$emp_audit$ language plpgsql;

CREATE TRIGGER emp_audit
AFTER INSERT OR UPDATE OR DELETE ON emp
FOR EACH ROW EXECUTE PROCEDURE process_emp_audit();
```

One use of triggers is to maintain a summary table of another table. The resulting summary can be used in place of the original table for certain queries — often with vastly reduced run times. This technique

is commonly used in Data Warehousing, where the tables of measured or observed data (called fact tables) can be extremely large. Example 35-3 shows an example of a trigger procedure in PL/pgSQL that maintains a summary table for a fact table in a data warehouse.

Example 35-3. A PL/pgSQL Trigger Procedure For Maintaining A Summary Table

The schema detailed here is partly based on the *Grocery Store* example from *The Data Warehouse Toolkit* by Ralph Kimball.

```
--
-- Main tables - time dimension and sales fact.
--
CREATE TABLE time_dimension (
    time_key          integer NOT NULL,
    day_of_week       integer NOT NULL,
    day_of_month      integer NOT NULL,
    month             integer NOT NULL,
    quarter           integer NOT NULL,
    year              integer NOT NULL
);
CREATE UNIQUE INDEX time_dimension_key ON time_dimension(time_key);

CREATE TABLE sales_fact (
    time_key          integer NOT NULL,
    product_key       integer NOT NULL,
    store_key         integer NOT NULL,
    amount_sold       numeric(12,2) NOT NULL,
    units_sold        integer NOT NULL,
    amount_cost       numeric(12,2) NOT NULL
);
CREATE INDEX sales_fact_time ON sales_fact(time_key);

--
-- Summary table - sales by time.
--
CREATE TABLE sales_summary_bytime (
    time_key          integer NOT NULL,
    amount_sold       numeric(15,2) NOT NULL,
    units_sold        numeric(12) NOT NULL,
    amount_cost       numeric(15,2) NOT NULL
);
CREATE UNIQUE INDEX sales_summary_bytime_key ON sales_summary_bytime(time_key);

--
-- Function and trigger to amend summarized column(s) on UPDATE, INSERT, DELETE.
--
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION maint_sales_summary_bytime() RETURNS TRIGGER AS $maint_sales
    DECLARE
        delta_time_key          integer;
        delta_amount_sold       numeric(15,2);
        delta_units_sold        numeric(12);
        delta_amount_cost       numeric(15,2);
    BEGIN
```

```

-- Work out the increment/decrement amount(s).
IF (TG_OP = 'DELETE') THEN

    delta_time_key = OLD.time_key;
    delta_amount_sold = -1 * OLD.amount_sold;
    delta_units_sold = -1 * OLD.units_sold;
    delta_amount_cost = -1 * OLD.amount_cost;

ELSIF (TG_OP = 'UPDATE') THEN

    -- forbid updates that change the time_key -
    -- (probably not too onerous, as DELETE + INSERT is how most
    -- changes will be made).
    IF ( OLD.time_key != NEW.time_key) THEN
        RAISE EXCEPTION 'Update of time_key : % -> % not allowed', OLD.time_key, NEW.time_key;
    END IF;

    delta_time_key = OLD.time_key;
    delta_amount_sold = NEW.amount_sold - OLD.amount_sold;
    delta_units_sold = NEW.units_sold - OLD.units_sold;
    delta_amount_cost = NEW.amount_cost - OLD.amount_cost;

ELSIF (TG_OP = 'INSERT') THEN

    delta_time_key = NEW.time_key;
    delta_amount_sold = NEW.amount_sold;
    delta_units_sold = NEW.units_sold;
    delta_amount_cost = NEW.amount_cost;

END IF;

-- Update the summary row with the new values.
UPDATE sales_summary_bytime
    SET amount_sold = amount_sold + delta_amount_sold,
        units_sold = units_sold + delta_units_sold,
        amount_cost = amount_cost + delta_amount_cost
    WHERE time_key = delta_time_key;

-- There might have been no row with this time_key (e.g new data!).
IF (NOT FOUND) THEN
    BEGIN
        INSERT INTO sales_summary_bytime (
            time_key,
            amount_sold,
            units_sold,
            amount_cost)
        VALUES (
            delta_time_key,
            delta_amount_sold,
            delta_units_sold,
            delta_amount_cost);
    END;

```

```

        delta_amount_cost
    );
EXCEPTION
    --
    -- Catch race condition when two transactions are adding data
    -- for a new time_key.
    --
    WHEN UNIQUE_VIOLATION THEN
        UPDATE sales_summary_bytime
            SET amount_sold = amount_sold + delta_amount_sold,
                units_sold = units_sold + delta_units_sold,
                amount_cost = amount_cost + delta_amount_cost
            WHERE time_key = delta_time_key;

    END;
END IF;
RETURN NULL;

END;
$maint_sales_summary_bytime$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

CREATE TRIGGER maint_sales_summary_bytime
AFTER INSERT OR UPDATE OR DELETE ON sales_fact
FOR EACH ROW EXECUTE PROCEDURE maint_sales_summary_bytime();

```

35.11. Porting from Oracle PL/SQL

This section explains differences between PostgreSQL's PL/pgSQL language and Oracle's PL/SQL language, to help developers who port applications from Oracle® to PostgreSQL.

PL/pgSQL is similar to PL/SQL in many aspects. It is a block-structured, imperative language, and all variables have to be declared. Assignments, loops, conditionals are similar. The main differences you should keep in mind when porting from PL/SQL to PL/pgSQL are:

- There are no default values for parameters in PostgreSQL.
- You can overload function names in PostgreSQL. This is often used to work around the lack of default parameters.
- No need for cursors in PL/pgSQL, just put the query in the `FOR` statement. (See Example 35-5.)
- In PostgreSQL you need to use dollar quoting or escape single quotes in the function body. See Section 35.2.1.
- Instead of packages, use schemas to organize your functions into groups.
- Since there are no packages, there are no package-level variables either. This is somewhat annoying. You may be able to keep per-session state in temporary tables, instead.

35.11.1. Porting Examples

Example 35-4 shows how to port a simple function from PL/SQL to PL/pgSQL.

Example 35-4. Porting a Simple Function from PL/SQL to PL/pgSQL

Here is an Oracle PL/SQL function:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION cs_fmt_browser_version(v_name IN varchar,
                                                  v_version IN varchar)
RETURN varchar IS
BEGIN
    IF v_version IS NULL THEN
        RETURN v_name;
    END IF;
    RETURN v_name || '/' || v_version;
END;
/
show errors;
```

Let's go through this function and see the differences to PL/pgSQL:

- Oracle can have IN, OUT, and INOUT parameters passed to functions. INOUT, for example, means that the parameter will receive a value and return another. PostgreSQL only has IN parameters, and hence there is no specification of the parameter kind.
- The RETURN key word in the function prototype (not the function body) becomes RETURNS in PostgreSQL. Also, IS becomes AS, and you need to add a LANGUAGE clause because PL/pgSQL is not the only possible function language.
- In PostgreSQL, the function body is considered to be a string literal, so you need to use quote marks or dollar quotes around it. This substitutes for the terminating / in the Oracle approach.
- The show errors command does not exist in PostgreSQL, and is not needed since errors are reported automatically.

This is how this function would look when ported to PostgreSQL:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION cs_fmt_browser_version(v_name varchar,
                                                  v_version varchar)
RETURNS varchar AS $$
BEGIN
    IF v_version IS NULL THEN
        RETURN v_name;
    END IF;
    RETURN v_name || '/' || v_version;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
```

Example 35-5 shows how to port a function that creates another function and how to handle the ensuing quoting problems.

Example 35-5. Porting a Function that Creates Another Function from PL/SQL to PL/pgSQL

The following procedure grabs rows from a `SELECT` statement and builds a large function with the results in `IF` statements, for the sake of efficiency. Notice particularly the differences in the cursor and the `FOR` loop.

This is the Oracle version:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE PROCEDURE cs_update_referrer_type_proc IS
  CURSOR referrer_keys IS
    SELECT * FROM cs_referrer_keys
    ORDER BY try_order;

  func_cmd VARCHAR(4000);
BEGIN
  func_cmd := 'CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION cs_find_referrer_type(v_host IN VARCHAR,
    v_domain IN VARCHAR, v_url IN VARCHAR) RETURN VARCHAR IS BEGIN';

  FOR referrer_key IN referrer_keys LOOP
    func_cmd := func_cmd ||
      ' IF v_' || referrer_key.kind
      || ' LIKE "' || referrer_key.key_string
      || "' THEN RETURN "' || referrer_key.referrer_type
      || "'; END IF;';
  END LOOP;

  func_cmd := func_cmd || ' RETURN NULL; END;';

  EXECUTE IMMEDIATE func_cmd;
END;
/
show errors;
```

Here is how this function would end up in PostgreSQL:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION cs_update_referrer_type_proc() RETURNS void AS $func$
DECLARE
  referrer_key RECORD; -- declare a generic record to be used in a FOR
  func_body text;
  func_cmd text;
BEGIN
  func_body := 'BEGIN' ;

  -- Notice how we scan through the results of a query in a FOR loop
  -- using the FOR <record> construct.

  FOR referrer_key IN SELECT * FROM cs_referrer_keys ORDER BY try_order LOOP
    func_body := func_body ||
      ' IF v_' || referrer_key.kind
      || ' LIKE ' || quote_literal(referrer_key.key_string)
      || ' THEN RETURN ' || quote_literal(referrer_key.referrer_type)
      || "; END IF;";
  END LOOP;

  func_body := func_body || ' RETURN NULL; END;';
```

```

func_cmd :=
  'CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION cs_find_referrer_type(v_host varchar,
                                                    v_domain varchar,
                                                    v_url varchar)
    RETURNS varchar AS '
  || quote_literal(func_body)
  || ' LANGUAGE plpgsql;' ;

EXECUTE func_cmd;
RETURN;
END;
$func$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

Notice how the body of the function is built separately and passed through `quote_literal` to double any quote marks in it. This technique is needed because we cannot safely use dollar quoting for defining the new function: we do not know for sure what strings will be interpolated from the `referrer_key.key_string` field. (We are assuming here that `referrer_key.kind` can be trusted to always be `host`, `domain`, or `url`, but `referrer_key.key_string` might be anything, in particular it might contain dollar signs.) This function is actually an improvement on the Oracle original, because it will not generate broken code when `referrer_key.key_string` or `referrer_key.referrer_type` contain quote marks.

Example 35-6 shows how to port a function with `OUT` parameters and string manipulation. PostgreSQL does not have an `instr` function, but you can work around it using a combination of other functions. In Section 35.11.3 there is a PL/pgSQL implementation of `instr` that you can use to make your porting easier.

Example 35-6. Porting a Procedure With String Manipulation and `OUT` Parameters from PL/SQL to PL/pgSQL

The following Oracle PL/SQL procedure is used to parse a URL and return several elements (host, path, and query). In PostgreSQL, functions can return only one value. One way to work around this is to make the return value a composite type (row type).

This is the Oracle version:

```

CREATE OR REPLACE PROCEDURE cs_parse_url(
  v_url IN VARCHAR,
  v_host OUT VARCHAR, -- This will be passed back
  v_path OUT VARCHAR, -- This one too
  v_query OUT VARCHAR) -- And this one
IS
  a_pos1 INTEGER;
  a_pos2 INTEGER;
BEGIN
  v_host := NULL;
  v_path := NULL;
  v_query := NULL;
  a_pos1 := instr(v_url, '//');

  IF a_pos1 = 0 THEN

```

```

        RETURN;
    END IF;
    a_pos2 := instr(v_url, '/', a_pos1 + 2);
    IF a_pos2 = 0 THEN
        v_host := substr(v_url, a_pos1 + 2);
        v_path := '/';
        RETURN;
    END IF;

    v_host := substr(v_url, a_pos1 + 2, a_pos2 - a_pos1 - 2);
    a_pos1 := instr(v_url, '?', a_pos2 + 1);

    IF a_pos1 = 0 THEN
        v_path := substr(v_url, a_pos2);
        RETURN;
    END IF;

    v_path := substr(v_url, a_pos2, a_pos1 - a_pos2);
    v_query := substr(v_url, a_pos1 + 1);
END;
/
show errors;

```

Here is a possible translation into PL/pgSQL:

```

CREATE TYPE cs_parse_url_result AS (
    v_host VARCHAR,
    v_path VARCHAR,
    v_query VARCHAR
);

CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION cs_parse_url(v_url VARCHAR)
RETURNS cs_parse_url_result AS $$
DECLARE
    res cs_parse_url_result;
    a_pos1 INTEGER;
    a_pos2 INTEGER;
BEGIN
    res.v_host := NULL;
    res.v_path := NULL;
    res.v_query := NULL;
    a_pos1 := instr(v_url, '//');

    IF a_pos1 = 0 THEN
        RETURN res;
    END IF;
    a_pos2 := instr(v_url, '/', a_pos1 + 2);
    IF a_pos2 = 0 THEN
        res.v_host := substr(v_url, a_pos1 + 2);
        res.v_path := '/';
        RETURN res;
    END IF;

    res.v_host := substr(v_url, a_pos1 + 2, a_pos2 - a_pos1 - 2);

```

```

a_pos1 := instr(v_url, '?', a_pos2 + 1);

IF a_pos1 = 0 THEN
    res.v_path := substr(v_url, a_pos2);
    RETURN res;
END IF;

res.v_path := substr(v_url, a_pos2, a_pos1 - a_pos2);
res.v_query := substr(v_url, a_pos1 + 1);
RETURN res;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

This function could be used like this:

```
SELECT * FROM cs_parse_url('http://foobar.com/query.cgi?baz');
```

Example 35-7 shows how to port a procedure that uses numerous features that are specific to Oracle.

Example 35-7. Porting a Procedure from PL/SQL to PL/pgSQL

The Oracle version:

```

CREATE OR REPLACE PROCEDURE cs_create_job(v_job_id IN INTEGER) IS
    a_running_job_count INTEGER;
    PRAGMA AUTONOMOUS_TRANSACTION;❶
BEGIN
    LOCK TABLE cs_jobs IN EXCLUSIVE MODE;❷

    SELECT count(*) INTO a_running_job_count FROM cs_jobs WHERE end_stamp IS NULL;

    IF a_running_job_count > 0 THEN
        COMMIT; -- free lock❸
        raise_application_error(-20000, 'Unable to create a new job: a job is currently
    END IF;

    DELETE FROM cs_active_job;
    INSERT INTO cs_active_job(job_id) VALUES (v_job_id);

    BEGIN
        INSERT INTO cs_jobs (job_id, start_stamp) VALUES (v_job_id, sysdate);
    EXCEPTION
        WHEN dup_val_on_index THEN NULL; -- don't worry if it already exists
    END;
    COMMIT;
END;
/
show errors

```

Procedures like this can easily be converted into PostgreSQL functions returning void. This procedure in particular is interesting because it can teach us some things:

- ❶ There is no PRAGMA statement in PostgreSQL.

- ❷ If you do a `LOCK TABLE` in PL/pgSQL, the lock will not be released until the calling transaction is finished.
- ❸ You cannot issue `COMMIT` in a PL/pgSQL function. The function is running within some outer transaction and so `COMMIT` would imply terminating the function's execution. However, in this particular case it is not necessary anyway, because the lock obtained by the `LOCK TABLE` will be released when we raise an error.

This is how we could port this procedure to PL/pgSQL:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION cs_create_job(v_job_id integer) RETURNS void AS $$
DECLARE
    a_running_job_count integer;
BEGIN
    LOCK TABLE cs_jobs IN EXCLUSIVE MODE;

    SELECT count(*) INTO a_running_job_count FROM cs_jobs WHERE end_stamp IS NULL;

    IF a_running_job_count > 0 THEN
        RAISE EXCEPTION 'Unable to create a new job: a job is currently running';❶
    END IF;

    DELETE FROM cs_active_job;
    INSERT INTO cs_active_job(job_id) VALUES (v_job_id);

    BEGIN
        INSERT INTO cs_jobs (job_id, start_stamp) VALUES (v_job_id, now());
    EXCEPTION
        WHEN unique_violation THEN ❷
            -- don't worry if it already exists
    END;

    RETURN;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
```

- ❶ The syntax of `RAISE` is considerably different from Oracle's similar statement.
- ❷ The exception names supported by PL/pgSQL are different from Oracle's. The set of built-in exception names is much larger (see Appendix A). There is not currently a way to declare user-defined exception names.

The main functional difference between this procedure and the Oracle equivalent is that the exclusive lock on the `cs_jobs` table will be held until the calling transaction completes. Also, if the caller later aborts (for example due to an error), the effects of this procedure will be rolled back.

35.11.2. Other Things to Watch For

This section explains a few other things to watch for when porting Oracle PL/SQL functions to PostgreSQL.

35.11.2.1. Implicit Rollback after Exceptions

In PL/pgSQL, when an exception is caught by an `EXCEPTION` clause, all database changes since the block's `BEGIN` are automatically rolled back. That is, the behavior is equivalent to what you'd get in Oracle with

```
BEGIN
    SAVEPOINT s1;
    ... code here ...
EXCEPTION
    WHEN ... THEN
        ROLLBACK TO s1;
        ... code here ...
    WHEN ... THEN
        ROLLBACK TO s1;
        ... code here ...
END;
```

If you are translating an Oracle procedure that uses `SAVEPOINT` and `ROLLBACK TO` in this style, your task is easy: just omit the `SAVEPOINT` and `ROLLBACK TO`. If you have a procedure that uses `SAVEPOINT` and `ROLLBACK TO` in a different way then some actual thought will be required.

35.11.2.2. EXECUTE

The PL/pgSQL version of `EXECUTE` works similarly to the PL/SQL version, but you have to remember to use `quote_literal(text)` and `quote_string(text)` as described in Section 35.6.5. Constructs of the type `EXECUTE 'SELECT * FROM $1'`; will not work unless you use these functions.

35.11.2.3. Optimizing PL/pgSQL Functions

PostgreSQL gives you two function creation modifiers to optimize execution: “volatility” (whether the function always returns the same result when given the same arguments) and “strictness” (whether the function returns null if any argument is null). Consult the `CREATE FUNCTION` reference page for details.

When making use of these optimization attributes, your `CREATE FUNCTION` statement might look something like this:

```
CREATE FUNCTION foo(...) RETURNS integer AS $$
...
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql STRICT IMMUTABLE;
```

35.11.3. Appendix

This section contains the code for a set of Oracle-compatible `instr` functions that you can use to simplify your porting efforts.

```
--
-- instr functions that mimic Oracle's counterpart
-- Syntax: instr(string1, string2, [n], [m]) where [] denotes optional parameters.
--
-- Searches string1 beginning at the nth character for the mth occurrence
-- of string2. If n is negative, search backwards. If m is not passed,
-- assume 1 (search starts at first character).
--

CREATE FUNCTION instr(vvarchar, varchar) RETURNS integer AS $$
DECLARE
    pos integer;
BEGIN
    pos:= instr($1, $2, 1);
    RETURN pos;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql STRICT IMMUTABLE;

CREATE FUNCTION instr(string varchar, string_to_search varchar, beg_index integer)
RETURNS integer AS $$
DECLARE
    pos integer NOT NULL DEFAULT 0;
    temp_str varchar;
    beg integer;
    length integer;
    ss_length integer;
BEGIN
    IF beg_index > 0 THEN
        temp_str := substring(string FROM beg_index);
        pos := position(string_to_search IN temp_str);

        IF pos = 0 THEN
            RETURN 0;
        ELSE
            RETURN pos + beg_index - 1;
        END IF;
    ELSE
        ss_length := char_length(string_to_search);
        length := char_length(string);
        beg := length + beg_index - ss_length + 2;

        WHILE beg > 0 LOOP
            temp_str := substring(string FROM beg FOR ss_length);
            pos := position(string_to_search IN temp_str);

            IF pos > 0 THEN
                RETURN beg;
            END IF;
            beg := beg - 1;
        END LOOP;
    END IF;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql STRICT IMMUTABLE;
```

```

        END IF;

        beg := beg - 1;
    END LOOP;

    RETURN 0;
END IF;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql STRICT IMMUTABLE;

CREATE FUNCTION instr(string varchar, string_to_search varchar,
                    beg_index integer, occur_index integer)
RETURNS integer AS $$
DECLARE
    pos integer NOT NULL DEFAULT 0;
    occur_number integer NOT NULL DEFAULT 0;
    temp_str varchar;
    beg integer;
    i integer;
    length integer;
    ss_length integer;
BEGIN
    IF beg_index > 0 THEN
        beg := beg_index;
        temp_str := substring(string FROM beg_index);

        FOR i IN 1..occur_index LOOP
            pos := position(string_to_search IN temp_str);

            IF i = 1 THEN
                beg := beg + pos - 1;
            ELSE
                beg := beg + pos;
            END IF;

            temp_str := substring(string FROM beg + 1);
        END LOOP;

        IF pos = 0 THEN
            RETURN 0;
        ELSE
            RETURN beg;
        END IF;
    ELSE
        ss_length := char_length(string_to_search);
        length := char_length(string);
        beg := length + beg_index - ss_length + 2;

        WHILE beg > 0 LOOP
            temp_str := substring(string FROM beg FOR ss_length);
            pos := position(string_to_search IN temp_str);

```

```
IF pos > 0 THEN
    occur_number := occur_number + 1;

    IF occur_number = occur_index THEN
        RETURN beg;
    END IF;
END IF;

beg := beg - 1;
END LOOP;

RETURN 0;
END IF;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql STRICT IMMUTABLE;
```

Chapter 36. PL/Tcl - Tcl Procedural Language

PL/Tcl is a loadable procedural language for the PostgreSQL database system that enables the Tcl¹ language to be used to write functions and trigger procedures.

36.1. Overview

PL/Tcl offers most of the capabilities a function writer has in the C language, except for some restrictions.

The good restriction is that everything is executed in a safe Tcl interpreter. In addition to the limited command set of safe Tcl, only a few commands are available to access the database via SPI and to raise messages via `elog()`. There is no way to access internals of the database server or to gain OS-level access under the permissions of the PostgreSQL server process, as a C function can do. Thus, any unprivileged database user may be permitted to use this language.

The other, implementation restriction is that Tcl functions cannot be used to create input/output functions for new data types.

Sometimes it is desirable to write Tcl functions that are not restricted to safe Tcl. For example, one might want a Tcl function that sends email. To handle these cases, there is a variant of PL/Tcl called `PL/TclU` (for untrusted Tcl). This is the exact same language except that a full Tcl interpreter is used. *If PL/TclU is used, it must be installed as an untrusted procedural language* so that only database superusers can create functions in it. The writer of a PL/TclU function must take care that the function cannot be used to do anything unwanted, since it will be able to do anything that could be done by a user logged in as the database administrator.

The shared object for the PL/Tcl and PL/TclU call handlers is automatically built and installed in the PostgreSQL library directory if Tcl support is specified in the configuration step of the installation procedure. To install PL/Tcl and/or PL/TclU in a particular database, use the `createlang` program, for example `createlang pltcl dbname` or `createlang pltclu dbname`.

36.2. PL/Tcl Functions and Arguments

To create a function in the PL/Tcl language, use the standard syntax:

```
CREATE FUNCTION funcname (argument-types) RETURNS return-type AS $$
    # PL/Tcl function body
$$ LANGUAGE pltcl;
```

PL/TclU is the same, except that the language has to be specified as `pltclu`.

The body of the function is simply a piece of Tcl script. When the function is called, the argument values are passed as variables `$1 ... $n` to the Tcl script. The result is returned from the Tcl code in the usual way, with a `return` statement.

For example, a function returning the greater of two integer values could be defined as:

```
CREATE FUNCTION tcl_max(integer, integer) RETURNS integer AS $$
    if {$1 > $2} {return $1}
```

1. <http://www.tcl.tk/>

```

    return $2
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql STRICT;

```

Note the clause `STRICT`, which saves us from having to think about null input values: if a null value is passed, the function will not be called at all, but will just return a null result automatically.

In a nonstrict function, if the actual value of an argument is null, the corresponding $\$n$ variable will be set to an empty string. To detect whether a particular argument is null, use the function `argisnull`. For example, suppose that we wanted `tcl_max` with one null and one nonnull argument to return the nonnull argument, rather than null:

```

CREATE FUNCTION tcl_max(integer, integer) RETURNS integer AS $$
    if {[argisnull 1]} {
        if {[argisnull 2]} { return_null }
        return $2
    }
    if {[argisnull 2]} { return $1 }
    if {$1 > $2} {return $1}
    return $2
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

As shown above, to return a null value from a PL/Tcl function, execute `return_null`. This can be done whether the function is strict or not.

Composite-type arguments are passed to the function as Tcl arrays. The element names of the array are the attribute names of the composite type. If an attribute in the passed row has the null value, it will not appear in the array. Here is an example:

```

CREATE TABLE employee (
    name text,
    salary integer,
    age integer
);

CREATE FUNCTION overpaid(employee) RETURNS boolean AS $$
    if {200000.0 < $1(salary)} {
        return "t"
    }
    if {$1(age) < 30 && 100000.0 < $1(salary)} {
        return "t"
    }
    return "f"
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

```

There is currently no support for returning a composite-type result value, nor for returning sets.

PL/Tcl does not currently have full support for domain types: it treats a domain the same as the underlying scalar type. This means that constraints associated with the domain will not be enforced. This is not an issue for function arguments, but it is a hazard if you declare a PL/Tcl function as returning a domain type.

36.3. Data Values in PL/Tcl

The argument values supplied to a PL/Tcl function's code are simply the input arguments converted to text form (just as if they had been displayed by a `SELECT` statement). Conversely, the `return` command will accept any string that is acceptable input format for the function's declared return type. So, within the PL/Tcl function, all values are just text strings.

36.4. Global Data in PL/Tcl

Sometimes it is useful to have some global data that is held between two calls to a function or is shared between different functions. This is easily done since all PL/Tcl functions executed in one session share the same safe Tcl interpreter. So, any global Tcl variable is accessible to all PL/Tcl function calls and will persist for the duration of the SQL session. (Note that PL/TclU functions likewise share global data, but they are in a different Tcl interpreter and cannot communicate with PL/Tcl functions.)

To help protect PL/Tcl functions from unintentionally interfering with each other, a global array is made available to each function via the `upvar` command. The global name of this variable is the function's internal name, and the local name is `GD`. It is recommended that `GD` be used for persistent private data of a function. Use regular Tcl global variables only for values that you specifically intend to be shared among multiple functions.

An example of using `GD` appears in the `spi_exec` example below.

36.5. Database Access from PL/Tcl

The following commands are available to access the database from the body of a PL/Tcl function:

```
spi_exec ?-count n? ?-array name? command ?loop-body?
```

Executes an SQL command given as a string. An error in the command causes an error to be raised. Otherwise, the return value of `spi_exec` is the number of rows processed (selected, inserted, updated, or deleted) by the command, or zero if the command is a utility statement. In addition, if the command is a `SELECT` statement, the values of the selected columns are placed in Tcl variables as described below.

The optional `-count` value tells `spi_exec` the maximum number of rows to process in the command. The effect of this is comparable to setting up a query as a cursor and then saying `FETCH n`.

If the command is a `SELECT` statement, the values of the result columns are placed into Tcl variables named after the columns. If the `-array` option is given, the column values are instead stored into the named associative array, with the column names used as array indexes.

If the command is a `SELECT` statement and no `loop-body` script is given, then only the first row of results are stored into Tcl variables; remaining rows, if any, are ignored. No storing occurs if the query returns no rows. (This case can be detected by checking the result of `spi_exec`.) For example,

```
spi_exec "SELECT count(*) AS cnt FROM pg_proc"
```

will set the Tcl variable `$cnt` to the number of rows in the `pg_proc` system catalog.

If the optional *loop-body* argument is given, it is a piece of Tcl script that is executed once for each row in the query result. (*loop-body* is ignored if the given command is not a `SELECT`.) The values of the current row's columns are stored into Tcl variables before each iteration. For example,

```
spi_exec -array C "SELECT * FROM pg_class" {
    elog DEBUG "have table ${C(relname)}"
}
```

will print a log message for every row of `pg_class`. This feature works similarly to other Tcl looping constructs; in particular `continue` and `break` work in the usual way inside the loop body.

If a column of a query result is null, the target variable for it is “unset” rather than being set.

`spi_prepare query typelist`

Prepares and saves a query plan for later execution. The saved plan will be retained for the life of the current session.

The query may use parameters, that is, placeholders for values to be supplied whenever the plan is actually executed. In the query string, refer to parameters by the symbols `$1 ... $n`. If the query uses parameters, the names of the parameter types must be given as a Tcl list. (Write an empty list for *typelist* if no parameters are used.) Presently, the parameter types must be identified by the internal type names shown in the system table `pg_type`; for example `int4` not `integer`.

The return value from `spi_prepare` is a query ID to be used in subsequent calls to `spi_execp`. See `spi_execp` for an example.

`spi_execp ?-count n? ?-array name? ?-nulls string? queryid ?value-list?
?loop-body?`

Executes a query previously prepared with `spi_prepare`. *queryid* is the ID returned by `spi_prepare`. If the query references parameters, a *value-list* must be supplied. This is a Tcl list of actual values for the parameters. The list must be the same length as the parameter type list previously given to `spi_prepare`. Omit *value-list* if the query has no parameters.

The optional value for `-nulls` is a string of spaces and ‘n’ characters telling `spi_execp` which of the parameters are null values. If given, it must have exactly the same length as the *value-list*. If it is not given, all the parameter values are nonnull.

Except for the way in which the query and its parameters are specified, `spi_execp` works just like `spi_exec`. The `-count`, `-array`, and *loop-body* options are the same, and so is the result value.

Here's an example of a PL/Tcl function using a prepared plan:

```
CREATE FUNCTION t1_count(integer, integer) RETURNS integer AS $$
    if {![ info exists GD(plan) ]} {
        # prepare the saved plan on the first call
        set GD(plan) [ spi_prepare \
            "SELECT count(*) AS cnt FROM t1 WHERE num >= \ $1 AND num <= \ $2" \
            [ list int4 int4 ] ]
    }
    spi_execp -count 1 $GD(plan) [ list $1 $2 ]
    return $cnt
$$ LANGUAGE pltcl;
```

We need backslashes inside the query string given to `spi_prepare` to ensure that the `$n` markers will be passed through to `spi_prepare` as-is, and not replaced by Tcl variable substitution.

`spi_lastoid`

Returns the OID of the row inserted by the last `spi_exec` or `spi_execp`, if the command was a single-row `INSERT`. (If not, you get zero.)

`quote string`

Doubles all occurrences of single quote and backslash characters in the given string. This may be used to safely quote strings that are to be inserted into SQL commands given to `spi_exec` or `spi_prepare`. For example, think about an SQL command string like

```
"SELECT '$val' AS ret"
```

where the Tcl variable `val` actually contains `doesn't`. This would result in the final command string

```
SELECT 'doesn't' AS ret
```

which would cause a parse error during `spi_exec` or `spi_prepare`. To work properly, the submitted command should contain

```
SELECT 'doesn"t' AS ret
```

which can be formed in PL/Tcl using

```
"SELECT '[ quote $val ]' AS ret"
```

One advantage of `spi_execp` is that you don't have to quote parameter values like this, since the parameters are never parsed as part of an SQL command string.

`elog level msg`

Emits a log or error message. Possible levels are `DEBUG`, `LOG`, `INFO`, `NOTICE`, `WARNING`, `ERROR`, and `FATAL`. `ERROR` raises an error condition; if this is not trapped by the surrounding Tcl code, the error propagates out to the calling query, causing the current transaction or subtransaction to be aborted. This is effectively the same as the Tcl `error` command. `FATAL` aborts the transaction and causes the current session to shut down. (There is probably no good reason to use this error level in PL/Tcl functions, but it's provided for completeness.) The other levels only generate messages of different priority levels. Whether messages of a particular priority are reported to the client, written to the server log, or both is controlled by the `log_min_messages` and `client_min_messages` configuration variables. See Section 16.4 for more information.

36.6. Trigger Procedures in PL/Tcl

Trigger procedures can be written in PL/Tcl. PostgreSQL requires that a procedure that is to be called as a trigger must be declared as a function with no arguments and a return type of `trigger`.

The information from the trigger manager is passed to the procedure body in the following variables:

`$TG_name`

The name of the trigger from the `CREATE TRIGGER` statement.

`$TG_relid`

The object ID of the table that caused the trigger procedure to be invoked.

`$TG_relatts`

A Tcl list of the table column names, prefixed with an empty list element. So looking up a column name in the list with Tcl's `lsearch` command returns the element's number starting with 1 for the first column, the same way the columns are customarily numbered in PostgreSQL. (Empty list elements also appear in the positions of columns that have been dropped, so that the attribute numbering is correct for columns to their right.)

`$TG_when`

The string `BEFORE` or `AFTER` depending on the type of trigger call.

`$TG_level`

The string `ROW` or `STATEMENT` depending on the type of trigger call.

`$TG_op`

The string `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE` depending on the type of trigger call.

`$NEW`

An associative array containing the values of the new table row for `INSERT` or `UPDATE` actions, or empty for `DELETE`. The array is indexed by column name. Columns that are null will not appear in the array.

`$OLD`

An associative array containing the values of the old table row for `UPDATE` or `DELETE` actions, or empty for `INSERT`. The array is indexed by column name. Columns that are null will not appear in the array.

`$args`

A Tcl list of the arguments to the procedure as given in the `CREATE TRIGGER` statement. These arguments are also accessible as `$1 ... $n` in the procedure body.

The return value from a trigger procedure can be one of the strings `OK` or `SKIP`, or a list as returned by the `array get` Tcl command. If the return value is `OK`, the operation (`INSERT/UPDATE/DELETE`) that fired the trigger will proceed normally. `SKIP` tells the trigger manager to silently suppress the operation for this row. If a list is returned, it tells PL/Tcl to return a modified row to the trigger manager that will be inserted instead of the one given in `$NEW`. (This works for `INSERT` and `UPDATE` only.) Needless to say that all this is only meaningful when the trigger is `BEFORE` and `FOR EACH ROW`; otherwise the return value is ignored.

Here's a little example trigger procedure that forces an integer value in a table to keep track of the number of updates that are performed on the row. For new rows inserted, the value is initialized to 0 and then incremented on every update operation.

```
CREATE FUNCTION trigfunc_modcount() RETURNS trigger AS $$
  switch $TG_op {
    INSERT {
      set NEW($1) 0
    }
    UPDATE {
      set NEW($1) $OLD($1)
    }
  }

```

```

        incr NEW($1)
    }
    default {
        return OK
    }
}
return [array get NEW]
$$ LANGUAGE pltcl;

CREATE TABLE mytab (num integer, description text, modcnt integer);

CREATE TRIGGER trig_mytab_modcount BEFORE INSERT OR UPDATE ON mytab
FOR EACH ROW EXECUTE PROCEDURE trigfunc_modcount('modcnt');
```

Notice that the trigger procedure itself does not know the column name; that's supplied from the trigger arguments. This lets the trigger procedure be reused with different tables.

36.7. Modules and the `unknown` command

PL/Tcl has support for autoloading Tcl code when used. It recognizes a special table, `pltcl_modules`, which is presumed to contain modules of Tcl code. If this table exists, the module `unknown` is fetched from the table and loaded into the Tcl interpreter immediately after creating the interpreter.

While the `unknown` module could actually contain any initialization script you need, it normally defines a Tcl `unknown` procedure that is invoked whenever Tcl does not recognize an invoked procedure name. PL/Tcl's standard version of this procedure tries to find a module in `pltcl_modules` that will define the required procedure. If one is found, it is loaded into the interpreter, and then execution is allowed to proceed with the originally attempted procedure call. A secondary table `pltcl_modfuncs` provides an index of which functions are defined by which modules, so that the lookup is reasonably quick.

The PostgreSQL distribution includes support scripts to maintain these tables: `pltcl_loadmod`, `pltcl_listmod`, `pltcl_delmod`, as well as source for the standard `unknown` module in `share/unknown.pltcl`. This module must be loaded into each database initially to support the autoloading mechanism.

The tables `pltcl_modules` and `pltcl_modfuncs` must be readable by all, but it is wise to make them owned and writable only by the database administrator.

36.8. Tcl Procedure Names

In PostgreSQL, one and the same function name can be used for different functions as long as the number of arguments or their types differ. Tcl, however, requires all procedure names to be distinct. PL/Tcl deals with this by making the internal Tcl procedure names contain the object ID of the function from the system table `pg_proc` as part of their name. Thus, PostgreSQL functions with the same name and different argument types will be different Tcl procedures, too. This is not normally a concern for a PL/Tcl programmer, but it might be visible when debugging.

Chapter 37. PL/Perl - Perl Procedural Language

PL/Perl is a loadable procedural language that enables you to write PostgreSQL functions in the Perl¹ programming language.

To install PL/Perl in a particular database, use `createlang plperl dbname`.

Tip: If a language is installed into `template1`, all subsequently created databases will have the language installed automatically.

Note: Users of source packages must specially enable the build of PL/Perl during the installation process. (Refer to Section 14.1 for more information.) Users of binary packages might find PL/Perl in a separate subpackage.

37.1. PL/Perl Functions and Arguments

To create a function in the PL/Perl language, use the standard syntax:

```
CREATE FUNCTION funcname (argument-types) RETURNS return-type AS $$
    # PL/Perl function body
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;
```

The body of the function is ordinary Perl code.

The syntax of the `CREATE FUNCTION` command requires the function body to be written as a string constant. It is usually most convenient to use dollar quoting (see Section 4.1.2.2) for the string constant. If you choose to use regular single-quoted string constant syntax, you must escape single quote marks (`'`) and backslashes (`\`) used in the body of the function, typically by doubling them (see Section 4.1.2.1).

Arguments and results are handled as in any other Perl subroutine: arguments are passed in `@_`, and a result value is returned with `return` or as the last expression evaluated in the function.

For example, a function returning the greater of two integer values could be defined as:

```
CREATE FUNCTION perl_max (integer, integer) RETURNS integer AS $$
    if ($_[0] > $_[1]) { return $_[0]; }
    return $_[1];
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;
```

If an SQL null value is passed to a function, the argument value will appear as “undefined” in Perl. The above function definition will not behave very nicely with null inputs (in fact, it will act as though they are zeroes). We could add `STRICT` to the function definition to make PostgreSQL do something more reasonable: if a null value is passed, the function will not be called at all, but will just return a null result automatically. Alternatively, we could check for undefined inputs in the function body. For

1. <http://www.perl.com>

example, suppose that we wanted `perl_max` with one null and one nonnull argument to return the nonnull argument, rather than a null value:

```
CREATE FUNCTION perl_max (integer, integer) RETURNS integer AS $$
  my ($a,$b) = @_;
  if (! defined $a) {
    if (! defined $b) { return undef; }
    return $b;
  }
  if (! defined $b) { return $a; }
  if ($a > $b) { return $a; }
  return $b;
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;
```

As shown above, to return an SQL null value from a PL/Perl function, return an undefined value. This can be done whether the function is strict or not.

Composite-type arguments are passed to the function as references to hashes. The keys of the hash are the attribute names of the composite type. Here is an example:

```
CREATE TABLE employee (
  name text,
  basesalary integer,
  bonus integer
);

CREATE FUNCTION empcomp(employee) RETURNS integer AS $$
  my ($emp) = @_;
  return $emp->{basesalary} + $emp->{bonus};
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;

SELECT name, empcomp(employee.*) FROM employee;
```

A PL/Perl function can return a composite-type result using the same approach: return a reference to a hash that has the required attributes. For example,

```
CREATE TYPE testrowperl AS (f1 integer, f2 text, f3 text);

CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION perl_row() RETURNS testrowperl AS $$
  return {f2 => 'hello', f1 => 1, f3 => 'world'};
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;

SELECT * FROM perl_row();
```

Any columns in the declared result data type that are not present in the hash will be returned as NULLs.

PL/Perl functions can also return sets of either scalar or composite types. To do this, return a reference to an array that contains either scalars or references to hashes, respectively. Here are some simple examples:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION perl_set_int(int) RETURNS SETOF INTEGER AS $$
  return [0..$_[0]];
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;
```

```

SELECT * FROM perl_set_int(5);

CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION perl_set() RETURNS SETOF testrowperl AS $$
    return [
        { f1 => 1, f2 => 'Hello', f3 => 'World' },
        { f1 => 2, f2 => 'Hello', f3 => 'PostgreSQL' },
        { f1 => 3, f2 => 'Hello', f3 => 'PL/Perl' }
    ];
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;

SELECT * FROM perl_set();

```

Note that when you do this, Perl will have to build the entire array in memory; therefore the technique does not scale to very large result sets.

PL/Perl does not currently have full support for domain types: it treats a domain the same as the underlying scalar type. This means that constraints associated with the domain will not be enforced. This is not an issue for function arguments, but it is a hazard if you declare a PL/Perl function as returning a domain type.

37.2. Database Access from PL/Perl

Access to the database itself from your Perl function can be done via the function `spi_exec_query` described below, or via an experimental module `DBD::PgSPI2` (also available at CPAN mirror sites³). This module makes available a DBI-compliant database-handle named `$pg_dbh` that can be used to perform queries with normal DBI syntax.

PL/Perl itself presently provides two additional Perl commands:

```

spi_exec_query(query [, max-rows])
spi_exec_query(command)

```

Executes an SQL command. Here is an example of a query (`SELECT` command) with the optional maximum number of rows:

```
$rv = spi_exec_query('SELECT * FROM my_table', 5);
```

This returns up to 5 rows from the table `my_table`. If `my_table` has a column `my_column`, you can get that value from row `$i` of the result like this:

```
$foo = $rv->{rows}[$i]->{my_column};
```

The total number of rows returned from a `SELECT` query can be accessed like this:

```
$nrows = $rv->{processed}
```

Here is an example using a different command type:

```
$query = "INSERT INTO my_table VALUES (1, 'test')";
```

2. <http://www.cpan.org/modules/by-module/DBD/APILOS/>

3. <http://www.cpan.org/SITES.html>

```
$rv = spi_exec_query($query);
```

You can then access the command status (e.g., `SPI_OK_INSERT`) like this:

```
$res = $rv->{status};
```

To get the number of rows affected, do:

```
$nrows = $rv->{processed};
```

Here is a complete example:

```
CREATE TABLE test (
    i int,
    v varchar
);

INSERT INTO test (i, v) VALUES (1, 'first line');
INSERT INTO test (i, v) VALUES (2, 'second line');
INSERT INTO test (i, v) VALUES (3, 'third line');
INSERT INTO test (i, v) VALUES (4, 'immortal');

CREATE FUNCTION test_munge() RETURNS SETOF test AS $$
    my $res = [];
    my $rv = spi_exec_query('select i, v from test;');
    my $status = $rv->{status};
    my $nrows = $rv->{processed};
    foreach my $rn (0 .. $nrows - 1) {
        my $row = $rv->{rows}[$rn];
        $row->{i} += 200 if defined($row->{i});
        $row->{v} =~ tr/A-Za-z/a-zA-Z/ if (defined($row->{v}));
        push @$res, $row;
    }
    return $res;
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;

SELECT * FROM test_munge();
```

```
eelog(level, msg)
```

Emit a log or error message. Possible levels are `DEBUG`, `LOG`, `INFO`, `NOTICE`, `WARNING`, and `ERROR`. `ERROR` raises an error condition; if this is not trapped by the surrounding Perl code, the error propagates out to the calling query, causing the current transaction or subtransaction to be aborted. This is effectively the same as the Perl `die` command. The other levels only generate messages of different priority levels. Whether messages of a particular priority are reported to the client, written to the server log, or both is controlled by the `log_min_messages` and `client_min_messages` configuration variables. See Section 16.4 for more information.

37.3. Data Values in PL/Perl

The argument values supplied to a PL/Perl function's code are simply the input arguments converted to text form (just as if they had been displayed by a `SELECT` statement). Conversely, the `return` command will accept any string that is acceptable input format for the function's declared return type. So, within the PL/Perl function, all values are just text strings.

37.4. Global Values in PL/Perl

You can use the global hash `%_SHARED` to store data, including code references, between function calls for the lifetime of the current session.

Here is a simple example for shared data:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION set_var(name text, val text) RETURNS text AS $$
    if ($_SHARED{$_[0]} = $_[1]) {
        return 'ok';
    } else {
        return "can't set shared variable $_[0] to $_[1]";
    }
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;

CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION get_var(name text) RETURNS text AS $$
    return $_SHARED{$_[0]};
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;

SELECT set_var('sample', 'Hello, PL/Perl! How's tricks?');
SELECT get_var('sample');
```

Here is a slightly more complicated example using a code reference:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION myfuncs() RETURNS void AS $$
    $_SHARED{myquote} = sub {
        my $arg = shift;
        $arg =~ s/(['\\])/\\$1/g;
        return "'$arg'";
    };
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;

SELECT myfuncs(); /* initializes the function */

/* Set up a function that uses the quote function */

CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION use_quote(TEXT) RETURNS text AS $$
    my $text_to_quote = shift;
    my $qfunc = $_SHARED{myquote};
    return &$qfunc($text_to_quote);
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;
```

(You could have replaced the above with the one-liner `return $_SHARED{myquote}->($_[0]);` at the expense of readability.)

37.5. Trusted and Untrusted PL/Perl

Normally, PL/Perl is installed as a “trusted” programming language named `plperl`. In this setup, certain Perl operations are disabled to preserve security. In general, the operations that are restricted are those that interact with the environment. This includes file handle operations, `require`, and `use` (for external modules). There is no way to access internals of the database server process or to gain OS-level access with the permissions of the server process, as a C function can do. Thus, any unprivileged database user may be permitted to use this language.

Here is an example of a function that will not work because file system operations are not allowed for security reasons:

```
CREATE FUNCTION badfunc() RETURNS integer AS $$
    open(TEMP, ">/tmp/badfile");
    print TEMP "Gotcha!\n";
    return 1;
$$ LANGUAGE plperl;
```

The creation of the function will succeed, but executing it will not.

Sometimes it is desirable to write Perl functions that are not restricted. For example, one might want a Perl function that sends mail. To handle these cases, PL/Perl can also be installed as an “untrusted” language (usually called PL/PerlU). In this case the full Perl language is available. If the `createlang` program is used to install the language, the language name `plperlU` will select the untrusted PL/Perl variant.

The writer of a PL/PerlU function must take care that the function cannot be used to do anything unwanted, since it will be able to do anything that could be done by a user logged in as the database administrator. Note that the database system allows only database superusers to create functions in untrusted languages.

If the above function was created by a superuser using the language `plperlU`, execution would succeed.

37.6. PL/Perl Triggers

PL/Perl can be used to write trigger functions. In a trigger function, the hash reference `$_TD` contains information about the current trigger event. The fields of the `$_TD` hash reference are:

```
$_TD->{new}{foo}
    NEW value of column foo

$_TD->{old}{foo}
    OLD value of column foo

$_TD->{name}
    Name of the trigger being called
```

`$_TD->{event}`

Trigger event: INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, or UNKNOWN

`$_TD->{when}`

When the trigger was called: BEFORE, AFTER, or UNKNOWN

`$_TD->{level}`

The trigger level: ROW, STATEMENT, or UNKNOWN

`$_TD->{relid}`

OID of the table on which the trigger fired

`$_TD->{relname}`

Name of the table on which the trigger fired

`$_TD->{argc}`

Number of arguments of the trigger function

`@{$_TD->{args}}`

Arguments of the trigger function. Does not exist if `$_TD->{argc}` is 0.

Triggers can return one of the following:

`return;`

Execute the statement

`"SKIP"`

Don't execute the statement

`"MODIFY"`

Indicates that the NEW row was modified by the trigger function

Here is an example of a trigger function, illustrating some of the above:

```
CREATE TABLE test (
    i int,
    v varchar
);

CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION valid_id() RETURNS trigger AS $$
    if (($_TD->{new}{i} >= 100) || ($_TD->{new}{i} <= 0)) {
        return "SKIP"; # skip INSERT/UPDATE command
    } elsif ($_TD->{new}{v} ne "immortal") {
        $_TD->{new}{v} .= "(modified by trigger)";
        return "MODIFY"; # modify row and execute INSERT/UPDATE command
    } else {
```

```
        return;          # execute INSERT/UPDATE command
    }
    $$ LANGUAGE plperl;

CREATE TRIGGER test_valid_id_trig
    BEFORE INSERT OR UPDATE ON test
    FOR EACH ROW EXECUTE PROCEDURE valid_id();
```

37.7. Limitations and Missing Features

The following features are currently missing from PL/Perl, but they would make welcome contributions.

- PL/Perl functions cannot call each other directly (because they are anonymous subroutines inside Perl).
- SPI is not yet fully implemented.
- In the current implementation, if you are fetching or returning very large data sets, you should be aware that these will all go into memory.

Chapter 38. PL/Python - Python Procedural Language

The PL/Python procedural language allows PostgreSQL functions to be written in the Python¹ language.

To install PL/Python in a particular database, use `createlang plpythonu dbname`.

Tip: If a language is installed into `template1`, all subsequently created databases will have the language installed automatically.

As of PostgreSQL 7.4, PL/Python is only available as an “untrusted” language (meaning it does not offer any way of restricting what users can do in it). It has therefore been renamed to `plpythonu`. The trusted variant `plpython` may become available again in future, if a new secure execution mechanism is developed in Python.

Note: Users of source packages must specially enable the build of PL/Python during the installation process. (Refer to the installation instructions for more information.) Users of binary packages might find PL/Python in a separate subpackage.

38.1. PL/Python Functions

Functions in PL/Python are declared in the usual way, for example

```
CREATE FUNCTION myfunc(text) RETURNS text
AS 'return args[0]'
LANGUAGE plpythonu;
```

The Python code that is given as the body of the function definition gets transformed into a Python function. For example, the above results in

```
def __plpython_procedure_myfunc_23456():
    return args[0]
```

assuming that 23456 is the OID assigned to the function by PostgreSQL.

If you do not provide a return value, Python returns the default `None`. PL/Python translates Python’s `None` into the SQL null value.

The PostgreSQL function parameters are available in the global `args` list. In the `myfunc` example, `args[0]` contains whatever was passed in as the `text` argument. For `myfunc2(text, integer)`, `args[0]` would contain the `text` argument and `args[1]` the `integer` argument.

The global dictionary `SD` is available to store data between function calls. This variable is private static data. The global dictionary `GD` is public data, available to all Python functions within a session. Use with care.

1. <http://www.python.org>

Each function gets its own execution environment in the Python interpreter, so that global data and function arguments from `myfunc` are not available to `myfunc2`. The exception is the data in the `GD` dictionary, as mentioned above.

38.2. Trigger Functions

When a function is used as a trigger, the dictionary `TD` contains trigger-related values. The trigger rows are in `TD["new"]` and/or `TD["old"]` depending on the trigger event. `TD["event"]` contains the event as a string (`INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, or `UNKNOWN`). `TD["when"]` contains one of `BEFORE`, `AFTER`, and `UNKNOWN`. `TD["level"]` contains one of `ROW`, `STATEMENT`, and `UNKNOWN`. `TD["name"]` contains the trigger name, and `TD["relid"]` contains the `OID` of the table on which the trigger occurred. If the `CREATE TRIGGER` command included arguments, they are available in `TD["args"][0]` to `TD["args"][(n-1)]`.

If `TD["when"]` is `BEFORE`, you may return `None` or `"OK"` from the Python function to indicate the row is unmodified, `"SKIP"` to abort the event, or `"MODIFY"` to indicate you've modified the row.

38.3. Database Access

The PL/Python language module automatically imports a Python module called `plpy`. The functions and constants in this module are available to you in the Python code as `plpy.foo`. At present `plpy` implements the functions `plpy.debug(msg)`, `plpy.log(msg)`, `plpy.info(msg)`, `plpy.notice(msg)`, `plpy.warning(msg)`, `plpy.error(msg)`, and `plpy.fatal(msg)`. `plpy.error` and `plpy.fatal` actually raise a Python exception which, if uncaught, propagates out to the calling query, causing the current transaction or subtransaction to be aborted. `raise plpy.ERROR(msg)` and `raise plpy.FATAL(msg)` are equivalent to calling `plpy.error` and `plpy.fatal`, respectively. The other functions only generate messages of different priority levels. Whether messages of a particular priority are reported to the client, written to the server log, or both is controlled by the `log_min_messages` and `client_min_messages` configuration variables. See Section 16.4 for more information.

Additionally, the `plpy` module provides two functions called `execute` and `prepare`. Calling `plpy.execute` with a query string and an optional `limit` argument causes that query to be run and the result to be returned in a result object. The result object emulates a list or dictionary object. The result object can be accessed by row number and column name. It has these additional methods: `nrows` which returns the number of rows returned by the query, and `status` which is the `SPI_execute()` return value. The result object can be modified.

For example,

```
rv = plpy.execute("SELECT * FROM my_table", 5)
```

returns up to 5 rows from `my_table`. If `my_table` has a column `my_column`, it would be accessed as

```
foo = rv[i]["my_column"]
```

The second function, `plpy.prepare`, prepares the execution plan for a query. It is called with a query string and a list of parameter types, if you have parameter references in the query. For example:

```
plan = plpy.prepare("SELECT last_name FROM my_users WHERE first_name = $1", [ "text" ])
```

text is the type of the variable you will be passing for \$1. After preparing a statement, you use the function `plpy.execute` to run it:

```
rv = plpy.execute(plan, [ "name" ], 5)
```

The third argument is the limit and is optional.

When you prepare a plan using the PL/Python module it is automatically saved. Read the SPI documentation (Chapter 39) for a description of what this means. In order to make effective use of this across function calls one needs to use one of the persistent storage dictionaries `SD` or `GD` (see Section 38.1). For example:

```
CREATE FUNCTION usesavedplan() RETURNS trigger AS $$
    if SD.has_key("plan"):
        plan = SD["plan"]
    else:
        plan = plpy.prepare("SELECT 1")
        SD["plan"] = plan
    # rest of function
$$ LANGUAGE plpythonu;
```

Chapter 39. Server Programming Interface

The *Server Programming Interface* (SPI) gives writers of user-defined C functions the ability to run SQL commands inside their functions. SPI is a set of interface functions to simplify access to the parser, planner, optimizer, and executor. SPI also does some memory management.

Note: The available procedural languages provide various means to execute SQL commands from procedures. Most of these facilities are based on SPI, so this documentation might be of use for users of those languages as well.

To avoid misunderstanding we'll use the term "function" when we speak of SPI interface functions and "procedure" for a user-defined C-function that is using SPI.

Note that if a command invoked via SPI fails, then control will not be returned to your procedure. Rather, the transaction or subtransaction in which your procedure executes will be rolled back. (This may seem surprising given that the SPI functions mostly have documented error-return conventions. Those conventions only apply for errors detected within the SPI functions themselves, however.) It is possible to recover control after an error by establishing your own subtransaction surrounding SPI calls that might fail. This is not currently documented because the mechanisms required are still in flux.

SPI functions return a nonnegative result on success (either via a returned integer value or in the global variable `SPI_result`, as described below). On error, a negative result or `NULL` will be returned.

Source code files that use SPI must include the header file `executor/spi.h`.

39.1. Interface Functions

SPI_connect

Name

`SPI_connect` — connect a procedure to the SPI manager

Synopsis

```
int SPI_connect(void)
```

Description

`SPI_connect` opens a connection from a procedure invocation to the SPI manager. You must call this function if you want to execute commands through SPI. Some utility SPI functions may be called from unconnected procedures.

If your procedure is already connected, `SPI_connect` will return the error code `SPI_ERROR_CONNECT`. This could happen if a procedure that has called `SPI_connect` directly calls another procedure that calls `SPI_connect`. While recursive calls to the SPI manager are permitted when an SQL command called through SPI invokes another function that uses SPI, directly nested calls to `SPI_connect` and `SPI_finish` are forbidden. (But see `SPI_push` and `SPI_pop`.)

Return Value

`SPI_OK_CONNECT`

on success

`SPI_ERROR_CONNECT`

on error

SPI_finish

Name

`SPI_finish` — disconnect a procedure from the SPI manager

Synopsis

```
int SPI_finish(void)
```

Description

`SPI_finish` closes an existing connection to the SPI manager. You must call this function after completing the SPI operations needed during your procedure's current invocation. You do not need to worry about making this happen, however, if you abort the transaction via `elog(ERROR)`. In that case SPI will clean itself up automatically.

If `SPI_finish` is called without having a valid connection, it will return `SPI_ERROR_UNCONNECTED`. There is no fundamental problem with this; it means that the SPI manager has nothing to do.

Return Value

`SPI_OK_FINISH`

if properly disconnected

`SPI_ERROR_UNCONNECTED`

if called from an unconnected procedure

SPI_push

Name

`SPI_push` — push SPI stack to allow recursive SPI usage

Synopsis

```
void SPI_push(void)
```

Description

`SPI_push` should be called before executing another procedure that might itself wish to use SPI. After `SPI_push`, SPI is no longer in a “connected” state, and SPI function calls will be rejected unless a fresh `SPI_connect` is done. This ensures a clean separation between your procedure’s SPI state and that of another procedure you call. After the other procedure returns, call `SPI_pop` to restore access to your own SPI state.

Note that `SPI_execute` and related functions automatically do the equivalent of `SPI_push` before passing control back to the SQL execution engine, so it is not necessary for you to worry about this when using those functions. Only when you are directly calling arbitrary code that might contain `SPI_connect` calls do you need to issue `SPI_push` and `SPI_pop`.

SPI_pop

Name

SPI_pop — pop SPI stack to return from recursive SPI usage

Synopsis

```
void SPI_pop(void)
```

Description

SPI_pop pops the previous environment from the SPI call stack. See SPI_push.

SPI_execute

Name

SPI_execute — execute a command

Synopsis

```
int SPI_execute(const char * command, bool read_only, int count)
```

Description

SPI_execute executes the specified SQL command for `count` rows. If `read_only` is `true`, the command must be read-only, and execution overhead is somewhat reduced.

This function may only be called from a connected procedure.

If `count` is zero then the command is executed for all rows that it applies to. If `count` is greater than 0, then the number of rows for which the command will be executed is restricted (much like a `LIMIT` clause). For example,

```
SPI_execute("INSERT INTO foo SELECT * FROM bar", false, 5);
```

will allow at most 5 rows to be inserted into the table.

You may pass multiple commands in one string. SPI_execute returns the result for the command executed last. The `count` limit applies to each command separately, but it is not applied to hidden commands generated by rules.

When `read_only` is `false`, SPI_execute increments the command counter and computes a new *snapshot* before executing each command in the string. The snapshot does not actually change if the current transaction isolation level is `SERIALIZABLE`, but in `READ COMMITTED` mode the snapshot update allows each command to see the results of newly committed transactions from other sessions. This is essential for consistent behavior when the commands are modifying the database.

When `read_only` is `true`, SPI_execute does not update either the snapshot or the command counter, and it allows only plain `SELECT` commands to appear in the command string. The commands are executed using the snapshot previously established for the surrounding query. This execution mode is somewhat faster than the read/write mode due to eliminating per-command overhead. It also allows genuinely *stable* functions to be built: since successive executions will all use the same snapshot, there will be no change in the results.

It is generally unwise to mix read-only and read-write commands within a single function using SPI; that could result in very confusing behavior, since the read-only queries would not see the results of any database updates done by the read-write queries.

The actual number of rows for which the (last) command was executed is returned in the global variable `SPI_processed` (unless the return value of the function is `SPI_OK_UTILITY`). If the return value of the function is `SPI_OK_SELECT` then you may use the global pointer `SPITupleTable *SPI_tuptable` to access the result rows.

The structure SPITupleTable is defined thus:

```
typedef struct
{
    MemoryContext tuptabcxt;    /* memory context of result table */
    uint32         allocated;   /* number of allocated vals */
    uint32         free;       /* number of free vals */
    TupleDesc      tupdesc;    /* row descriptor */
    HeapTuple      *vals;      /* rows */
} SPITupleTable;
```

vals is an array of pointers to rows. (The number of valid entries is given by SPI_processed.) tupdesc is a row descriptor which you may pass to SPI functions dealing with rows. tuptabcxt, allocated, and free are internal fields not intended for use by SPI callers.

SPI_finish frees all SPITupleTables allocated during the current procedure. You can free a particular result table earlier, if you are done with it, by calling SPI_freetuptable.

Arguments

```
const char * command
    string containing command to execute

bool read_only
    true for read-only execution

int count
    maximum number of rows to process or return
```

Return Value

If the execution of the command was successful then one of the following (nonnegative) values will be returned:

```
SPI_OK_SELECT
    if a SELECT (but not SELECT INTO) was executed

SPI_OK_SELINTO
    if a SELECT INTO was executed

SPI_OK_DELETE
    if a DELETE was executed

SPI_OK_INSERT
    if an INSERT was executed
```

`SPI_OK_UPDATE`

if an `UPDATE` was executed

`SPI_OK_UTILITY`

if a utility command (e.g., `CREATE TABLE`) was executed

On error, one of the following negative values is returned:

`SPI_ERROR_ARGUMENT`

if `command` is `NULL` or `count` is less than 0

`SPI_ERROR_COPY`

if `COPY TO stdout` or `COPY FROM stdin` was attempted

`SPI_ERROR_CURSOR`

if `DECLARE`, `CLOSE`, or `FETCH` was attempted

`SPI_ERROR_TRANSACTION`

if `BEGIN`, `COMMIT`, or `ROLLBACK` was attempted

`SPI_ERROR_OPUNKNOWN`

if the command type is unknown (shouldn't happen)

`SPI_ERROR_UNCONNECTED`

if called from an unconnected procedure

Notes

The functions `SPI_execute`, `SPI_exec`, `SPI_execute_plan`, and `SPI_execp` change both `SPI_processed` and `SPI_tuptable` (just the pointer, not the contents of the structure). Save these two global variables into local procedure variables if you need to access the result table of `SPI_execute` or a related function across later calls.

SPI_exec

Name

`SPI_exec` — execute a read/write command

Synopsis

```
int SPI_exec(const char * command, int count)
```

Description

`SPI_exec` is the same as `SPI_execute`, with the latter's `read_only` parameter always taken as `false`.

Arguments

`const char * command`

string containing command to execute

`int count`

maximum number of rows to process or return

Return Value

See `SPI_execute`.

SPI_prepare

Name

`SPI_prepare` — prepare a plan for a command, without executing it yet

Synopsis

```
void * SPI_prepare(const char * command, int nargs, Oid * argtypes)
```

Description

`SPI_prepare` creates and returns an execution plan for the specified command but doesn't execute the command. This function should only be called from a connected procedure.

When the same or a similar command is to be executed repeatedly, it may be advantageous to perform the planning only once. `SPI_prepare` converts a command string into an execution plan that can be executed repeatedly using `SPI_execute_plan`.

A prepared command can be generalized by writing parameters (`$1`, `$2`, etc.) in place of what would be constants in a normal command. The actual values of the parameters are then specified when `SPI_execute_plan` is called. This allows the prepared command to be used over a wider range of situations than would be possible without parameters.

The plan returned by `SPI_prepare` can be used only in the current invocation of the procedure, since `SPI_finish` frees memory allocated for a plan. But a plan can be saved for longer using the function `SPI_saveplan`.

Arguments

`const char * command`

command string

`int nargs`

number of input parameters (`$1`, `$2`, etc.)

`Oid * argtypes`

pointer to an array containing the OIDs of the data types of the parameters

Return Value

`SPI_prepare` returns a non-null pointer to an execution plan. On error, `NULL` will be returned, and `SPI_result` will be set to one of the same error codes used by `SPI_execute`, except that it is set to `SPI_ERROR_ARGUMENT` if `command` is `NULL`, or if `nargs` is less than 0, or if `nargs` is greater than 0 and `argtypes` is `NULL`.

Notes

There is a disadvantage to using parameters: since the planner does not know the values that will be supplied for the parameters, it may make worse planning choices than it would make for a normal command with all constants visible.

SPI_getargcount

Name

`SPI_getargcount` — return the number of arguments needed by a plan prepared by `SPI_prepare`

Synopsis

```
int SPI_getargcount(void * plan)
```

Description

`SPI_getargcount` returns the number of arguments needed to execute a plan prepared by `SPI_prepare`.

Arguments

`void * plan`

execution plan (returned by `SPI_prepare`)

Return Value

The expected argument count for the `plan`, or `SPI_ERROR_ARGUMENT` if the `plan` is `NULL`

SPI_getargtypeid

Name

`SPI_getargtypeid` — return the data type OID for an argument of a plan prepared by `SPI_prepare`

Synopsis

```
Oid SPI_getargtypeid(void * plan, int argIndex)
```

Description

`SPI_getargtypeid` returns the OID representing the type id for the `argIndex`'th argument of a plan prepared by `SPI_prepare`. First argument is at index zero.

Arguments

```
void * plan  
    execution plan (returned by SPI_prepare)  
int argIndex  
    zero based index of the argument
```

Return Value

The type id of the argument at the given index, or `SPI_ERROR_ARGUMENT` if the `plan` is `NULL` or `argIndex` is less than 0 or not less than the number of arguments declared for the `plan`

SPI_is_cursor_plan

Name

`SPI_is_cursor_plan` — return true if a plan prepared by `SPI_prepare` can be used with `SPI_cursor_open`

Synopsis

```
bool SPI_is_cursor_plan(void * plan)
```

Description

`SPI_is_cursor_plan` returns true if a plan prepared by `SPI_prepare` can be passed as an argument to `SPI_cursor_open` and false if that is not the case. The criteria are that the plan represents one single command and that this command is a `SELECT` without an `INTO` clause.

Arguments

`void * plan`

execution plan (returned by `SPI_prepare`)

Return Value

true or false to indicate if the plan can produce a cursor or not, or `SPI_ERROR_ARGUMENT` if the plan is NULL

SPI_execute_plan

Name

`SPI_execute_plan` — execute a plan prepared by `SPI_prepare`

Synopsis

```
int SPI_execute_plan(void * plan, Datum * values, const char * nulls,  
                    bool read_only, int count)
```

Description

`SPI_execute_plan` executes a plan prepared by `SPI_prepare`. `read_only` and `count` have the same interpretation as in `SPI_execute`.

Arguments

`void * plan`

execution plan (returned by `SPI_prepare`)

`Datum * values`

An array of actual parameter values. Must have same length as the plan's number of arguments.

`const char * nulls`

An array describing which parameters are null. Must have same length as the plan's number of arguments. `n` indicates a null value (entry in `values` will be ignored); a space indicates a nonnull value (entry in `values` is valid).

If `nulls` is `NULL` then `SPI_execute_plan` assumes that no parameters are null.

`bool read_only`

true for read-only execution

`int count`

maximum number of rows to process or return

Return Value

The return value is the same as for `SPI_execute`, with the following additional possible error (negative) results:

`SPI_ERROR_ARGUMENT`

if `plan` is `NULL` or `count` is less than 0

`SPI_ERROR_PARAM`

if `values` is `NULL` and `plan` was prepared with some parameters

`SPI_processed` and `SPI_tuptable` are set as in `SPI_execute` if successful.

Notes

If one of the objects (a table, function, etc.) referenced by the prepared plan is dropped during the session then the result of `SPI_execute_plan` for this plan will be unpredictable.

SPI_execp

Name

SPI_execp — execute a plan in read/write mode

Synopsis

```
int SPI_execp(void * plan, Datum * values, const char * nulls, int count)
```

Description

SPI_execp is the same as SPI_execute_plan, with the latter's read_only parameter always taken as false.

Arguments

void * plan

execution plan (returned by SPI_prepare)

Datum * values

An array of actual parameter values. Must have same length as the plan's number of arguments.

const char * nulls

An array describing which parameters are null. Must have same length as the plan's number of arguments. n indicates a null value (entry in values will be ignored); a space indicates a nonnull value (entry in values is valid).

If nulls is NULL then SPI_execp assumes that no parameters are null.

int count

maximum number of rows to process or return

Return Value

See SPI_execute_plan.

SPI_processed and SPI_tuptable are set as in SPI_execute if successful.

SPI_cursor_open

Name

`SPI_cursor_open` — set up a cursor using a plan created with `SPI_prepare`

Synopsis

```
Portal SPI_cursor_open(const char * name, void * plan,
                      Datum * values, const char * nulls,
                      bool read_only)
```

Description

`SPI_cursor_open` sets up a cursor (internally, a portal) that will execute a plan prepared by `SPI_prepare`. The parameters have the same meanings as the corresponding parameters to `SPI_execute_plan`.

Using a cursor instead of executing the plan directly has two benefits. First, the result rows can be retrieved a few at a time, avoiding memory overrun for queries that return many rows. Second, a portal can outlive the current procedure (it can, in fact, live to the end of the current transaction). Returning the portal name to the procedure's caller provides a way of returning a row set as result.

Arguments

`const char * name`

name for portal, or NULL to let the system select a name

`void * plan`

execution plan (returned by `SPI_prepare`)

`Datum * values`

An array of actual parameter values. Must have same length as the plan's number of arguments.

`const char * nulls`

An array describing which parameters are null. Must have same length as the plan's number of arguments. `n` indicates a null value (entry in `values` will be ignored); a space indicates a nonnull value (entry in `values` is valid).

If `nulls` is NULL then `SPI_cursor_open` assumes that no parameters are null.

`bool read_only`

true for read-only execution

Return Value

pointer to portal containing the cursor, or NULL on error

SPI_cursor_find

Name

`SPI_cursor_find` — find an existing cursor by name

Synopsis

```
Portal SPI_cursor_find(const char * name)
```

Description

`SPI_cursor_find` finds an existing portal by name. This is primarily useful to resolve a cursor name returned as text by some other function.

Arguments

```
const char * name  
    name of the portal
```

Return Value

pointer to the portal with the specified name, or `NULL` if none was found

SPI_cursor_fetch

Name

`SPI_cursor_fetch` — fetch some rows from a cursor

Synopsis

```
void SPI_cursor_fetch(Portal portal, bool forward, int count)
```

Description

`SPI_cursor_fetch` fetches some rows from a cursor. This is equivalent to the SQL command `FETCH`.

Arguments

`Portal portal`

portal containing the cursor

`bool forward`

true for fetch forward, false for fetch backward

`int count`

maximum number of rows to fetch

Return Value

`SPI_processed` and `SPI_tuptable` are set as in `SPI_execute` if successful.

SPI_cursor_move

Name

SPI_cursor_move — move a cursor

Synopsis

```
void SPI_cursor_move(Portal portal, bool forward, int count)
```

Description

SPI_cursor_move skips over some number of rows in a cursor. This is equivalent to the SQL command MOVE.

Arguments

Portal portal

portal containing the cursor

bool forward

true for move forward, false for move backward

int count

maximum number of rows to move

SPI_cursor_close

Name

SPI_cursor_close — close a cursor

Synopsis

```
void SPI_cursor_close(Portal portal)
```

Description

SPI_cursor_close closes a previously created cursor and releases its portal storage.

All open cursors are closed automatically at the end of a transaction. SPI_cursor_close need only be invoked if it is desirable to release resources sooner.

Arguments

Portal portal

portal containing the cursor

SPI_saveplan

Name

SPI_saveplan — save a plan

Synopsis

```
void * SPI_saveplan(void * plan)
```

Description

SPI_saveplan saves a passed plan (prepared by SPI_prepare) in memory protected from freeing by SPI_finish and by the transaction manager and returns a pointer to the saved plan. This gives you the ability to reuse prepared plans in the subsequent invocations of your procedure in the current session. You may save the pointer returned in a local variable. Always check if this pointer is NULL or not either when preparing a plan or using an already prepared plan in SPI_execute_plan.

Arguments

```
void * plan
```

the plan to be saved

Return Value

Pointer to the saved plan; NULL if unsuccessful. On error, SPI_result is set thus:

```
SPI_ERROR_ARGUMENT
```

if plan is NULL

```
SPI_ERROR_UNCONNECTED
```

if called from an unconnected procedure

Notes

If one of the objects (a table, function, etc.) referenced by the prepared plan is dropped during the session then the results of SPI_execute_plan for this plan will be unpredictable.

39.2. Interface Support Functions

The functions described here provide an interface for extracting information from result sets returned by `SPI_execute` and other SPI functions.

All functions described in this section may be used by both connected and unconnected procedures.

SPI_fname

Name

`SPI_fname` — determine the column name for the specified column number

Synopsis

```
char * SPI_fname(TupleDesc rowdesc, int colnumber)
```

Description

`SPI_fname` returns a copy of the column name of the specified column. (You can use `pfree` to release the copy of the name when you don't need it anymore.)

Arguments

`TupleDesc rowdesc`

input row description

`int colnumber`

column number (count starts at 1)

Return Value

The column name; NULL if `colnumber` is out of range. `SPI_result` set to `SPI_ERROR_NOATTRIBUTE` on error.

SPI_fnumber

Name

`SPI_fnumber` — determine the column number for the specified column name

Synopsis

```
int SPI_fnumber(TupleDesc rowdesc, const char * colname)
```

Description

`SPI_fnumber` returns the column number for the column with the specified name.

If `colname` refers to a system column (e.g., `oid`) then the appropriate negative column number will be returned. The caller should be careful to test the return value for exact equality to `SPI_ERROR_NOATTRIBUTE` to detect an error; testing the result for less than or equal to 0 is not correct unless system columns should be rejected.

Arguments

`TupleDesc rowdesc`

input row description

`const char * colname`

column name

Return Value

Column number (count starts at 1), or `SPI_ERROR_NOATTRIBUTE` if the named column was not found.

SPI_getvalue

Name

`SPI_getvalue` — return the string value of the specified column

Synopsis

```
char * SPI_getvalue(HeapTuple row, TupleDesc rowdesc, int colnumber)
```

Description

`SPI_getvalue` returns the string representation of the value of the specified column.

The result is returned in memory allocated using `palloc`. (You can use `pfree` to release the memory when you don't need it anymore.)

Arguments

`HeapTuple row`

input row to be examined

`TupleDesc rowdesc`

input row description

`int colnumber`

column number (count starts at 1)

Return Value

Column value, or `NULL` if the column is null, `colnumber` is out of range (`SPI_result` is set to `SPI_ERROR_NOATTRIBUTE`), or no no output function available (`SPI_result` is set to `SPI_ERROR_NOOUTFUNC`).

SPI_getbinval

Name

`SPI_getbinval` — return the binary value of the specified column

Synopsis

```
Datum SPI_getbinval(HeapTuple row, TupleDesc rowdesc, int colnumber, bool * isnull)
```

Description

`SPI_getbinval` returns the value of the specified column in the internal form (as type `Datum`).

This function does not allocate new space for the datum. In the case of a pass-by-reference data type, the return value will be a pointer into the passed row.

Arguments

`HeapTuple row`

input row to be examined

`TupleDesc rowdesc`

input row description

`int rownumber`

column number (count starts at 1)

`bool * isnull`

flag for a null value in the column

Return Value

The binary value of the column is returned. The variable pointed to by `isnull` is set to true if the column is null, else to false.

`SPI_result` is set to `SPI_ERROR_NOATTRIBUTE` on error.

SPI_gettype

Name

`SPI_gettype` — return the data type name of the specified column

Synopsis

```
char * SPI_gettype(TupleDesc rowdesc, int colnumber)
```

Description

`SPI_gettype` returns a copy of the data type name of the specified column. (You can use `pfree` to release the copy of the name when you don't need it anymore.)

Arguments

`TupleDesc rowdesc`

input row description

`int colnumber`

column number (count starts at 1)

Return Value

The data type name of the specified column, or `NULL` on error. `SPI_result` is set to `SPI_ERROR_NOATTRIBUTE` on error.

SPI_gettypeid

Name

`SPI_gettypeid` — return the data type OID of the specified column

Synopsis

```
Oid SPI_gettypeid(TupleDesc rowdesc, int colnumber)
```

Description

`SPI_gettypeid` returns the OID of the data type of the specified column.

Arguments

`TupleDesc rowdesc`

input row description

`int colnumber`

column number (count starts at 1)

Return Value

The OID of the data type of the specified column or `InvalidOid` on error. On error, `SPI_result` is set to `SPI_ERROR_NOATTRIBUTE`.

SPI_getrelname

Name

`SPI_getrelname` — return the name of the specified relation

Synopsis

```
char * SPI_getrelname(Relation rel)
```

Description

`SPI_getrelname` returns a copy of the name of the specified relation. (You can use `pfree` to release the copy of the name when you don't need it anymore.)

Arguments

`Relation rel`
input relation

Return Value

The name of the specified relation.

39.3. Memory Management

PostgreSQL allocates memory within *memory contexts*, which provide a convenient method of managing allocations made in many different places that need to live for differing amounts of time. Destroying a context releases all the memory that was allocated in it. Thus, it is not necessary to keep track of individual objects to avoid memory leaks; instead only a relatively small number of contexts have to be managed. `palloc` and related functions allocate memory from the “current” context.

`SPI_connect` creates a new memory context and makes it current. `SPI_finish` restores the previous current memory context and destroys the context created by `SPI_connect`. These actions ensure that transient memory allocations made inside your procedure are reclaimed at procedure exit, avoiding memory leakage.

However, if your procedure needs to return an object in allocated memory (such as a value of a pass-by-reference data type), you cannot allocate that memory using `palloc`, at least not while you are connected to SPI. If you try, the object will be deallocated by `SPI_finish`, and your procedure will not work reliably. To solve this problem, use `SPI_palloc` to allocate memory for your return object. `SPI_palloc` allocates memory in the “upper executor context”, that is, the memory context that was current when `SPI_connect` was called, which is precisely the right context for a value returned from your procedure.

If `SPI_palloc` is called while the procedure is not connected to SPI, then it acts the same as a normal `palloc`. Before a procedure connects to the SPI manager, the current memory context is the upper executor context, so all allocations made by the procedure via `palloc` or by SPI utility functions are made in this context.

When `SPI_connect` is called, the private context of the procedure, which is created by `SPI_connect`, is made the current context. All allocations made by `palloc`, `repalloc`, or SPI utility functions (except for `SPI_copytuple`, `SPI_returntuple`, `SPI_modifytuple`, and `SPI_palloc`) are made in this context. When a procedure disconnects from the SPI manager (via `SPI_finish`) the current context is restored to the upper executor context, and all allocations made in the procedure memory context are freed and cannot be used any more.

All functions described in this section may be used by both connected and unconnected procedures. In an unconnected procedure, they act the same as the underlying ordinary server functions (`palloc`, etc.).

SPI_palloc

Name

`SPI_palloc` — allocate memory in the upper executor context

Synopsis

```
void * SPI_palloc(Size size)
```

Description

`SPI_palloc` allocates memory in the upper executor context.

Arguments

Size size

size in bytes of storage to allocate

Return Value

pointer to new storage space of the specified size

SPI_realloc

Name

`SPI_realloc` — reallocate memory in the upper executor context

Synopsis

```
void * SPI_realloc(void * pointer, Size size)
```

Description

`SPI_realloc` changes the size of a memory segment previously allocated using `SPI_palloc`.

This function is no longer different from plain `realloc`. It's kept just for backward compatibility of existing code.

Arguments

`void * pointer`

pointer to existing storage to change

`Size size`

size in bytes of storage to allocate

Return Value

pointer to new storage space of specified size with the contents copied from the existing area

SPI_pfree

Name

SPI_pfree — free memory in the upper executor context

Synopsis

```
void SPI_pfree(void * pointer)
```

Description

SPI_pfree frees memory previously allocated using SPI_palloc or SPI_realloc.

This function is no longer different from plain pfree. It's kept just for backward compatibility of existing code.

Arguments

```
void * pointer
```

pointer to existing storage to free

SPI_copytuple

Name

`SPI_copytuple` — make a copy of a row in the upper executor context

Synopsis

```
HeapTuple SPI_copytuple(HeapTuple row)
```

Description

`SPI_copytuple` makes a copy of a row in the upper executor context. This is normally used to return a modified row from a trigger. In a function declared to return a composite type, use `SPI_returntuple` instead.

Arguments

`HeapTuple row`

row to be copied

Return Value

the copied row; `NULL` only if `tuple` is `NULL`

SPI_returntuple

Name

`SPI_returntuple` — prepare to return a tuple as a Datum

Synopsis

```
HeapTupleHeader SPI_returntuple(HeapTuple row, TupleDesc rowdesc)
```

Description

`SPI_returntuple` makes a copy of a row in the upper executor context, returning it in the form of a row type Datum. The returned pointer need only be converted to Datum via `PointerGetDatum` before returning.

Note that this should be used for functions that are declared to return composite types. It is not used for triggers; use `SPI_copytuple` for returning a modified row in a trigger.

Arguments

`HeapTuple row`

row to be copied

`TupleDesc rowdesc`

descriptor for row (pass the same descriptor each time for most effective caching)

Return Value

`HeapTupleHeader` pointing to copied row; NULL only if `row` or `rowdesc` is NULL

SPI_modifytuple

Name

`SPI_modifytuple` — create a row by replacing selected fields of a given row

Synopsis

```
HeapTuple SPI_modifytuple(Relation rel, HeapTuple row, ncols, colnum, Datum * values, const
```

Description

`SPI_modifytuple` creates a new row by substituting new values for selected columns, copying the original row's columns at other positions. The input row is not modified.

Arguments

`Relation rel`

Used only as the source of the row descriptor for the row. (Passing a relation rather than a row descriptor is a misfeature.)

`HeapTuple row`

row to be modified

`int ncols`

number of column numbers in the array `colnum`

`int * colnum`

array of the numbers of the columns that are to be changed (column numbers start at 1)

`Datum * values`

new values for the specified columns

`const char * Nulls`

which new values are null, if any (see `SPI_execute_plan` for the format)

Return Value

new row with modifications, allocated in the upper executor context; NULL only if `row` is NULL

On error, `SPI_result` is set as follows:

`SPI_ERROR_ARGUMENT`

if `rel` is `NULL`, or if `row` is `NULL`, or if `ncols` is less than or equal to 0, or if `colnum` is `NULL`, or if `values` is `NULL`.

`SPI_ERROR_NOATTRIBUTE`

if `colnum` contains an invalid column number (less than or equal to 0 or greater than the number of column in `row`)

SPI_freetuple

Name

`SPI_freetuple` — free a row allocated in the upper executor context

Synopsis

```
void SPI_freetuple(HeapTuple row)
```

Description

`SPI_freetuple` frees a row previously allocated in the upper executor context.

This function is no longer different from plain `heap_freetuple`. It's kept just for backward compatibility of existing code.

Arguments

`HeapTuple row`

row to free

SPI_freetuptable

Name

`SPI_freetuptable` — free a row set created by `SPI_execute` or a similar function

Synopsis

```
void SPI_freetuptable(SPITupleTable * tuptable)
```

Description

`SPI_freetuptable` frees a row set created by a prior SPI command execution function, such as `SPI_execute`. Therefore, this function is usually called with the global variable `SPI_tupletable` as argument.

This function is useful if a SPI procedure needs to execute multiple commands and does not want to keep the results of earlier commands around until it ends. Note that any unfreed row sets will be freed anyway at `SPI_finish`.

Arguments

`SPITupleTable * tuptable`

pointer to row set to free

SPI_freeplan

Name

SPI_freeplan — free a previously saved plan

Synopsis

```
int SPI_freeplan(void *plan)
```

Description

SPI_freeplan releases a command execution plan previously returned by SPI_prepare or saved by SPI_saveplan.

Arguments

```
void * plan  
    pointer to plan to free
```

Return Value

SPI_ERROR_ARGUMENT if plan is NULL.

39.4. Visibility of Data Changes

The following rules govern the visibility of data changes in functions that use SPI (or any other C function):

- During the execution of an SQL command, any data changes made by the command are invisible to the command itself. For example, in

```
INSERT INTO a SELECT * FROM a;
```

the inserted rows are invisible to the `SELECT` part.

- Changes made by a command `C` are visible to all commands that are started after `C`, no matter whether they are started inside `C` (during the execution of `C`) or after `C` is done.
- Commands executed via SPI inside a function called by an SQL command (either an ordinary function or a trigger) follow one or the other of the above rules depending on the read/write flag passed to SPI. Commands executed in read-only mode follow the first rule: they can't see changes of the calling command. Commands executed in read-write mode follow the second rule: they can see all changes made so far.
- All standard procedural languages set the SPI read-write mode depending on the volatility attribute of the function. Commands of `STABLE` and `IMMUTABLE` functions are done in read-only mode, while commands of `VOLATILE` functions are done in read-write mode. While authors of C functions are able to violate this convention, it's unlikely to be a good idea to do so.

The next section contains an example that illustrates the application of these rules.

39.5. Examples

This section contains a very simple example of SPI usage. The procedure `execq` takes an SQL command as its first argument and a row count as its second, executes the command using `SPI_exec` and returns the number of rows that were processed by the command. You can find more complex examples for SPI in the source tree in `src/test/regress/regress.c` and in `contrib/spi`.

```
#include "executor/spi.h"

int execq(text *sql, int cnt);

int
execq(text *sql, int cnt)
{
    char *command;
    int ret;
    int proc;

    /* Convert given text object to a C string */
    command = DatumGetCString(DirectFunctionCall1(textout,
                                                    PointerGetDatum(sql)));

    SPI_connect();
```

```

ret = SPI_exec(command, cnt);

proc = SPI_processed;
/*
 * If this is a SELECT and some rows were fetched,
 * then the rows are printed via elog(INFO).
 */
if (ret == SPI_OK_SELECT && SPI_processed > 0)
{
    TupleDesc tupdesc = SPI_tuptable->tupdesc;
    SPITupleTable *tuptable = SPI_tuptable;
    char buf[8192];
    int i, j;

    for (j = 0; j < proc; j++)
    {
        HeapTuple tuple = tuptable->vals[j];

        for (i = 1, buf[0] = 0; i <= tupdesc->natts; i++)
            snprintf(buf + strlen(buf), sizeof(buf) - strlen(buf), " %s%s",
                    SPI_getvalue(tuple, tupdesc, i),
                    (i == tupdesc->natts) ? " " : "|");
        elog (INFO, "EXECQ: %s", buf);
    }

    SPI_finish();
    pfree(command);

    return (proc);
}

```

(This function uses call convention version 0, to make the example easier to understand. In real applications you should use the new version 1 interface.)

This is how you declare the function after having compiled it into a shared library:

```

CREATE FUNCTION execq(text, integer) RETURNS integer
AS 'filename'
LANGUAGE C;

```

Here is a sample session:

```

=> SELECT execq('CREATE TABLE a (x integer)', 0);
execq
-----
      0
(1 row)

=> INSERT INTO a VALUES (execq('INSERT INTO a VALUES (0)', 0));
INSERT 167631 1

```

```

=> SELECT execq('SELECT * FROM a', 0);
INFO: EXECQ: 0    -- inserted by execq
INFO: EXECQ: 1    -- returned by execq and inserted by upper INSERT

  execq
-----
      2
(1 row)

=> SELECT execq('INSERT INTO a SELECT x + 2 FROM a', 1);
  execq
-----
      1
(1 row)

=> SELECT execq('SELECT * FROM a', 10);
INFO: EXECQ: 0
INFO: EXECQ: 1
INFO: EXECQ: 2    -- 0 + 2, only one row inserted - as specified

  execq
-----
      3          -- 10 is the max value only, 3 is the real number of rows
(1 row)

=> DELETE FROM a;
DELETE 3
=> INSERT INTO a VALUES (execq('SELECT * FROM a', 0) + 1);
INSERT 167712 1
=> SELECT * FROM a;
  x
---
  1          -- no rows in a (0) + 1
(1 row)

=> INSERT INTO a VALUES (execq('SELECT * FROM a', 0) + 1);
INFO: EXECQ: 0
INSERT 167713 1
=> SELECT * FROM a;
  x
---
  1
  2          -- there was one row in a + 1
(2 rows)

-- This demonstrates the data changes visibility rule:

=> INSERT INTO a SELECT execq('SELECT * FROM a', 0) * x FROM a;
INFO: EXECQ: 1
INFO: EXECQ: 2
INFO: EXECQ: 1
INFO: EXECQ: 2
INFO: EXECQ: 2

```

```
INSERT 0 2
=> SELECT * FROM a;
  x
---
 1
 2
 2          -- 2 rows * 1 (x in first row)
 6          -- 3 rows (2 + 1 just inserted) * 2 (x in second row)
(4 rows)    ^^^^^^
            rows visible to execq() in different invocations
```

VI. Reference

The entries in this Reference are meant to provide in reasonable length an authoritative, complete, and formal summary about their respective subjects. More information about the use of PostgreSQL, in narrative, tutorial, or example form, may be found in other parts of this book. See the cross-references listed on each reference page.

The reference entries are also available as traditional “man” pages.

I. SQL Commands

This part contains reference information for the SQL commands supported by PostgreSQL. By “SQL” the language in general is meant; information about the standards conformance and compatibility of each command can be found on the respective reference page.

ABORT

Name

ABORT — abort the current transaction

Synopsis

```
ABORT [ WORK | TRANSACTION ]
```

Description

ABORT rolls back the current transaction and causes all the updates made by the transaction to be discarded. This command is identical in behavior to the standard SQL command *ROLLBACK*, and is present only for historical reasons.

Parameters

WORK
TRANSACTION

Optional key words. They have no effect.

Notes

Use *COMMIT* to successfully terminate a transaction.

Issuing ABORT when not inside a transaction does no harm, but it will provoke a warning message.

Examples

To abort all changes:

```
ABORT ;
```

Compatibility

This command is a PostgreSQL extension present for historical reasons. `ROLLBACK` is the equivalent standard SQL command.

See Also

BEGIN, COMMIT, ROLLBACK

ALTER AGGREGATE

Name

ALTER AGGREGATE — change the definition of an aggregate function

Synopsis

```
ALTER AGGREGATE name ( type ) RENAME TO newname
ALTER AGGREGATE name ( type ) OWNER TO newowner
```

Description

ALTER AGGREGATE changes the definition of an aggregate function.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing aggregate function.

type

The argument data type of the aggregate function, or * if the function accepts any data type.

newname

The new name of the aggregate function.

newowner

The new owner of the aggregate function. You must be a superuser to change an aggregate's owner.

Examples

To rename the aggregate function `myavg` for type `integer` to `my_average`:

```
ALTER AGGREGATE myavg(integer) RENAME TO my_average;
```

To change the owner of the aggregate function `myavg` for type `integer` to `joe`:

```
ALTER AGGREGATE myavg(integer) OWNER TO joe;
```

Compatibility

There is no `ALTER AGGREGATE` statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE AGGREGATE, DROP AGGREGATE

ALTER CONVERSION

Name

ALTER CONVERSION — change the definition of a conversion

Synopsis

```
ALTER CONVERSION name RENAME TO newname
ALTER CONVERSION name OWNER TO newowner
```

Description

ALTER CONVERSION changes the definition of a conversion.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing conversion.

newname

The new name of the conversion.

newowner

The new owner of the conversion. To change the owner of a conversion, you must be a superuser.

Examples

To rename the conversion `iso_8859_1_to_utf_8` to `latin1_to_unicode`:

```
ALTER CONVERSION iso_8859_1_to_utf_8 RENAME TO latin1_to_unicode;
```

To change the owner of the conversion `iso_8859_1_to_utf_8` to `joe`:

```
ALTER CONVERSION iso_8859_1_to_utf_8 OWNER TO joe;
```

Compatibility

There is no ALTER CONVERSION statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE CONVERSION, DROP CONVERSION

ALTER DATABASE

Name

ALTER DATABASE — change a database

Synopsis

```
ALTER DATABASE name SET parameter { TO | = } { value | DEFAULT }  
ALTER DATABASE name RESET parameter
```

```
ALTER DATABASE name RENAME TO newname
```

```
ALTER DATABASE name OWNER TO new_owner
```

Description

ALTER DATABASE changes the attributes of a database.

The first two forms change the session default for a run-time configuration variable for a PostgreSQL database. Whenever a new session is subsequently started in that database, the specified value becomes the session default value. The database-specific default overrides whatever setting is present in `postgresql.conf` or has been received from the `postmaster` command line. Only the database owner or a superuser can change the session defaults for a database. Certain variables cannot be set this way, or can only be set by a superuser.

The third form changes the name of the database. Only the database owner or a superuser can rename a database; non-superuser owners must also have the `CREATEDB` privilege. The current database cannot be renamed. (Connect to a different database if you need to do that.)

The fourth form changes the owner of the database. Only a superuser can change the database's owner.

Parameters

name

The name of the database whose attributes are to be altered.

parameter

value

Set this database's session default for the specified configuration parameter to the given value. If *value* is `DEFAULT` or, equivalently, `RESET` is used, the database-specific setting is removed, so the system-wide default setting will be inherited in new sessions. Use `RESET ALL` to clear all database-specific settings.

See *SET* and Section 16.4 for more information about allowed parameter names and values.

newname

The new name of the database.

new_owner

The new owner of the database.

Notes

It is also possible to tie a session default to a specific user rather than to a database; see *ALTER USER*. User-specific settings override database-specific ones if there is a conflict.

Examples

To disable index scans by default in the database `test`:

```
ALTER DATABASE test SET enable_indexscan TO off;
```

Compatibility

The `ALTER DATABASE` statement is a PostgreSQL extension.

See Also

CREATE DATABASE, DROP DATABASE, SET

ALTER DOMAIN

Name

ALTER DOMAIN — change the definition of a domain

Synopsis

```
ALTER DOMAIN name
    { SET DEFAULT expression | DROP DEFAULT }
ALTER DOMAIN name
    { SET | DROP } NOT NULL
ALTER DOMAIN name
    ADD domain_constraint
ALTER DOMAIN name
    DROP CONSTRAINT constraint_name [ RESTRICT | CASCADE ]
ALTER DOMAIN name
    OWNER TO new_owner
```

Description

ALTER DOMAIN changes the definition of an existing domain. There are several sub-forms:

SET/DROP DEFAULT

These forms set or remove the default value for a domain. Note that defaults only apply to subsequent INSERT commands; they do not affect rows already in a table using the domain.

SET/DROP NOT NULL

These forms change whether a domain is marked to allow NULL values or to reject NULL values. You may only SET NOT NULL when the columns using the domain contain no null values.

ADD *domain_constraint*

This form adds a new constraint to a domain using the same syntax as CREATE DOMAIN. This will only succeed if all columns using the domain satisfy the new constraint.

DROP CONSTRAINT

This form drops constraints on a domain.

OWNER

This form changes the owner of the domain to the specified user.

You must own the domain to use ALTER DOMAIN; except for ALTER DOMAIN OWNER, which may only be executed by a superuser.

Parameters

name

The name (possibly schema-qualified) of an existing domain to alter.

domain_constraint

New domain constraint for the domain.

constraint_name

Name of an existing constraint to drop.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the constraint.

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the constraint if there are any dependent objects. This is the default behavior.

new_owner

The user name of the new owner of the domain.

Examples

To add a NOT NULL constraint to a domain:

```
ALTER DOMAIN zipcode SET NOT NULL;
```

To remove a NOT NULL constraint from a domain:

```
ALTER DOMAIN zipcode DROP NOT NULL;
```

To add a check constraint to a domain:

```
ALTER DOMAIN zipcode ADD CONSTRAINT zipchk CHECK (char_length(VALUE) = 5);
```

To remove a check constraint from a domain:

```
ALTER DOMAIN zipcode DROP CONSTRAINT zipchk;
```

Compatibility

The `ALTER DOMAIN` statement is compatible with SQL:1999, except for the `OWNER` variant, which is a PostgreSQL extension.

ALTER FUNCTION

Name

ALTER FUNCTION — change the definition of a function

Synopsis

```
ALTER FUNCTION name ( [ type [, ...] ] ) RENAME TO newname  
ALTER FUNCTION name ( [ type [, ...] ] ) OWNER TO newowner
```

Description

ALTER FUNCTION changes the definition of a function.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing function.

type

The data type of an argument of the function.

newname

The new name of the function.

newowner

The new owner of the function. To change the owner of a function, you must be a superuser. Note that if the function is marked SECURITY DEFINER, it will subsequently execute as the new owner.

Examples

To rename the function `sqrt` for type `integer` to `square_root`:

```
ALTER FUNCTION sqrt(integer) RENAME TO square_root;
```

To change the owner of the function `sqrt` for type `integer` to `joe`:

```
ALTER FUNCTION sqrt(integer) OWNER TO joe;
```

Compatibility

There is an `ALTER FUNCTION` statement in the SQL standard, but it does not provide the option to rename the function or change the owner.

See Also

CREATE FUNCTION, DROP FUNCTION

ALTER GROUP

Name

ALTER GROUP — change a user group

Synopsis

```
ALTER GROUP groupname ADD USER username [ , ... ]
ALTER GROUP groupname DROP USER username [ , ... ]

ALTER GROUP groupname RENAME TO newname
```

Description

ALTER GROUP changes the attributes of a user group.

The first two variants add users to a group or remove them from a group. Only database superusers can use this command.

The third variant changes the name of the group. Only a database superuser can rename groups.

Parameters

groupname

The name of the group to modify.

username

Users that are to be added to or removed from the group. The users must already exist; ALTER GROUP does not create or drop users.

newname

The new name of the group.

Examples

Add users to a group:

```
ALTER GROUP staff ADD USER karl, john;
```

Remove a user from a group:

```
ALTER GROUP workers DROP USER beth;
```

Compatibility

There is no `ALTER GROUP` statement in the SQL standard. The concept of roles is similar.

See Also

CREATE GROUP, DROP GROUP

ALTER INDEX

Name

ALTER INDEX — change the definition of an index

Synopsis

```
ALTER INDEX name
    action [, ... ]
ALTER INDEX name
    RENAME TO new_name
```

where *action* is one of:

```
OWNER TO new_owner
SET TABLESPACE indexspace_name
```

Description

ALTER INDEX changes the definition of an existing index. There are several subforms:

OWNER

This form changes the owner of the index to the specified user. This can only be done by a superuser.

SET TABLESPACE

This form changes the index's tablespace to the specified tablespace and moves the data file(s) associated with the index to the new tablespace. See also *CREATE TABLESPACE*.

RENAME

The RENAME form changes the name of the index. There is no effect on the stored data.

All the actions except RENAME can be combined into a list of multiple alterations to apply in parallel.

Parameters

name

The name (possibly schema-qualified) of an existing index to alter.

new_name

New name for the index.

new_owner

The user name of the new owner of the index.

tablespace_name

The tablespace name to which the index will be moved.

Notes

These operations are also possible using *ALTER TABLE*. `ALTER INDEX` is in fact just an alias for the forms of `ALTER TABLE` that apply to indexes.

Changing any part of a system catalog index is not permitted.

Examples

To rename an existing index:

```
ALTER INDEX distributors RENAME TO suppliers;
```

To move a index to a different tablespace:

```
ALTER INDEX distributors SET TABLESPACE fasttablespace;
```

Compatibility

`ALTER INDEX` is a PostgreSQL extension.

ALTER LANGUAGE

Name

ALTER LANGUAGE — change the definition of a procedural language

Synopsis

```
ALTER LANGUAGE name RENAME TO newname
```

Description

ALTER LANGUAGE changes the definition of a language. The only functionality is to rename the language. Only a superuser can rename languages.

Parameters

name

Name of a language

newname

The new name of the language

Compatibility

There is no ALTER LANGUAGE statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE LANGUAGE, DROP LANGUAGE

ALTER OPERATOR

Name

ALTER OPERATOR — change the definition of an operator

Synopsis

```
ALTER OPERATOR name ( { lefttype | NONE } , { righttype | NONE } ) OWNER TO newowner
```

Description

ALTER OPERATOR changes the definition of an operator. The only currently available functionality is to change the owner of the operator.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing operator.

lefttype

The data type of the operator's left operand; write NONE if the operator has no left operand.

righttype

The data type of the operator's right operand; write NONE if the operator has no right operand.

newowner

The new owner of the operator. You must be a superuser to change the owner of an operator.

Examples

Change the owner of a custom operator a @@ b for type text:

```
ALTER OPERATOR @@ (text, text) OWNER TO joe;
```

Compatibility

There is no ALTER OPERATOR statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE OPERATOR, DROP OPERATOR

ALTER OPERATOR CLASS

Name

ALTER OPERATOR CLASS — change the definition of an operator class

Synopsis

```
ALTER OPERATOR CLASS name USING index_method RENAME TO newname  
ALTER OPERATOR CLASS name USING index_method OWNER TO newowner
```

Description

ALTER OPERATOR CLASS changes the definition of an operator class.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing operator class.

index_method

The name of the index method this operator class is for.

newname

The new name of the operator class.

newowner

The new owner of the operator class. You must be a superuser to change the owner of an operator class.

Compatibility

There is no ALTER OPERATOR CLASS statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE OPERATOR CLASS, *DROP OPERATOR CLASS*

ALTER SCHEMA

Name

ALTER SCHEMA — change the definition of a schema

Synopsis

```
ALTER SCHEMA name RENAME TO newname  
ALTER SCHEMA name OWNER TO newowner
```

Description

ALTER SCHEMA changes the definition of a schema. To rename a schema you must own the schema and have the privilege CREATE for the database. To change the owner of a schema, you must be a superuser.

Parameters

name

The name of an existing schema.

newname

The new name of the schema. The new name cannot begin with pg_, as such names are reserved for system schemas.

newowner

The new owner of the schema.

Compatibility

There is no ALTER SCHEMA statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE SCHEMA, DROP SCHEMA

ALTER SEQUENCE

Name

ALTER SEQUENCE — change the definition of a sequence generator

Synopsis

```
ALTER SEQUENCE name [ INCREMENT [ BY ] increment ]  
    [ MINVALUE minvalue | NO MINVALUE ] [ MAXVALUE maxvalue | NO MAXVALUE ]  
    [ RESTART [ WITH ] start ] [ CACHE cache ] [ [ NO ] CYCLE ]
```

Description

ALTER SEQUENCE changes the parameters of an existing sequence generator. Any parameter not specifically set in the ALTER SEQUENCE command retains its prior setting.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of a sequence to be altered.

increment

The clause INCREMENT BY *increment* is optional. A positive value will make an ascending sequence, a negative one a descending sequence. If unspecified, the old increment value will be maintained.

minvalue

NO MINVALUE

The optional clause MINVALUE *minvalue* determines the minimum value a sequence can generate. If NO MINVALUE is specified, the defaults of 1 and $-2^{63}-1$ for ascending and descending sequences, respectively, will be used. If neither option is specified, the current minimum value will be maintained.

maxvalue

NO MAXVALUE

The optional clause MAXVALUE *maxvalue* determines the maximum value for the sequence. If NO MAXVALUE is specified, the defaults are $2^{63}-1$ and -1 for ascending and descending sequences, respectively, will be used. If neither option is specified, the current maximum value will be maintained.

start

The optional clause RESTART WITH *start* changes the current value of the sequence.

cache

The clause `CACHE cache` enables sequence numbers to be preallocated and stored in memory for faster access. The minimum value is 1 (only one value can be generated at a time, i.e., no cache). If unspecified, the old cache value will be maintained.

CYCLE

The optional `CYCLE` key word may be used to enable the sequence to wrap around when the *maxvalue* or *minvalue* has been reached by an ascending or descending sequence respectively. If the limit is reached, the next number generated will be the *minvalue* or *maxvalue*, respectively.

NO CYCLE

If the optional `NO CYCLE` key word is specified, any calls to `nextval` after the sequence has reached its maximum value will return an error. If neither `CYCLE` or `NO CYCLE` are specified, the old cycle behaviour will be maintained.

Examples

Restart a sequence called `serial`, at 105:

```
ALTER SEQUENCE serial RESTART WITH 105;
```

Notes

To avoid blocking of concurrent transactions that obtain numbers from the same sequence, `ALTER SEQUENCE` is never rolled back; the changes take effect immediately and are not reversible.

`ALTER SEQUENCE` will not immediately affect `nextval` results in backends, other than the current one, that have preallocated (cached) sequence values. They will use up all cached values prior to noticing the changed sequence parameters. The current backend will be affected immediately.

Compatibility

`ALTER SEQUENCE` conforms with SQL:2003.

ALTER TABLE

Name

ALTER TABLE — change the definition of a table

Synopsis

```
ALTER TABLE [ ONLY ] name [ * ]
    action [, ... ]
ALTER TABLE [ ONLY ] name [ * ]
    RENAME [ COLUMN ] column TO new_column
ALTER TABLE name
    RENAME TO new_name
```

where *action* is one of:

```
ADD [ COLUMN ] column type [ column_constraint [ ... ] ]
DROP [ COLUMN ] column [ RESTRICT | CASCADE ]
ALTER [ COLUMN ] column TYPE type [ USING expression ]
ALTER [ COLUMN ] column SET DEFAULT expression
ALTER [ COLUMN ] column DROP DEFAULT
ALTER [ COLUMN ] column { SET | DROP } NOT NULL
ALTER [ COLUMN ] column SET STATISTICS integer
ALTER [ COLUMN ] column SET STORAGE { PLAIN | EXTERNAL | EXTENDED | MAIN }
ADD table_constraint
DROP CONSTRAINT constraint_name [ RESTRICT | CASCADE ]
CLUSTER ON index_name
SET WITHOUT CLUSTER
SET WITHOUT OIDS
OWNER TO new_owner
SET TABLESPACE tablespace_name
```

Description

ALTER TABLE changes the definition of an existing table. There are several subforms:

ADD COLUMN

This form adds a new column to the table using the same syntax as *CREATE TABLE*.

DROP COLUMN

This form drops a column from a table. Indexes and table constraints involving the column will be automatically dropped as well. You will need to say *CASCADE* if anything outside the table depends on the column, for example, foreign key references or views.

ALTER COLUMN TYPE

This form changes the type of a column of a table. Indexes and simple table constraints involving the column will be automatically converted to use the new column type by reparsing the originally supplied expression. The optional `USING` clause specifies how to compute the new column value from the old; if omitted, the default conversion is the same as an assignment cast from old data type to new. A `USING` clause must be provided if there is no implicit or assignment cast from old to new type.

SET/DROP DEFAULT

These forms set or remove the default value for a column. The default values only apply to subsequent `INSERT` commands; they do not cause rows already in the table to change. Defaults may also be created for views, in which case they are inserted into `INSERT` statements on the view before the view's `ON INSERT` rule is applied.

SET/DROP NOT NULL

These forms change whether a column is marked to allow null values or to reject null values. You can only use `SET NOT NULL` when the column contains no null values.

SET STATISTICS

This form sets the per-column statistics-gathering target for subsequent `ANALYZE` operations. The target can be set in the range 0 to 1000; alternatively, set it to -1 to revert to using the system default statistics target (`default_statistics_target`). For more information on the use of statistics by the PostgreSQL query planner, refer to Section 13.2.

SET STORAGE

This form sets the storage mode for a column. This controls whether this column is held inline or in a supplementary table, and whether the data should be compressed or not. `PLAIN` must be used for fixed-length values such as `integer` and is inline, uncompressed. `MAIN` is for inline, compressible data. `EXTERNAL` is for external, uncompressed data, and `EXTENDED` is for external, compressed data. `EXTENDED` is the default for most data types that support non-`PLAIN` storage. Use of `EXTERNAL` will make substring operations on `text` and `bytea` columns faster, at the penalty of increased storage space. Note that `SET STORAGE` doesn't itself change anything in the table, it just sets the strategy to be pursued during future table updates. See Section 49.2 for more information.

ADD *table_constraint*

This form adds a new constraint to a table using the same syntax as `CREATE TABLE`.

DROP CONSTRAINT

This form drops constraints on a table. Currently, constraints on tables are not required to have unique names, so there may be more than one constraint matching the specified name. All matching constraints will be dropped.

CLUSTER

This form selects the default index for future `CLUSTER` operations. It does not actually re-cluster the table.

SET WITHOUT CLUSTER

This form removes the most recently used `CLUSTER` index specification from the table. This affects future cluster operations that don't specify an index.

SET WITHOUT OIDS

This form removes the `oid` system column from the table. This is exactly equivalent to `DROP COLUMN oid RESTRICT`, except that it will not complain if there is already no `oid` column.

Note that there is no variant of `ALTER TABLE` that allows OIDs to be restored to a table once they have been removed.

OWNER

This form changes the owner of the table, index, sequence, or view to the specified user.

SET TABLESPACE

This form changes the table's tablespace to the specified tablespace and moves the data file(s) associated with the table to the new tablespace. Indexes on the table, if any, are not moved; but they can be moved separately with additional `SET TABLESPACE` commands. See also `CREATE TABLESPACE`.

RENAME

The `RENAME` forms change the name of a table (or an index, sequence, or view) or the name of an individual column in a table. There is no effect on the stored data.

All the actions except `RENAME` can be combined into a list of multiple alterations to apply in parallel. For example, it is possible to add several columns and/or alter the type of several columns in a single command. This is particularly useful with large tables, since only one pass over the table need be made.

You must own the table to use `ALTER TABLE`; except for `ALTER TABLE OWNER`, which may only be executed by a superuser.

Parameters

name

The name (possibly schema-qualified) of an existing table to alter. If `ONLY` is specified, only that table is altered. If `ONLY` is not specified, the table and all its descendant tables (if any) are updated. `*` can be appended to the table name to indicate that descendant tables are to be altered, but in the current version, this is the default behavior. (In releases before 7.1, `ONLY` was the default behavior. The default can be altered by changing the configuration parameter `sql_inheritance`.)

column

Name of a new or existing column.

new_column

New name for an existing column.

new_name

New name for the table.

type

Data type of the new column, or new data type for an existing column.

table_constraint

New table constraint for the table.

constraint_name

Name of an existing constraint to drop.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the dropped column or constraint (for example, views referencing the column).

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the column or constraint if there are any dependent objects. This is the default behavior.

index_name

The index name on which the table should be marked for clustering.

new_owner

The user name of the new owner of the table.

tablespace_name

The tablespace name to which the table will be moved.

Notes

The key word `COLUMN` is noise and can be omitted.

When a column is added with `ADD COLUMN`, all existing rows in the table are initialized with the column's default value (`NULL` if no `DEFAULT` clause is specified).

Adding a column with a non-null default or changing the type of an existing column will require the entire table to be rewritten. This may take a significant amount of time for a large table; and it will temporarily require double the disk space.

Adding a `CHECK` or `NOT NULL` constraint requires scanning the table to verify that existing rows meet the constraint.

The main reason for providing the option to specify multiple changes in a single `ALTER TABLE` is that multiple table scans or rewrites can thereby be combined into a single pass over the table.

The `DROP COLUMN` form does not physically remove the column, but simply makes it invisible to SQL operations. Subsequent insert and update operations in the table will store a null value for the column. Thus, dropping a column is quick but it will not immediately reduce the on-disk size of your table, as the space occupied by the dropped column is not reclaimed. The space will be reclaimed over time as existing rows are updated.

The fact that `ALTER TYPE` requires rewriting the whole table is sometimes an advantage, because the rewriting process eliminates any dead space in the table. For example, to reclaim the space occupied by a dropped column immediately, the fastest way is

```
ALTER TABLE table ALTER COLUMN anycol TYPE anytype;
```

where `anycol` is any remaining table column and `anytype` is the same type that column already has. This results in no semantically-visible change in the table, but the command forces rewriting, which gets rid of no-longer-useful data.

The `USING` option of `ALTER TYPE` can actually specify any expression involving the old values of the row; that is, it can refer to other columns as well as the one being converted. This allows very general conversions to be done with the `ALTER TYPE` syntax. Because of this flexibility, the `USING` expression is not applied to the column's default value (if any); the result might not be a constant expression as required for a default. This means that when there is no implicit or assignment cast from old to new type, `ALTER TYPE` may fail to convert the default even though a `USING` clause is supplied. In such cases, drop the default with `DROP DEFAULT`, perform the `ALTER TYPE`, and then use `SET DEFAULT` to add a suitable new default. Similar considerations apply to indexes and constraints involving the column.

If a table has any descendant tables, it is not permitted to add, rename, or change the type of a column in the parent table without doing the same to the descendants. That is, `ALTER TABLE ONLY` will be rejected. This ensures that the descendants always have columns matching the parent.

A recursive `DROP COLUMN` operation will remove a descendant table's column only if the descendant does not inherit that column from any other parents and never had an independent definition of the column. A nonrecursive `DROP COLUMN` (i.e., `ALTER TABLE ONLY ... DROP COLUMN`) never removes any descendant columns, but instead marks them as independently defined rather than inherited.

Changing any part of a system catalog table is not permitted.

Refer to *CREATE TABLE* for a further description of valid parameters. Chapter 5 has further information on inheritance.

Examples

To add a column of type `varchar` to a table:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors ADD COLUMN address varchar(30);
```

To drop a column from a table:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors DROP COLUMN address RESTRICT;
```

To change the types of two existing columns in one operation:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors
    ALTER COLUMN address TYPE varchar(80),
    ALTER COLUMN name TYPE varchar(100);
```

To change an integer column containing UNIX timestamps to `timestamp with time zone` via a `USING` clause:

```
ALTER TABLE foo
    ALTER COLUMN foo_timestamp TYPE timestamp with time zone
```

```
USING
    timestamp with time zone 'epoch' + foo_timestamp * interval '1 second';
```

To rename an existing column:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors RENAME COLUMN address TO city;
```

To rename an existing table:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors RENAME TO suppliers;
```

To add a not-null constraint to a column:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors ALTER COLUMN street SET NOT NULL;
```

To remove a not-null constraint from a column:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors ALTER COLUMN street DROP NOT NULL;
```

To add a check constraint to a table:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors ADD CONSTRAINT zipchk CHECK (char_length(zipcode) = 5);
```

To remove a check constraint from a table and all its children:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors DROP CONSTRAINT zipchk;
```

To add a foreign key constraint to a table:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors ADD CONSTRAINT distfk FOREIGN KEY (address) REFERENCES address
```

To add a (multicolumn) unique constraint to a table:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors ADD CONSTRAINT dist_id_zipcode_key UNIQUE (dist_id, zipcode);
```

To add an automatically named primary key constraint to a table, noting that a table can only ever have one primary key:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors ADD PRIMARY KEY (dist_id);
```

To move a table to a different tablespace:

```
ALTER TABLE distributors SET TABLESPACE fasttablespace;
```

Compatibility

The `ADD`, `DROP`, and `SET DEFAULT` forms conform with the SQL standard. The other forms are PostgreSQL extensions of the SQL standard. Also, the ability to specify more than one manipulation in a single `ALTER TABLE` command is an extension.

`ALTER TABLE DROP COLUMN` can be used to drop the only column of a table, leaving a zero-column table. This is an extension of SQL, which disallows zero-column tables.

ALTER TABLESPACE

Name

ALTER TABLESPACE — change the definition of a tablespace

Synopsis

```
ALTER TABLESPACE name RENAME TO newname  
ALTER TABLESPACE name OWNER TO newowner
```

Description

ALTER TABLESPACE changes the definition of a tablespace.

Parameters

name

The name of an existing tablespace.

newname

The new name of the tablespace. The new name cannot begin with `pg_`, as such names are reserved for system tablespaces.

newowner

The new owner of the tablespace. You must be a superuser to change the owner of a tablespace.

Examples

Rename tablespace `index_space` to `fast_raid`:

```
ALTER TABLESPACE index_space RENAME TO fast_raid;
```

Change the owner of tablespace `index_space`:

```
ALTER TABLESPACE index_space OWNER TO mary;
```

Compatibility

There is no `ALTER TABLESPACE` statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE TABLESPACE, DROP TABLESPACE

ALTER TRIGGER

Name

ALTER TRIGGER — change the definition of a trigger

Synopsis

```
ALTER TRIGGER name ON table RENAME TO newname
```

Description

ALTER TRIGGER changes properties of an existing trigger. The RENAME clause changes the name of the given trigger without otherwise changing the trigger definition.

You must own the table on which the trigger acts to be allowed to change its properties.

Parameters

name

The name of an existing trigger to alter.

table

The name of the table on which this trigger acts.

newname

The new name for the trigger.

Examples

To rename an existing trigger:

```
ALTER TRIGGER emp_stamp ON emp RENAME TO emp_track_chgs;
```

Compatibility

ALTER TRIGGER is a PostgreSQL extension of the SQL standard.

ALTER TYPE

Name

`ALTER TYPE` — change the definition of a type

Synopsis

```
ALTER TYPE name OWNER TO new_owner
```

Description

`ALTER TYPE` changes the definition of an existing type. The only currently available capability is changing the owner of a type.

Parameters

name

The name (possibly schema-qualified) of an existing type to alter.

new_owner

The user name of the new owner of the type. You must be a superuser to change a type's owner.

Examples

To change the owner of the user-defined type `email` to `joe`:

```
ALTER TYPE email OWNER TO joe;
```

Compatibility

There is no `ALTER TYPE` statement in the SQL standard.

ALTER USER

Name

ALTER USER — change a database user account

Synopsis

```
ALTER USER name [ [ WITH ] option [ ... ] ]
```

where *option* can be:

```
CREATEDB | NOCREATEDB  
| CREATEUSER | NOCREATEUSER  
| [ ENCRYPTED | UNENCRYPTED ] PASSWORD 'password'  
| VALID UNTIL 'abstime'
```

```
ALTER USER name RENAME TO newname
```

```
ALTER USER name SET parameter { TO | = } { value | DEFAULT }  
ALTER USER name RESET parameter
```

Description

ALTER USER changes the attributes of a PostgreSQL user account. Attributes not mentioned in the command retain their previous settings.

The first variant of this command listed in the synopsis changes certain per-user privileges and authentication settings. (See below for details.) Database superusers can change any of these settings for any user. Ordinary users can only change their own password.

The second variant changes the name of the user. Only a database superuser can rename user accounts. The current session user cannot be renamed. (Connect as a different user if you need to do that.) Because MD5-encrypted passwords use the user name as cryptographic salt, renaming a user clears their MD5 password.

The third and the fourth variant change a user's session default for a specified configuration variable. Whenever the user subsequently starts a new session, the specified value becomes the session default, overriding whatever setting is present in `postgresql.conf` or has been received from the `postmaster` command line. Ordinary users can change their own session defaults. Superusers can change anyone's session defaults. Certain variables cannot be set this way, or can only be set by a superuser.

Parameters

name

The name of the user whose attributes are to be altered.

CREATEDB
 NOCREATEDB

These clauses define a user's ability to create databases. If `CREATEDB` is specified, the user will be allowed to create his own databases. Using `NOCREATEDB` will deny a user the ability to create databases. (If the user is also a superuser, then this setting has no real effect.)

CREATEUSER
 NOCREATEUSER

These clauses determine whether a user will be permitted to create new users himself. `CREATEUSER` will also make the user a superuser, who can override all access restrictions.

password

The new password to be used for this account.

ENCRYPTED
 UNENCRYPTED

These key words control whether the password is stored encrypted in `pg_shadow`. (See *CREATE USER* for more information about this choice.)

abstime

The date (and, optionally, the time) at which this user's password is to expire. To set the password never to expire, use `'infinity'`.

newname

The new name of the user.

parameter
value

Set this user's session default for the specified configuration parameter to the given value. If *value* is `DEFAULT` or, equivalently, `RESET` is used, the user-specific variable setting is removed, so the user will inherit the system-wide default setting in new sessions. Use `RESET ALL` to clear all user-specific settings.

See *SET* and Section 16.4 for more information about allowed parameter names and values.

Notes

Use *CREATE USER* to add new users, and *DROP USER* to remove a user.

`ALTER USER` cannot change a user's group memberships. Use *ALTER GROUP* to do that.

The `VALID UNTIL` clause defines an expiration time for a password only, not for the user account *per se*. In particular, the expiration time is not enforced when logging in using a non-password-based authentication method.

It is also possible to tie a session default to a specific database rather than to a user; see *ALTER DATABASE*. User-specific settings override database-specific ones if there is a conflict.

Examples

Change a user's password:

```
ALTER USER davide WITH PASSWORD 'hu8jmn3';
```

Change the expiration date of the user's password:

```
ALTER USER manuel VALID UNTIL 'Jan 31 2030';
```

Change a password expiration date, specifying that the password should expire at midday on 4th May 2005 using the time zone which is one hour ahead of UTC:

```
ALTER USER chris VALID UNTIL 'May 4 12:00:00 2005 +1';
```

Make a password valid forever:

```
ALTER USER fred VALID UNTIL 'infinity';
```

Give a user the ability to create other users and new databases:

```
ALTER USER miriam CREATEUSER CREATEDB;
```

Compatibility

The ALTER USER statement is a PostgreSQL extension. The SQL standard leaves the definition of users to the implementation.

See Also

CREATE USER, DROP USER, SET

ANALYZE

Name

ANALYZE — collect statistics about a database

Synopsis

```
ANALYZE [ VERBOSE ] [ table [ (column [, ...] ) ] ]
```

Description

ANALYZE collects statistics about the contents of tables in the database, and stores the results in the system table `pg_statistic`. Subsequently, the query planner uses these statistics to help determine the most efficient execution plans for queries.

With no parameter, ANALYZE examines every table in the current database. With a parameter, ANALYZE examines only that table. It is further possible to give a list of column names, in which case only the statistics for those columns are collected.

Parameters

VERBOSE

Enables display of progress messages.

table

The name (possibly schema-qualified) of a specific table to analyze. Defaults to all tables in the current database.

column

The name of a specific column to analyze. Defaults to all columns.

Outputs

When *VERBOSE* is specified, ANALYZE emits progress messages to indicate which table is currently being processed. Various statistics about the tables are printed as well.

Notes

It is a good idea to run ANALYZE periodically, or just after making major changes in the contents of a table. Accurate statistics will help the planner to choose the most appropriate query plan, and thereby improve the speed of query processing. A common strategy is to run *VACUUM* and ANALYZE once a day during a low-usage time of day.

Unlike `VACUUM FULL`, `ANALYZE` requires only a read lock on the target table, so it can run in parallel with other activity on the table.

The statistics collected by `ANALYZE` usually include a list of some of the most common values in each column and a histogram showing the approximate data distribution in each column. One or both of these may be omitted if `ANALYZE` deems them uninteresting (for example, in a unique-key column, there are no common values) or if the column data type does not support the appropriate operators. There is more information about the statistics in Chapter 21.

For large tables, `ANALYZE` takes a random sample of the table contents, rather than examining every row. This allows even very large tables to be analyzed in a small amount of time. Note, however, that the statistics are only approximate, and will change slightly each time `ANALYZE` is run, even if the actual table contents did not change. This may result in small changes in the planner's estimated costs shown by `EXPLAIN`. In rare situations, this non-determinism will cause the query optimizer to choose a different query plan between runs of `ANALYZE`. To avoid this, raise the amount of statistics collected by `ANALYZE`, as described below.

The extent of analysis can be controlled by adjusting the `default_statistics_target` configuration variable, or on a column-by-column basis by setting the per-column statistics target with `ALTER TABLE ... ALTER COLUMN ... SET STATISTICS` (see *ALTER TABLE*). The target value sets the maximum number of entries in the most-common-value list and the maximum number of bins in the histogram. The default target value is 10, but this can be adjusted up or down to trade off accuracy of planner estimates against the time taken for `ANALYZE` and the amount of space occupied in `pg_statistic`. In particular, setting the statistics target to zero disables collection of statistics for that column. It may be useful to do that for columns that are never used as part of the `WHERE`, `GROUP BY`, or `ORDER BY` clauses of queries, since the planner will have no use for statistics on such columns.

The largest statistics target among the columns being analyzed determines the number of table rows sampled to prepare the statistics. Increasing the target causes a proportional increase in the time and space needed to do `ANALYZE`.

Compatibility

There is no `ANALYZE` statement in the SQL standard.

BEGIN

Name

BEGIN — start a transaction block

Synopsis

```
BEGIN [ WORK | TRANSACTION ] [ transaction_mode [, ...] ]
```

where *transaction_mode* is one of:

```
ISOLATION LEVEL { SERIALIZABLE | REPEATABLE READ | READ COMMITTED | READ UNCOMMITTED  
READ WRITE | READ ONLY
```

Description

BEGIN initiates a transaction block, that is, all statements after a BEGIN command will be executed in a single transaction until an explicit *COMMIT* or *ROLLBACK* is given. By default (without BEGIN), PostgreSQL executes transactions in “autocommit” mode, that is, each statement is executed in its own transaction and a commit is implicitly performed at the end of the statement (if execution was successful, otherwise a rollback is done).

Statements are executed more quickly in a transaction block, because transaction start/commit requires significant CPU and disk activity. Execution of multiple statements inside a transaction is also useful to ensure consistency when making several related changes: other sessions will be unable to see the intermediate states wherein not all the related updates have been done.

If the isolation level or read/write mode is specified, the new transaction has those characteristics, as if *SET TRANSACTION* was executed.

Parameters

WORK

TRANSACTION

Optional key words. They have no effect.

Refer to *SET TRANSACTION* for information on the meaning of the other parameters to this statement.

Notes

START TRANSACTION has the same functionality as BEGIN.

Use *COMMIT* or *ROLLBACK* to terminate a transaction block.

Issuing `BEGIN` when already inside a transaction block will provoke a warning message. The state of the transaction is not affected. To nest transactions within a transaction block, use savepoints (see *SAVEPOINT*).

For reasons of backwards compatibility, the commas between successive *transaction_modes* may be omitted.

Examples

To begin a transaction block:

```
BEGIN;
```

Compatibility

`BEGIN` is a PostgreSQL language extension. It is equivalent to the SQL-standard command *START TRANSACTION*, which see for additional compatibility information.

Incidentally, the `BEGIN` key word is used for a different purpose in embedded SQL. You are advised to be careful about the transaction semantics when porting database applications.

See Also

COMMIT, *ROLLBACK*, *START TRANSACTION*, *SAVEPOINT*

CHECKPOINT

Name

CHECKPOINT — force a transaction log checkpoint

Synopsis

```
CHECKPOINT
```

Description

Write-Ahead Logging (WAL) puts a checkpoint in the transaction log every so often. (To adjust the automatic checkpoint interval, see the run-time configuration options `checkpoint_segments` and `checkpoint_timeout`.) The `CHECKPOINT` command forces an immediate checkpoint when the command is issued, without waiting for a scheduled checkpoint.

A checkpoint is a point in the transaction log sequence at which all data files have been updated to reflect the information in the log. All data files will be flushed to disk. Refer to Chapter 25 for more information about the WAL system.

Only superusers may call `CHECKPOINT`. The command is not intended for use during normal operation.

Compatibility

The `CHECKPOINT` command is a PostgreSQL language extension.

CLOSE

Name

CLOSE — close a cursor

Synopsis

```
CLOSE name
```

Description

CLOSE frees the resources associated with an open cursor. After the cursor is closed, no subsequent operations are allowed on it. A cursor should be closed when it is no longer needed.

Every non-holdable open cursor is implicitly closed when a transaction is terminated by COMMIT or ROLLBACK. A holdable cursor is implicitly closed if the transaction that created it aborts via ROLLBACK. If the creating transaction successfully commits, the holdable cursor remains open until an explicit CLOSE is executed, or the client disconnects.

Parameters

name

The name of an open cursor to close.

Notes

PostgreSQL does not have an explicit OPEN cursor statement; a cursor is considered open when it is declared. Use the *DECLARE* statement to declare a cursor.

Examples

Close the cursor *liahona*:

```
CLOSE liahona;
```

Compatibility

CLOSE is fully conforming with the SQL standard.

See Also

DECLARE, FETCH, MOVE

CLUSTER

Name

CLUSTER — cluster a table according to an index

Synopsis

```
CLUSTER indexname ON tablename
CLUSTER tablename
CLUSTER
```

Description

CLUSTER instructs PostgreSQL to cluster the table specified by *tablename* based on the index specified by *indexname*. The index must already have been defined on *tablename*.

When a table is clustered, it is physically reordered based on the index information. Clustering is a one-time operation: when the table is subsequently updated, the changes are not clustered. That is, no attempt is made to store new or updated rows according to their index order. If one wishes, one can periodically recluster by issuing the command again.

When a table is clustered, PostgreSQL remembers on which index it was clustered. The form `CLUSTER tablename` reclusters the table on the same index that it was clustered before.

CLUSTER without any parameter reclusters all the tables in the current database that the calling user owns, or all tables if called by a superuser. (Never-clustered tables are not included.) This form of CLUSTER cannot be called from inside a transaction or function.

When a table is being clustered, an `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE` lock is acquired on it. This prevents any other database operations (both reads and writes) from operating on the table until the CLUSTER is finished.

Parameters

indexname

The name of an index.

tablename

The name (possibly schema-qualified) of a table.

Notes

In cases where you are accessing single rows randomly within a table, the actual order of the data in the table is unimportant. However, if you tend to access some data more than others, and there is an index that groups them together, you will benefit from using CLUSTER. If you are requesting a range of indexed

values from a table, or a single indexed value that has multiple rows that match, `CLUSTER` will help because once the index identifies the heap page for the first row that matches, all other rows that match are probably already on the same heap page, and so you save disk accesses and speed up the query.

During the cluster operation, a temporary copy of the table is created that contains the table data in the index order. Temporary copies of each index on the table are created as well. Therefore, you need free space on disk at least equal to the sum of the table size and the index sizes.

Because `CLUSTER` remembers the clustering information, one can cluster the tables one wants clustered manually the first time, and setup a timed event similar to `VACUUM` so that the tables are periodically reclustered.

Because the planner records statistics about the ordering of tables, it is advisable to run `ANALYZE` on the newly clustered table. Otherwise, the planner may make poor choices of query plans.

There is another way to cluster data. The `CLUSTER` command reorders the original table using the ordering of the index you specify. This can be slow on large tables because the rows are fetched from the heap in index order, and if the heap table is unordered, the entries are on random pages, so there is one disk page retrieved for every row moved. (PostgreSQL has a cache, but the majority of a big table will not fit in the cache.) The other way to cluster a table is to use

```
CREATE TABLE newtable AS
  SELECT columnlist FROM table ORDER BY columnlist;
```

which uses the PostgreSQL sorting code in the `ORDER BY` clause to create the desired order; this is usually much faster than an index scan for unordered data. You then drop the old table, use `ALTER TABLE ... RENAME` to rename *newtable* to the old name, and recreate the table's indexes. However, this approach does not preserve OIDs, constraints, foreign key relationships, granted privileges, and other ancillary properties of the table — all such items must be manually recreated.

Examples

Cluster the table `employees` on the basis of its index `emp_ind`:

```
CLUSTER emp_ind ON emp;
```

Cluster the `employees` table using the same index that was used before:

```
CLUSTER emp;
```

Cluster all tables in the database that have previously been clustered:

```
CLUSTER;
```

Compatibility

There is no `CLUSTER` statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

clusterdb

COMMENT

Name

COMMENT — define or change the comment of an object

Synopsis

```
COMMENT ON
{
    TABLE object_name |
    COLUMN table_name.column_name |
    AGGREGATE agg_name (agg_type) |
    CAST (sourcetype AS targettype) |
    CONSTRAINT constraint_name ON table_name |
    CONVERSION object_name |
    DATABASE object_name |
    DOMAIN object_name |
    FUNCTION func_name (arg1_type, arg2_type, ...) |
    INDEX object_name |
    LARGE OBJECT large_object_oid |
    OPERATOR op (leftoperand_type, rightoperand_type) |
    OPERATOR CLASS object_name USING index_method |
    [ PROCEDURAL ] LANGUAGE object_name |
    RULE rule_name ON table_name |
    SCHEMA object_name |
    SEQUENCE object_name |
    TRIGGER trigger_name ON table_name |
    TYPE object_name |
    VIEW object_name
} IS 'text'
```

Description

COMMENT stores a comment about a database object.

To modify a comment, issue a new COMMENT command for the same object. Only one comment string is stored for each object. To remove a comment, write NULL in place of the text string. Comments are automatically dropped when the object is dropped.

Comments can be easily retrieved with the psql commands \dd, \d+, and \l+. Other user interfaces to retrieve comments can be built atop the same built-in functions that psql uses, namely obj_description and col_description (see Table 9-43).

Parameters

object_name
table_name.column_name
agg_name
constraint_name
func_name
op
rule_name
trigger_name

The name of the object to be commented. Names of tables, aggregates, domains, functions, indexes, operators, operator classes, sequences, types, and views may be schema-qualified.

agg_type

The argument data type of the aggregate function, or * if the function accepts any data type.

large_object_oid

The OID of the large object.

PROCEDURAL

This is a noise word.

sourcetype

The name of the source data type of the cast.

targettype

The name of the target data type of the cast.

text

The new comment, written as a string literal; or NULL to drop the comment.

Notes

A comment for a database can only be created in that database, and will only be visible in that database, not in other databases.

There is presently no security mechanism for comments: any user connected to a database can see all the comments for objects in that database (although only superusers can change comments for objects that they don't own). Therefore, don't put security-critical information in comments.

Examples

Attach a comment to the table mytable:

```
COMMENT ON TABLE mytable IS 'This is my table.';
```

Remove it again:

```
COMMENT ON TABLE mytable IS NULL;
```

Some more examples:

```
COMMENT ON AGGREGATE my_aggregate (double precision) IS 'Computes sample variance';
COMMENT ON CAST (text AS int4) IS 'Allow casts from text to int4';
COMMENT ON COLUMN my_table.my_column IS 'Employee ID number';
COMMENT ON CONVERSION my_conv IS 'Conversion to Unicode';
COMMENT ON DATABASE my_database IS 'Development Database';
COMMENT ON DOMAIN my_domain IS 'Email Address Domain';
COMMENT ON FUNCTION my_function (timestamp) IS 'Returns Roman Numeral';
COMMENT ON INDEX my_index IS 'Enforces uniqueness on employee ID';
COMMENT ON LANGUAGE plpython IS 'Python support for stored procedures';
COMMENT ON LARGE OBJECT 346344 IS 'Planning document';
COMMENT ON OPERATOR ^ (text, text) IS 'Performs intersection of two texts';
COMMENT ON OPERATOR ^ (NONE, text) IS 'This is a prefix operator on text';
COMMENT ON OPERATOR CLASS int4ops USING btree IS '4 byte integer operators for btrees';
COMMENT ON RULE my_rule ON my_table IS 'Logs updates of employee records';
COMMENT ON SCHEMA my_schema IS 'Departmental data';
COMMENT ON SEQUENCE my_sequence IS 'Used to generate primary keys';
COMMENT ON TABLE my_schema.my_table IS 'Employee Information';
COMMENT ON TRIGGER my_trigger ON my_table IS 'Used for RI';
COMMENT ON TYPE complex IS 'Complex number data type';
COMMENT ON VIEW my_view IS 'View of departmental costs';
```

Compatibility

There is no COMMENT command in the SQL standard.

COMMIT

Name

COMMIT — commit the current transaction

Synopsis

```
COMMIT [ WORK | TRANSACTION ]
```

Description

COMMIT commits the current transaction. All changes made by the transaction become visible to others and are guaranteed to be durable if a crash occurs.

Parameters

WORK
TRANSACTION

Optional key words. They have no effect.

Notes

Use *ROLLBACK* to abort a transaction.

Issuing COMMIT when not inside a transaction does no harm, but it will provoke a warning message.

Examples

To commit the current transaction and make all changes permanent:

```
COMMIT;
```

Compatibility

The SQL standard only specifies the two forms COMMIT and COMMIT WORK. Otherwise, this command is fully conforming.

See Also

BEGIN, ROLLBACK

COPY

Name

COPY — copy data between a file and a table

Synopsis

```
COPY tablename [ ( column [, ...] ) ]
FROM { 'filename' | STDIN }
[ [ WITH ]
    [ BINARY ]
    [ OIDS ]
    [ DELIMITER [ AS ] 'delimiter' ]
    [ NULL [ AS ] 'null string' ]
    [ CSV [ QUOTE [ AS ] 'quote' ]
        [ ESCAPE [ AS ] 'escape' ]
    [ FORCE NOT NULL column [, ...] ]
```

```
COPY tablename [ ( column [, ...] ) ]
TO { 'filename' | STDOUT }
[ [ WITH ]
    [ BINARY ]
    [ OIDS ]
    [ DELIMITER [ AS ] 'delimiter' ]
    [ NULL [ AS ] 'null string' ]
    [ CSV [ QUOTE [ AS ] 'quote' ]
        [ ESCAPE [ AS ] 'escape' ]
    [ FORCE QUOTE column [, ...] ]
```

Description

COPY moves data between PostgreSQL tables and standard file-system files. COPY TO copies the contents of a table *to* a file, while COPY FROM copies data *from* a file to a table (appending the data to whatever is in the table already).

If a list of columns is specified, COPY will only copy the data in the specified columns to or from the file. If there are any columns in the table that are not in the column list, COPY FROM will insert the default values for those columns.

COPY with a file name instructs the PostgreSQL server to directly read from or write to a file. The file must be accessible to the server and the name must be specified from the viewpoint of the server. When STDIN or STDOUT is specified, data is transmitted via the connection between the client and the server.

Parameters

tablename

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing table.

column

An optional list of columns to be copied. If no column list is specified, all columns will be used.

filename

The absolute path name of the input or output file.

STDIN

Specifies that input comes from the client application.

STDOUT

Specifies that output goes to the client application.

BINARY

Causes all data to be stored or read in binary format rather than as text. You cannot specify the DELIMITER, NULL, or CSV options in binary mode.

OIDS

Specifies copying the OID for each row. (An error is raised if OIDS is specified for a table that does not have OIDs.)

delimiter

The single character that separates columns within each row (line) of the file. The default is a tab character in text mode, a comma in CSV mode.

null string

The string that represents a null value. The default is `\N` (backslash-N) in text mode, and an empty value with no quotes in CSV mode. You might prefer an empty string even in text mode for cases where you don't want to distinguish nulls from empty strings.

Note: When using `COPY FROM`, any data item that matches this string will be stored as a null value, so you should make sure that you use the same string as you used with `COPY TO`.

CSV

Selects Comma Separated Value (CSV) mode.

quote

Specifies the quotation character in CSV mode. The default is double-quote.

escape

Specifies the character that should appear before a QUOTE data character value in CSV mode. The default is the QUOTE value (usually double-quote).

FORCE QUOTE

In CSV `COPY TO` mode, forces quoting to be used for all non-NULL values in each specified column. NULL output is never quoted.

FORCE NOT NULL

In CSV `COPY FROM` mode, process each specified column as though it were quoted and hence not a `NULL` value. For the default null string in CSV mode (`"`), this causes missing values to be input as zero-length strings.

Notes

`COPY` can only be used with plain tables, not with views.

The `BINARY` key word causes all data to be stored/read as binary format rather than as text. It is somewhat faster than the normal text mode, but a binary-format file is less portable across machine architectures and PostgreSQL versions.

You must have select privilege on the table whose values are read by `COPY TO`, and insert privilege on the table into which values are inserted by `COPY FROM`.

Files named in a `COPY` command are read or written directly by the server, not by the client application. Therefore, they must reside on or be accessible to the database server machine, not the client. They must be accessible to and readable or writable by the PostgreSQL user (the user ID the server runs as), not the client. `COPY` naming a file is only allowed to database superusers, since it allows reading or writing any file that the server has privileges to access.

Do not confuse `COPY` with the `psql` instruction `\copy`. `\copy` invokes `COPY FROM STDIN` or `COPY TO STDOUT`, and then fetches/stores the data in a file accessible to the `psql` client. Thus, file accessibility and access rights depend on the client rather than the server when `\copy` is used.

It is recommended that the file name used in `COPY` always be specified as an absolute path. This is enforced by the server in the case of `COPY TO`, but for `COPY FROM` you do have the option of reading from a file specified by a relative path. The path will be interpreted relative to the working directory of the server process (somewhere below the data directory), not the client's working directory.

`COPY FROM` will invoke any triggers and check constraints on the destination table. However, it will not invoke rules.

`COPY` input and output is affected by `DateStyle`. To ensure portability to other PostgreSQL installations that might use non-default `DateStyle` settings, `DateStyle` should be set to `ISO` before using `COPY TO`.

`COPY` stops operation at the first error. This should not lead to problems in the event of a `COPY TO`, but the target table will already have received earlier rows in a `COPY FROM`. These rows will not be visible or accessible, but they still occupy disk space. This may amount to a considerable amount of wasted disk space if the failure happened well into a large copy operation. You may wish to invoke `VACUUM` to recover the wasted space.

File Formats**Text Format**

When `COPY` is used without the `BINARY` or `CSV` options, the data read or written is a text file with one line per table row. Columns in a row are separated by the delimiter character. The column values themselves

are strings generated by the output function, or acceptable to the input function, of each attribute's data type. The specified null string is used in place of columns that are null. `COPY FROM` will raise an error if any line of the input file contains more or fewer columns than are expected. If `OIDS` is specified, the `OID` is read or written as the first column, preceding the user data columns.

End of data can be represented by a single line containing just backslash-period (`\.`). An end-of-data marker is not necessary when reading from a file, since the end of file serves perfectly well; it is needed only when copying data to or from client applications using pre-3.0 client protocol.

Backslash characters (`\`) may be used in the `COPY` data to quote data characters that might otherwise be taken as row or column delimiters. In particular, the following characters *must* be preceded by a backslash if they appear as part of a column value: backslash itself, newline, carriage return, and the current delimiter character.

The specified null string is sent by `COPY TO` without adding any backslashes; conversely, `COPY FROM` matches the input against the null string before removing backslashes. Therefore, a null string such as `\N` cannot be confused with the actual data value `\N` (which would be represented as `\\N`).

The following special backslash sequences are recognized by `COPY FROM`:

Sequence	Represents
<code>\b</code>	Backspace (ASCII 8)
<code>\f</code>	Form feed (ASCII 12)
<code>\n</code>	Newline (ASCII 10)
<code>\r</code>	Carriage return (ASCII 13)
<code>\t</code>	Tab (ASCII 9)
<code>\v</code>	Vertical tab (ASCII 11)
<code>\digits</code>	Backslash followed by one to three octal digits specifies the character with that numeric code

Presently, `COPY TO` will never emit an octal-digits backslash sequence, but it does use the other sequences listed above for those control characters.

Any other backslashed character that is not mentioned in the above table will be taken to represent itself. However, beware of adding backslashes unnecessarily, since that might accidentally produce a string matching the end-of-data marker (`\.`) or the null string (`\N` by default). These strings will be recognized before any other backslash processing is done.

It is strongly recommended that applications generating `COPY` data convert data newlines and carriage returns to the `\n` and `\r` sequences respectively. At present it is possible to represent a data carriage return by a backslash and carriage return, and to represent a data newline by a backslash and newline. However, these representations might not be accepted in future releases. They are also highly vulnerable to corruption if the `COPY` file is transferred across different machines (for example, from Unix to Windows or vice versa).

`COPY TO` will terminate each row with a Unix-style newline ("`\n`"). Servers running on Microsoft Windows instead output carriage return/newline ("`\r\n`"), but only for `COPY` to a server file; for consistency across platforms, `COPY TO STDOUT` always sends "`\n`" regardless of server platform. `COPY FROM` can handle lines ending with newlines, carriage returns, or carriage return/newlines. To reduce the risk of error due to un-backslashed newlines or carriage returns that were meant as data, `COPY FROM` will complain if the line endings in the input are not all alike.

CSV Format

This format is used for importing and exporting the Comma Separated Value (CSV) file format used by many other programs, such as spreadsheets. Instead of the escaping used by PostgreSQL's standard text mode, it produces and recognises the common CSV escaping mechanism.

The values in each record are separated by the `DELIMITER` character. If the value contains the delimiter character, the `QUOTE` character, the `NULL` string, a carriage return, or line feed character, then the whole value is prefixed and suffixed by the `QUOTE` character, and any occurrence within the value of a `QUOTE` character or the `ESCAPE` character is preceded by the escape character. You can also use `FORCE QUOTE` to force quotes when outputting non-`NULL` values in specific columns.

The CSV format has no standard way to distinguish a `NULL` value from an empty string. PostgreSQL's `COPY` handles this by quoting. A `NULL` is output as the `NULL` string and is not quoted, while a data value matching the `NULL` string is quoted. Therefore, using the default settings, a `NULL` is written as an unquoted empty string, while an empty string is written with double quotes (" "). Reading values follows similar rules. You can use `FORCE NOT NULL` to prevent `NULL` input comparisons for specific columns.

Note: CSV mode will both recognize and produce CSV files with quoted values containing embedded carriage returns and line feeds. Thus the files are not strictly one line per table row like text-mode files. However, PostgreSQL will reject `COPY` input if any fields contain embedded line end character sequences that do not match the line ending convention used in the CSV file itself. It is generally safer to import data containing embedded line end characters using the text or binary formats rather than CSV.

Note: Many programs produce strange and occasionally perverse CSV files, so the file format is more a convention than a standard. Thus you might encounter some files that cannot be imported using this mechanism, and `COPY` might produce files that other programs cannot process.

Binary Format

The file format used for `COPY BINARY` changed in PostgreSQL 7.4. The new format consists of a file header, zero or more tuples containing the row data, and a file trailer. Headers and data are now in network byte order.

File Header

The file header consists of 15 bytes of fixed fields, followed by a variable-length header extension area. The fixed fields are:

Signature

11-byte sequence `PGCOPY\n\377\r\n\0` — note that the zero byte is a required part of the signature. (The signature is designed to allow easy identification of files that have been munged by a non-8-bit-clean transfer. This signature will be changed by end-of-line-translation filters, dropped zero bytes, dropped high bits, or parity changes.)

Flags field

32-bit integer bit mask to denote important aspects of the file format. Bits are numbered from 0 (LSB) to 31 (MSB). Note that this field is stored in network byte order (most significant byte first), as are all the integer fields used in the file format. Bits 16-31 are reserved to denote critical file format issues; a reader should abort if it finds an unexpected bit set in this range. Bits 0-15 are reserved to signal backwards-compatible format issues; a reader should simply ignore any unexpected bits set in this range. Currently only one flag bit is defined, and the rest must be zero:

Bit 16

if 1, OIDs are included in the data; if 0, not

Header extension area length

32-bit integer, length in bytes of remainder of header, not including self. Currently, this is zero, and the first tuple follows immediately. Future changes to the format might allow additional data to be present in the header. A reader should silently skip over any header extension data it does not know what to do with.

The header extension area is envisioned to contain a sequence of self-identifying chunks. The flags field is not intended to tell readers what is in the extension area. Specific design of header extension contents is left for a later release.

This design allows for both backwards-compatible header additions (add header extension chunks, or set low-order flag bits) and non-backwards-compatible changes (set high-order flag bits to signal such changes, and add supporting data to the extension area if needed).

Tuples

Each tuple begins with a 16-bit integer count of the number of fields in the tuple. (Presently, all tuples in a table will have the same count, but that might not always be true.) Then, repeated for each field in the tuple, there is a 32-bit length word followed by that many bytes of field data. (The length word does not include itself, and can be zero.) As a special case, -1 indicates a NULL field value. No value bytes follow in the NULL case.

There is no alignment padding or any other extra data between fields.

Presently, all data values in a `COPY BINARY` file are assumed to be in binary format (format code one). It is anticipated that a future extension may add a header field that allows per-column format codes to be specified.

To determine the appropriate binary format for the actual tuple data you should consult the PostgreSQL source, in particular the `*send` and `*recv` functions for each column's data type (typically these functions are found in the `src/backend/utils/adts/` directory of the source distribution).

If OIDs are included in the file, the OID field immediately follows the field-count word. It is a normal field except that it's not included in the field-count. In particular it has a length word — this will allow

handling of 4-byte vs. 8-byte OIDs without too much pain, and will allow OIDs to be shown as null if that ever proves desirable.

File Trailer

The file trailer consists of a 16-bit integer word containing -1. This is easily distinguished from a tuple's field-count word.

A reader should report an error if a field-count word is neither -1 nor the expected number of columns. This provides an extra check against somehow getting out of sync with the data.

Examples

The following example copies a table to the client using the vertical bar (|) as the field delimiter:

```
COPY country TO STDOUT WITH DELIMITER '|';
```

To copy data from a file into the `country` table:

```
COPY country FROM '/usr1/proj/bray/sql/country_data';
```

Here is a sample of data suitable for copying into a table from STDIN:

```
AF      AFGHANISTAN
AL      ALBANIA
DZ      ALGERIA
ZM      ZAMBIA
ZW      ZIMBABWE
```

Note that the white space on each line is actually a tab character.

The following is the same data, output in binary format. The data is shown after filtering through the Unix utility `od -c`. The table has three columns; the first has type `char(2)`, the second has type `text`, and the third has type `integer`. All the rows have a null value in the third column.

```
0000000 P G C O P Y \n 377 \r \n \0 \0 \0 \0 \0
0000020 \0 \0 \0 \0 003 \0 \0 \0 002 A F \0 \0 \0 013 A
0000040 F G H A N I S T A N 377 377 377 377 \0 003
0000060 \0 \0 \0 002 A L \0 \0 \0 007 A L B A N I
0000100 A 377 377 377 377 \0 003 \0 \0 \0 002 D Z \0 \0 \0
0000120 007 A L G E R I A 377 377 377 377 \0 003 \0 \0
0000140 \0 002 Z M \0 \0 \0 006 Z A M B I A 377 377
0000160 377 377 \0 003 \0 \0 \0 002 Z W \0 \0 \0 \b Z I
0000200 M B A B W E 377 377 377 377 377 377
```

Compatibility

There is no COPY statement in the SQL standard.

The following syntax was used before PostgreSQL version 7.3 and is still supported:

```
COPY [ BINARY ] tablename [ WITH OIDS ]  
FROM { 'filename' | STDIN }  
[ [USING] DELIMITERS 'delimiter' ]  
[ WITH NULL AS 'null string' ]
```

```
COPY [ BINARY ] tablename [ WITH OIDS ]  
TO { 'filename' | STDOUT }  
[ [USING] DELIMITERS 'delimiter' ]  
[ WITH NULL AS 'null string' ]
```

CREATE AGGREGATE

Name

CREATE AGGREGATE — define a new aggregate function

Synopsis

```
CREATE AGGREGATE name (  
    BASETYPE = input_data_type,  
    SFUNC = sfunc,  
    STYPE = state_data_type  
    [ , FINALFUNC = ffunc ]  
    [ , INITCOND = initial_condition ]  
)
```

Description

CREATE AGGREGATE defines a new aggregate function. Some basic and commonly-used aggregate functions are included with the distribution; they are documented in Section 9.15. If one defines new types or needs an aggregate function not already provided, then CREATE AGGREGATE can be used to provide the desired features.

If a schema name is given (for example, CREATE AGGREGATE myschema.myagg ...) then the aggregate function is created in the specified schema. Otherwise it is created in the current schema.

An aggregate function is identified by its name and input data type. Two aggregates in the same schema can have the same name if they operate on different input types. The name and input data type of an aggregate must also be distinct from the name and input data type(s) of every ordinary function in the same schema.

An aggregate function is made from one or two ordinary functions: a state transition function *sfunc*, and an optional final calculation function *ffunc*. These are used as follows:

```
sfunc( internal-state, next-data-item ) ---> next-internal-state  
ffunc( internal-state ) ---> aggregate-value
```

PostgreSQL creates a temporary variable of data type *stype* to hold the current internal state of the aggregate. At each input data item, the state transition function is invoked to calculate a new internal state value. After all the data has been processed, the final function is invoked once to calculate the aggregate's return value. If there is no final function then the ending state value is returned as-is.

An aggregate function may provide an initial condition, that is, an initial value for the internal state value. This is specified and stored in the database as a column of type `text`, but it must be a valid external representation of a constant of the state value data type. If it is not supplied then the state value starts out null.

If the state transition function is declared “strict”, then it cannot be called with null inputs. With such a transition function, aggregate execution behaves as follows. Null input values are ignored (the function is

not called and the previous state value is retained). If the initial state value is null, then the first nonnull input value replaces the state value, and the transition function is invoked beginning with the second nonnull input value. This is handy for implementing aggregates like `max`. Note that this behavior is only available when `state_data_type` is the same as `input_data_type`. When these types are different, you must supply a nonnull initial condition or use a nonstrict transition function.

If the state transition function is not strict, then it will be called unconditionally at each input value, and must deal with null inputs and null transition values for itself. This allows the aggregate author to have full control over the aggregate's handling of null values.

If the final function is declared "strict", then it will not be called when the ending state value is null; instead a null result will be returned automatically. (Of course this is just the normal behavior of strict functions.) In any case the final function has the option of returning a null value. For example, the final function for `avg` returns null when it sees there were zero input rows.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the aggregate function to create.

input_data_type

The input data type on which this aggregate function operates. This can be specified as "ANY" for an aggregate that does not examine its input values (an example is `count (*)`).

sfunc

The name of the state transition function to be called for each input data value. This is normally a function of two arguments, the first being of type `state_data_type` and the second of type `input_data_type`. Alternatively, for an aggregate that does not examine its input values, the function takes just one argument of type `state_data_type`. In either case the function must return a value of type `state_data_type`. This function takes the current state value and the current input data item, and returns the next state value.

state_data_type

The data type for the aggregate's state value.

ffunc

The name of the final function called to compute the aggregate's result after all input data has been traversed. The function must take a single argument of type `state_data_type`. The return data type of the aggregate is defined as the return type of this function. If *ffunc* is not specified, then the ending state value is used as the aggregate's result, and the return type is `state_data_type`.

initial_condition

The initial setting for the state value. This must be a string constant in the form accepted for the data type `state_data_type`. If not specified, the state value starts out null.

The parameters of `CREATE AGGREGATE` can be written in any order, not just the order illustrated above.

Examples

See Section 31.10.

Compatibility

`CREATE AGGREGATE` is a PostgreSQL language extension. The SQL standard does not provide for user-defined aggregate functions.

See Also

ALTER AGGREGATE, DROP AGGREGATE

CREATE CAST

Name

CREATE CAST — define a new cast

Synopsis

```
CREATE CAST (sourcetype AS targettype)
  WITH FUNCTION funcname (argtypes)
  [ AS ASSIGNMENT | AS IMPLICIT ]
```

```
CREATE CAST (sourcetype AS targettype)
  WITHOUT FUNCTION
  [ AS ASSIGNMENT | AS IMPLICIT ]
```

Description

CREATE CAST defines a new cast. A cast specifies how to perform a conversion between two data types. For example,

```
SELECT CAST(42 AS text);
```

converts the integer constant 42 to type `text` by invoking a previously specified function, in this case `text(int4)`. (If no suitable cast has been defined, the conversion fails.)

Two types may be *binary compatible*, which means that they can be converted into one another “for free” without invoking any function. This requires that corresponding values use the same internal representation. For instance, the types `text` and `varchar` are binary compatible.

By default, a cast can be invoked only by an explicit cast request, that is an explicit `CAST(x AS typename)` or `x::typename` construct.

If the cast is marked `AS ASSIGNMENT` then it can be invoked implicitly when assigning a value to a column of the target data type. For example, supposing that `foo.f1` is a column of type `text`, then

```
INSERT INTO foo (f1) VALUES (42);
```

will be allowed if the cast from type `integer` to type `text` is marked `AS ASSIGNMENT`, otherwise not. (We generally use the term *assignment cast* to describe this kind of cast.)

If the cast is marked `AS IMPLICIT` then it can be invoked implicitly in any context, whether assignment or internally in an expression. For example, since `||` takes `text` operands,

```
SELECT 'The time is ' || now();
```

will be allowed only if the cast from type `timestamp` to `text` is marked `AS IMPLICIT`. Otherwise it will be necessary to write the cast explicitly, for example

```
SELECT 'The time is ' || CAST(now() AS text);
```

(We generally use the term *implicit cast* to describe this kind of cast.)

It is wise to be conservative about marking casts as implicit. An overabundance of implicit casting paths can cause PostgreSQL to choose surprising interpretations of commands, or to be unable to resolve commands at all because there are multiple possible interpretations. A good rule of thumb is to make a cast implicitly invocable only for information-preserving transformations between types in the same general type category. For example, the cast from `int2` to `int4` can reasonably be implicit, but the cast from `float8` to `int4` should probably be assignment-only. Cross-type-category casts, such as `text` to `int4`, are best made explicit-only.

To be able to create a cast, you must own the source or the target data type. To create a binary-compatible cast, you must be superuser. (This restriction is made because an erroneous binary-compatible cast conversion can easily crash the server.)

Parameters

sourcetype

The name of the source data type of the cast.

targettype

The name of the target data type of the cast.

funcname(argtypes)

The function used to perform the cast. The function name may be schema-qualified. If it is not, the function will be looked up in the schema search path. The function's result data type must match the target type of the cast. Its arguments are discussed below.

WITHOUT FUNCTION

Indicates that the source type and the target type are binary compatible, so no function is required to perform the cast.

AS ASSIGNMENT

Indicates that the cast may be invoked implicitly in assignment contexts.

AS IMPLICIT

Indicates that the cast may be invoked implicitly in any context.

Cast implementation functions may have one to three arguments. The first argument type must be identical to the cast's source type. The second argument, if present, must be type `integer`; it receives the type modifier associated with the destination type, or `-1` if there is none. The third argument, if present, must be type `boolean`; it receives `true` if the cast is an explicit cast, `false` otherwise. (Bizarrely, the SQL spec demands different behaviors for explicit and implicit casts in some cases. This argument is supplied for functions that must implement such casts. It is not recommended that you design your own data types so that this matters.)

Ordinarily a cast must have different source and target data types. However, it is allowed to declare a cast with identical source and target types if it has a cast implementation function with more than one argument. This is used to represent type-specific length coercion functions in the system catalogs. The named function is used to coerce a value of the type to the type modifier value given by its second

argument. (Since the grammar presently permits only certain built-in data types to have type modifiers, this feature is of no use for user-defined target types, but we mention it for completeness.)

When a cast has different source and target types and a function that takes more than one argument, it represents converting from one type to another and applying a length coercion in a single step. When no such entry is available, coercion to a type that uses a type modifier involves two steps, one to convert between data types and a second to apply the modifier.

Notes

Use *DROP CAST* to remove user-defined casts.

Remember that if you want to be able to convert types both ways you need to declare casts both ways explicitly.

Prior to PostgreSQL 7.3, every function that had the same name as a data type, returned that data type, and took one argument of a different type was automatically a cast function. This convention has been abandoned in face of the introduction of schemas and to be able to represent binary compatible casts in the system catalogs. The built-in cast functions still follow this naming scheme, but they have to be shown as casts in the system catalog `pg_cast` as well.

While not required, it is recommended that you continue to follow this old convention of naming cast implementation functions after the target data type. Many users are used to being able to cast data types using a function-style notation, that is *typename(x)*. This notation is in fact nothing more nor less than a call of the cast implementation function; it is not specially treated as a cast. If your conversion functions are not named to support this convention then you will have surprised users. Since PostgreSQL allows overloading of the same function name with different argument types, there is no difficulty in having multiple conversion functions from different types that all use the target type's name.

Note: There is one small lie in the preceding paragraph: there is still one case in which `pg_cast` will be used to resolve the meaning of an apparent function call. If a function call *name(x)* matches no actual function, but *name* is the name of a data type and `pg_cast` shows a binary-compatible cast to this type from the type of *x*, then the call will be construed as an explicit cast. This exception is made so that binary-compatible casts can be invoked using functional syntax, even though they lack any function.

Examples

To create a cast from type `text` to type `int4` using the function `int4(text)`:

```
CREATE CAST (text AS int4) WITH FUNCTION int4(text);
```

(This cast is already predefined in the system.)

Compatibility

The `CREATE CAST` command conforms to SQL:1999, except that SQL:1999 does not make provisions for binary-compatible types or extra arguments to implementation functions. `AS IMPLICIT` is a PostgreSQL extension, too.

See Also

CREATE FUNCTION, CREATE TYPE, DROP CAST

CREATE CONSTRAINT TRIGGER

Name

CREATE CONSTRAINT TRIGGER — define a new constraint trigger

Synopsis

```
CREATE CONSTRAINT TRIGGER name
    AFTER events ON
    tablename constraint attributes
    FOR EACH ROW EXECUTE PROCEDURE funcname ( args )
```

Description

CREATE CONSTRAINT TRIGGER is used within CREATE TABLE/ALTER TABLE and by pg_dump to create the special triggers for referential integrity. It is not intended for general use.

Parameters

name

The name of the constraint trigger.

events

The event categories for which this trigger should be fired.

tablename

The name (possibly schema-qualified) of the table in which the triggering events occur.

constraint

Actual constraint specification.

attributes

The constraint attributes.

funcname(args)

The function to call as part of the trigger processing.

CREATE CONVERSION

Name

CREATE CONVERSION — define a new conversion

Synopsis

```
CREATE [DEFAULT] CONVERSION name
    FOR source_encoding TO dest_encoding FROM funcname
```

Description

CREATE CONVERSION defines a new encoding conversion. Conversion names may be used in the `convert` function to specify a particular encoding conversion. Also, conversions that are marked `DEFAULT` can be used for automatic encoding conversion between client and server. For this purpose, two conversions, from encoding A to B *and* from encoding B to A, must be defined.

To be able to create a conversion, you must have `EXECUTE` privilege on the function and `CREATE` privilege on the destination schema.

Parameters

`DEFAULT`

The `DEFAULT` clause indicates that this conversion is the default for this particular source to destination encoding. There should be only one default encoding in a schema for the encoding pair.

name

The name of the conversion. The conversion name may be schema-qualified. If it is not, the conversion is defined in the current schema. The conversion name must be unique within a schema.

source_encoding

The source encoding name.

dest_encoding

The destination encoding name.

funcname

The function used to perform the conversion. The function name may be schema-qualified. If it is not, the function will be looked up in the path.

The function must have the following signature:

```
conv_proc(
    integer, -- source encoding ID
    integer, -- destination encoding ID
    cstring, -- source string (null terminated C string)
    cstring, -- destination string (null terminated C string)
```

```
integer -- source string length  
) RETURNS void;
```

Notes

Use `DROP CONVERSION` to remove user-defined conversions.

The privileges required to create a conversion may be changed in a future release.

Examples

To create a conversion from encoding `UNICODE` to `LATIN1` using `myfunc`:

```
CREATE CONVERSION myconv FOR 'UNICODE' TO 'LATIN1' FROM myfunc;
```

Compatibility

`CREATE CONVERSION` is a PostgreSQL extension. There is no `CREATE CONVERSION` statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

ALTER CONVERSION, CREATE FUNCTION, DROP CONVERSION

CREATE DATABASE

Name

CREATE DATABASE — create a new database

Synopsis

```
CREATE DATABASE name
    [ [ WITH ] [ OWNER [=] downer ]
      [ TEMPLATE [=] template ]
      [ ENCODING [=] encoding ]
      [ TABLESPACE [=] tablespace ] ]
```

Description

CREATE DATABASE creates a new PostgreSQL database.

To create a database, you must be a superuser or have the special CREATEDB privilege. See *CREATE USER*.

Normally, the creator becomes the owner of the new database. Superusers can create databases owned by other users using the OWNER clause. They can even create databases owned by users with no special privileges. Non-superusers with CREATEDB privilege can only create databases owned by themselves.

By default, the new database will be created by cloning the standard system database `template1`. A different template can be specified by writing `TEMPLATE name`. In particular, by writing `TEMPLATE template0`, you can create a virgin database containing only the standard objects predefined by your version of PostgreSQL. This is useful if you wish to avoid copying any installation-local objects that may have been added to `template1`.

Parameters

name

The name of a database to create.

downer

The name of the database user who will own the new database, or `DEFAULT` to use the default (namely, the user executing the command).

template

The name of the template from which to create the new database, or `DEFAULT` to use the default template (`template1`).

encoding

Character set encoding to use in the new database. Specify a string constant (e.g., 'SQL_ASCII'), or an integer encoding number, or `DEFAULT` to use the default encoding. The character sets supported by the PostgreSQL server are described in Section 20.2.1.

tablespace

The name of the tablespace that will be associated with the new database, or `DEFAULT` to use the template database's tablespace. This tablespace will be the default tablespace used for objects created in this database. See *CREATE TABLESPACE* for more information.

Optional parameters can be written in any order, not only the order illustrated above.

Notes

`CREATE DATABASE` cannot be executed inside a transaction block.

Errors along the line of “could not initialize database directory” are most likely related to insufficient permissions on the data directory, a full disk, or other file system problems.

Use *DROP DATABASE* to remove a database.

The program *createdb* is a wrapper program around this command, provided for convenience.

Although it is possible to copy a database other than `template1` by specifying its name as the template, this is not (yet) intended as a general-purpose “COPY DATABASE” facility. We recommend that databases used as templates be treated as read-only. See Section 18.3 for more information.

Examples

To create a new database:

```
CREATE DATABASE lusiadas;
```

To create a database `sales` owned by user `salesapp` with a default tablespace of `salespace`:

```
CREATE DATABASE sales OWNER salesapp TABLESPACE salespace;
```

To create a database `music` which supports the ISO-8859-1 character set:

```
CREATE DATABASE music ENCODING 'LATIN1';
```

Compatibility

There is no `CREATE DATABASE` statement in the SQL standard. Databases are equivalent to catalogs, whose creation is implementation-defined.

CREATE DOMAIN

Name

CREATE DOMAIN — define a new domain

Synopsis

```
CREATE DOMAIN name [AS] data_type
    [ DEFAULT expression ]
    [ constraint [ ... ] ]

where constraint is:

[ CONSTRAINT constraint_name ]
{ NOT NULL | NULL | CHECK (expression) }
```

Description

CREATE DOMAIN creates a new data domain. The user who defines a domain becomes its owner.

If a schema name is given (for example, CREATE DOMAIN myschema.mydomain ...) then the domain is created in the specified schema. Otherwise it is created in the current schema. The domain name must be unique among the types and domains existing in its schema.

Domains are useful for abstracting common fields between tables into a single location for maintenance. For example, an email address column may be used in several tables, all with the same properties. Define a domain and use that rather than setting up each table's constraints individually.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of a domain to be created.

data_type

The underlying data type of the domain. This may include array specifiers.

DEFAULT *expression*

The DEFAULT clause specifies a default value for columns of the domain data type. The value is any variable-free expression (but subqueries are not allowed). The data type of the default expression must match the data type of the domain. If no default value is specified, then the default value is the null value.

The default expression will be used in any insert operation that does not specify a value for the column. If a default value is defined for a particular column, it overrides any default associated with the domain. In turn, the domain default overrides any default value associated with the underlying data type.

CONSTRAINT *constraint_name*

An optional name for a constraint. If not specified, the system generates a name.

NOT NULL

Values of this domain are not allowed to be null.

NULL

Values of this domain are allowed to be null. This is the default.

This clause is only intended for compatibility with nonstandard SQL databases. Its use is discouraged in new applications.

CHECK (*expression*)

CHECK clauses specify integrity constraints or tests which values of the domain must satisfy. Each constraint must be an expression producing a Boolean result. It should use the name `VALUE` to refer to the value being tested.

Currently, CHECK expressions cannot contain subqueries nor refer to variables other than `VALUE`.

Examples

This example creates the `us_postal_code` data type and then uses the type in a table definition. A regular expression test is used to verify that the value looks like a valid US postal code.

```
CREATE DOMAIN us_postal_code AS TEXT
CHECK(
    VALUE ~ '^d{5}$'
OR VALUE ~ '^d{5}-d{4}$'
);

CREATE TABLE us_snail_addy (
    address_id SERIAL NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY
, street1 TEXT NOT NULL
, street2 TEXT
, street3 TEXT
, city TEXT NOT NULL
, postal us_postal_code NOT NULL
);
```

Compatibility

The command `CREATE DOMAIN` conforms to the SQL standard.

See Also

ALTER DOMAIN, DROP DOMAIN

CREATE FUNCTION

Name

CREATE FUNCTION — define a new function

Synopsis

```
CREATE [ OR REPLACE ] FUNCTION name ( [ [ argname ] argtype [, ...] ] )
    RETURNS rettype
    { LANGUAGE langname
      | IMMUTABLE | STABLE | VOLATILE
      | CALLED ON NULL INPUT | RETURNS NULL ON NULL INPUT | STRICT
      | [ EXTERNAL ] SECURITY INVOKER | [ EXTERNAL ] SECURITY DEFINER
      | AS 'definition'
      | AS 'obj_file', 'link_symbol'
    } ...
    [ WITH ( attribute [, ...] ) ]
```

Description

CREATE FUNCTION defines a new function. CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION will either create a new function, or replace an existing definition.

If a schema name is included, then the function is created in the specified schema. Otherwise it is created in the current schema. The name of the new function must not match any existing function with the same argument types in the same schema. However, functions of different argument types may share a name (this is called *overloading*).

To update the definition of an existing function, use CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION. It is not possible to change the name or argument types of a function this way (if you tried, you would actually be creating a new, distinct function). Also, CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION will not let you change the return type of an existing function. To do that, you must drop and recreate the function.

If you drop and then recreate a function, the new function is not the same entity as the old; you will have to drop existing rules, views, triggers, etc. that refer to the old function. Use CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION to change a function definition without breaking objects that refer to the function.

The user that creates the function becomes the owner of the function.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the function to create.

argname

The name of an argument. Some languages (currently only PL/pgSQL) let you use the name in the function body. For other languages the argument name is just extra documentation.

argtype

The data type(s) of the function's arguments (optionally schema-qualified), if any. The argument types may be base, composite, or domain types, or may reference the type of a table column.

Depending on the implementation language it may also be allowed to specify "pseudotypes" such as `cstring`. Pseudotypes indicate that the actual argument type is either incompletely specified, or outside the set of ordinary SQL data types.

The type of a column is referenced by writing `tablename.columnname%TYPE`. Using this feature can sometimes help make a function independent of changes to the definition of a table.

rettype

The return data type (optionally schema-qualified). The return type may be a base, composite, or domain type, or may reference the type of a table column. Depending on the implementation language it may also be allowed to specify "pseudotypes" such as `cstring`.

The `SETOF` modifier indicates that the function will return a set of items, rather than a single item.

The type of a column is referenced by writing `tablename.columnname%TYPE`.

langname

The name of the language that the function is implemented in. May be `SQL`, `C`, `internal`, or the name of a user-defined procedural language. For backward compatibility, the name may be enclosed by single quotes.

IMMUTABLE

STABLE

VOLATILE

These attributes inform the system whether it is safe to replace multiple evaluations of the function with a single evaluation, for run-time optimization. At most one choice may be specified. If none of these appear, `VOLATILE` is the default assumption.

`IMMUTABLE` indicates that the function always returns the same result when given the same argument values; that is, it does not do database lookups or otherwise use information not directly present in its argument list. If this option is given, any call of the function with all-constant arguments can be immediately replaced with the function value.

`STABLE` indicates that within a single table scan the function will consistently return the same result for the same argument values, but that its result could change across SQL statements. This is the appropriate selection for functions whose results depend on database lookups, parameter variables (such as the current time zone), etc. Also note that the `current_timestamp` family of functions qualify as stable, since their values do not change within a transaction.

`VOLATILE` indicates that the function value can change even within a single table scan, so no optimizations can be made. Relatively few database functions are volatile in this sense; some examples are `random()`, `currval()`, `timeofday()`. Note that any function that has side-effects must be classified volatile, even if its result is quite predictable, to prevent calls from being optimized away; an example is `setval()`.

For additional details see Section 31.6.

CALLED ON NULL INPUT
 RETURNS NULL ON NULL INPUT
 STRICT

CALLED ON NULL INPUT (the default) indicates that the function will be called normally when some of its arguments are null. It is then the function author's responsibility to check for null values if necessary and respond appropriately.

RETURNS NULL ON NULL INPUT or STRICT indicates that the function always returns null whenever any of its arguments are null. If this parameter is specified, the function is not executed when there are null arguments; instead a null result is assumed automatically.

[EXTERNAL] SECURITY INVOKER
 [EXTERNAL] SECURITY DEFINER

SECURITY INVOKER indicates that the function is to be executed with the privileges of the user that calls it. That is the default. SECURITY DEFINER specifies that the function is to be executed with the privileges of the user that created it.

The key word EXTERNAL is present for SQL conformance but is optional since, unlike in SQL, this feature does not only apply to external functions.

definition

A string constant defining the function; the meaning depends on the language. It may be an internal function name, the path to an object file, an SQL command, or text in a procedural language.

obj_file, link_symbol

This form of the AS clause is used for dynamically loadable C language functions when the function name in the C language source code is not the same as the name of the SQL function. The string *obj_file* is the name of the file containing the dynamically loadable object, and *link_symbol* is the function's link symbol, that is, the name of the function in the C language source code. If the link symbol is omitted, it is assumed to be the same as the name of the SQL function being defined.

attribute

The historical way to specify optional pieces of information about the function. The following attributes may appear here:

`isStrict`

Equivalent to STRICT or RETURNS NULL ON NULL INPUT.

`isCachable`

`isCachable` is an obsolete equivalent of IMMUTABLE; it's still accepted for backwards-compatibility reasons.

Attribute names are not case-sensitive.

Notes

Refer to Section 31.3 for further information on writing functions.

The full SQL type syntax is allowed for input arguments and return value. However, some details of the type specification (e.g., the precision field for type `numeric`) are the responsibility of the underlying function implementation and are silently swallowed (i.e., not recognized or enforced) by the `CREATE FUNCTION` command.

PostgreSQL allows function *overloading*; that is, the same name can be used for several different functions so long as they have distinct argument types. However, the C names of all functions must be different, so you must give overloaded C functions different C names (for example, use the argument types as part of the C names).

When repeated `CREATE FUNCTION` calls refer to the same object file, the file is only loaded once. To unload and reload the file (perhaps during development), use the `LOAD` command.

Use `DROP FUNCTION` to remove user-defined functions.

It is often helpful to use dollar quoting (see Section 4.1.2.2) to write the function definition string, rather than the normal single quote syntax. Without dollar quoting, any single quotes or backslashes in the function definition must be escaped by doubling them.

To be able to define a function, the user must have the `USAGE` privilege on the language.

Examples

Here is a trivial example to help you get started. For more information and examples, see Section 31.3.

```
CREATE FUNCTION add(integer, integer) RETURNS integer
  AS 'select $1 + $2;'
  LANGUAGE SQL
  IMMUTABLE
  RETURNS NULL ON NULL INPUT;
```

Increment an integer, making use of an argument name, in PL/pgSQL:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION increment(i integer) RETURNS integer AS $$
  BEGIN
    RETURN i + 1;
  END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
```

Compatibility

A `CREATE FUNCTION` command is defined in SQL:1999 and later. The PostgreSQL version is similar but not fully compatible. The attributes are not portable, neither are the different available languages.

See Also

ALTER FUNCTION, DROP FUNCTION, GRANT, LOAD, REVOKE, createlang

CREATE GROUP

Name

CREATE GROUP — define a new user group

Synopsis

```
CREATE GROUP name [ [ WITH ] option [ ... ] ]
```

where *option* can be:

```
    SYSID gid  
  | USER username [ , ... ]
```

Description

CREATE GROUP will create a new group of users. You must be a database superuser to use this command.

Note that both users and groups are defined at the database cluster level, and so are valid in all databases in the cluster.

Use *ALTER GROUP* to change a group's membership, and *DROP GROUP* to remove a group.

Parameters

name

The name of the group.

gid

The SYSID clause can be used to choose the PostgreSQL group ID of the new group. This is normally not necessary, but may be useful if you need to recreate a group referenced in the permissions of some object.

If this is not specified, the highest assigned group ID plus one (with a minimum of 100) will be used as default.

username

A list of users to include in the group. The users must already exist.

Examples

Create an empty group:

```
CREATE GROUP staff;
```

Create a group with members:

```
CREATE GROUP marketing WITH USER jonathan, david;
```

Compatibility

There is no `CREATE GROUP` statement in the SQL standard. Roles are similar in concept to groups.

See Also

ALTER GROUP, DROP GROUP

CREATE INDEX

Name

CREATE INDEX — define a new index

Synopsis

```
CREATE [ UNIQUE ] INDEX name ON table [ USING method ]
    ( { column | ( expression ) } [ opclass ] [, ...] )
    [ TABLESPACE tablespace ]
    [ WHERE predicate ]
```

Description

CREATE INDEX constructs an index *index_name* on the specified table. Indexes are primarily used to enhance database performance (though inappropriate use will result in slower performance).

The key field(s) for the index are specified as column names, or alternatively as expressions written in parentheses. Multiple fields can be specified if the index method supports multicolumn indexes.

An index field can be an expression computed from the values of one or more columns of the table row. This feature can be used to obtain fast access to data based on some transformation of the basic data. For example, an index computed on `upper(col)` would allow the clause `WHERE upper(col) = 'JIM'` to use an index.

PostgreSQL provides the index methods B-tree, R-tree, hash, and GiST. The B-tree index method is an implementation of Lehman-Yao high-concurrency B-trees. The R-tree index method implements standard R-trees using Guttman's quadratic split algorithm. The hash index method is an implementation of Litwin's linear hashing. Users can also define their own index methods, but that is fairly complicated.

When the `WHERE` clause is present, a *partial index* is created. A partial index is an index that contains entries for only a portion of a table, usually a portion that is more useful for indexing than the rest of the table. For example, if you have a table that contains both billed and unbilled orders where the unbilled orders take up a small fraction of the total table and yet that is an often used section, you can improve performance by creating an index on just that portion. Another possible application is to use `WHERE` with `UNIQUE` to enforce uniqueness over a subset of a table. See Section 11.7 for more discussion.

The expression used in the `WHERE` clause may refer only to columns of the underlying table, but it can use all columns, not just the ones being indexed. Presently, subqueries and aggregate expressions are also forbidden in `WHERE`. The same restrictions apply to index fields that are expressions.

All functions and operators used in an index definition must be “immutable”, that is, their results must depend only on their arguments and never on any outside influence (such as the contents of another table or the current time). This restriction ensures that the behavior of the index is well-defined. To use a user-defined function in an index expression or `WHERE` clause, remember to mark the function immutable when you create it.

Parameters

UNIQUE

Causes the system to check for duplicate values in the table when the index is created (if data already exist) and each time data is added. Attempts to insert or update data which would result in duplicate entries will generate an error.

name

The name of the index to be created. No schema name can be included here; the index is always created in the same schema as its parent table.

table

The name (possibly schema-qualified) of the table to be indexed.

method

The name of the method to be used for the index. Choices are `btree`, `hash`, `rtree`, and `gist`. The default method is `btree`.

column

The name of a column of the table.

expression

An expression based on one or more columns of the table. The expression usually must be written with surrounding parentheses, as shown in the syntax. However, the parentheses may be omitted if the expression has the form of a function call.

opclass

The name of an operator class. See below for details.

tablespace

The tablespace in which to create the index. If not specified, `default_tablespace` is used, or the database's default tablespace if `default_tablespace` is an empty string.

predicate

The constraint expression for a partial index.

Notes

See Chapter 11 for information about when indexes can be used, when they are not used, and in which particular situations they can be useful.

Currently, only the B-tree and GiST index methods support multicolumn indexes. Up to 32 fields may be specified by default. (This limit can be altered when building PostgreSQL.) Only B-tree currently supports unique indexes.

An *operator class* can be specified for each column of an index. The operator class identifies the operators to be used by the index for that column. For example, a B-tree index on four-byte integers would use the `int4_ops` class; this operator class includes comparison functions for four-byte integers. In practice the default operator class for the column's data type is usually sufficient. The main point of having operator

classes is that for some data types, there could be more than one meaningful ordering. For example, we might want to sort a complex-number data type either by absolute value or by real part. We could do this by defining two operator classes for the data type and then selecting the proper class when making an index. More information about operator classes is in Section 11.6 and in Section 31.14.

Use *DROP INDEX* to remove an index.

Indexes are not used for `IS NULL` clauses by default. The best way to use indexes in such cases is to create a partial index using an `IS NULL` predicate.

Examples

To create a B-tree index on the column `title` in the table `films`:

```
CREATE UNIQUE INDEX title_idx ON films (title);
```

To create an index on the column `code` in the table `films` and have the index reside in the tablespace `indexspace`:

```
CREATE INDEX code_idx ON films(code) TABLESPACE indexspace;
```

Compatibility

`CREATE INDEX` is a PostgreSQL language extension. There are no provisions for indexes in the SQL standard.

See Also

ALTER INDEX, *DROP INDEX*

CREATE LANGUAGE

Name

CREATE LANGUAGE — define a new procedural language

Synopsis

```
CREATE [ TRUSTED ] [ PROCEDURAL ] LANGUAGE name
      HANDLER call_handler [ VALIDATOR valfunction ]
```

Description

Using CREATE LANGUAGE, a PostgreSQL user can register a new procedural language with a PostgreSQL database. Subsequently, functions and trigger procedures can be defined in this new language. The user must have the PostgreSQL superuser privilege to register a new language.

CREATE LANGUAGE effectively associates the language name with a call handler that is responsible for executing functions written in the language. Refer to Chapter 34 for more information about language call handlers.

Note that procedural languages are local to individual databases. To make a language available in all databases by default, it should be installed into the `template1` database.

Parameters

TRUSTED

TRUSTED specifies that the call handler for the language is safe, that is, it does not offer an unprivileged user any functionality to bypass access restrictions. If this key word is omitted when registering the language, only users with the PostgreSQL superuser privilege can use this language to create new functions.

PROCEDURAL

This is a noise word.

name

The name of the new procedural language. The language name is case insensitive. The name must be unique among the languages in the database.

For backward compatibility, the name may be enclosed by single quotes.

HANDLER *call_handler*

call_handler is the name of a previously registered function that will be called to execute the procedural language functions. The call handler for a procedural language must be written in a compiled language such as C with version 1 call convention and registered with PostgreSQL as a function taking no arguments and returning the `language_handler` type, a placeholder type that is simply used to identify the function as a call handler.

VALIDATOR *valfunction*

valfunction is the name of a previously registered function that will be called when a new function in the language is created, to validate the new function. If no validator function is specified, then a new function will not be checked when it is created. The validator function must take one argument of type `oid`, which will be the OID of the to-be-created function, and will typically return `void`.

A validator function would typically inspect the function body for syntactical correctness, but it can also look at other properties of the function, for example if the language cannot handle certain argument types. To signal an error, the validator function should use the `ereport()` function. The return value of the function is ignored.

Notes

This command normally should not be executed directly by users. For the procedural languages supplied in the PostgreSQL distribution, the `createlang` program should be used, which will also install the correct call handler. (`createlang` will call `CREATE LANGUAGE` internally.)

In PostgreSQL versions before 7.3, it was necessary to declare handler functions as returning the placeholder type `opaque`, rather than `language_handler`. To support loading of old dump files, `CREATE LANGUAGE` will accept a function declared as returning `opaque`, but it will issue a notice and change the function's declared return type to `language_handler`.

Use the `CREATE FUNCTION` command to create a new function.

Use `DROP LANGUAGE`, or better yet the `droplang` program, to drop procedural languages.

The system catalog `pg_language` (see Section 41.18) records information about the currently installed languages. Also `createlang` has an option to list the installed languages.

To be able to use a procedural language, a user must be granted the `USAGE` privilege. The `createlang` program automatically grants permissions to everyone if the language is known to be trusted.

Examples

The following two commands executed in sequence will register a new procedural language and the associated call handler.

```
CREATE FUNCTION plsample_call_handler() RETURNS language_handler
AS '$libdir/plsample'
LANGUAGE C;
CREATE LANGUAGE plsample
HANDLER plsample_call_handler;
```

Compatibility

`CREATE LANGUAGE` is a PostgreSQL extension.

See Also

ALTER LANGUAGE, CREATE FUNCTION, DROP LANGUAGE, GRANT, REVOKE, createlang, droplang

CREATE OPERATOR

Name

CREATE OPERATOR — define a new operator

Synopsis

```
CREATE OPERATOR name (  
    PROCEDURE = funcname  
    [, LEFTARG = lefttype ] [, RIGHTARG = righttype ]  
    [, COMMUTATOR = com_op ] [, NEGATOR = neg_op ]  
    [, RESTRICT = res_proc ] [, JOIN = join_proc ]  
    [, HASHES ] [, MERGES ]  
    [, SORT1 = left_sort_op ] [, SORT2 = right_sort_op ]  
    [, LTCMP = less_than_op ] [, GTCMP = greater_than_op ]  
)
```

Description

CREATE OPERATOR defines a new operator, *name*. The user who defines an operator becomes its owner. If a schema name is given then the operator is created in the specified schema. Otherwise it is created in the current schema.

The operator name is a sequence of up to NAMEDATALEN-1 (63 by default) characters from the following list:

+ - * / < > = ~ ! @ # % ^ & | ' ?

There are a few restrictions on your choice of name:

- -- and /* cannot appear anywhere in an operator name, since they will be taken as the start of a comment.
- A multicharacter operator name cannot end in + or -, unless the name also contains at least one of these characters:

~ ! @ # % ^ & | ' ?

For example, @- is an allowed operator name, but *- is not. This restriction allows PostgreSQL to parse SQL-compliant commands without requiring spaces between tokens.

The operator != is mapped to <> on input, so these two names are always equivalent.

At least one of LEFTARG and RIGHTARG must be defined. For binary operators, both must be defined. For right unary operators, only LEFTARG should be defined, while for left unary operators only RIGHTARG should be defined.

The *funcname* procedure must have been previously defined using CREATE FUNCTION and must be defined to accept the correct number of arguments (either one or two) of the indicated types.

The other clauses specify optional operator optimization clauses. Their meaning is detailed in Section 31.13.

Parameters

name

The name of the operator to be defined. See above for allowable characters. The name may be schema-qualified, for example CREATE OPERATOR myschema.+ (...). If not, then the operator is created in the current schema. Two operators in the same schema can have the same name if they operate on different data types. This is called *overloading*.

funcname

The function used to implement this operator.

lefttype

The data type of the operator's left operand, if any. This option would be omitted for a left-unity operator.

righttype

The data type of the operator's right operand, if any. This option would be omitted for a right-unity operator.

com_op

The commutator of this operator.

neg_op

The negator of this operator.

res_proc

The restriction selectivity estimator function for this operator.

join_proc

The join selectivity estimator function for this operator.

HASHES

Indicates this operator can support a hash join.

MERGES

Indicates this operator can support a merge join.

left_sort_op

If this operator can support a merge join, the less-than operator that sorts the left-hand data type of this operator.

right_sort_op

If this operator can support a merge join, the less-than operator that sorts the right-hand data type of this operator.

less_than_op

If this operator can support a merge join, the less-than operator that compares the input data types of this operator.

greater_than_op

If this operator can support a merge join, the greater-than operator that compares the input data types of this operator.

To give a schema-qualified operator name in *com_op* or the other optional arguments, use the OPERATOR() syntax, for example

```
COMMUTATOR = OPERATOR(myschema.===) ,
```

Notes

Refer to Section 31.12 for further information.

Use *DROP OPERATOR* to delete user-defined operators from a database. Use *ALTER OPERATOR* to modify operators in a database.

Examples

The following command defines a new operator, area-equality, for the data type box:

```
CREATE OPERATOR === (
  LEFTTARG = box,
  RIGHTTARG = box,
  PROCEDURE = area_equal_procedure,
  COMMUTATOR = ===,
  NEGATOR = !==,
  RESTRICT = area_restriction_procedure,
  JOIN = area_join_procedure,
  HASHES,
  SORT1 = <<<,
  SORT2 = <<<
  -- Since sort operators were given, MERGES is implied.
  -- LTCMP and GTCMP are assumed to be < and > respectively
);
```

Compatibility

`CREATE OPERATOR` is a PostgreSQL extension. There are no provisions for user-defined operators in the SQL standard.

See Also

ALTER OPERATOR, CREATE OPERATOR CLASS, DROP OPERATOR

CREATE OPERATOR CLASS

Name

CREATE OPERATOR CLASS — define a new operator class

Synopsis

```
CREATE OPERATOR CLASS name [ DEFAULT ] FOR TYPE data_type USING index_method AS
  { OPERATOR strategy_number operator_name [ ( op_type, op_type ) ] [ RECHECK ]
    | FUNCTION support_number funcname ( argument_type [, ...] )
    | STORAGE storage_type
  } [, ... ]
```

Description

CREATE OPERATOR CLASS creates a new operator class. An operator class defines how a particular data type can be used with an index. The operator class specifies that certain operators will fill particular roles or “strategies” for this data type and this index method. The operator class also specifies the support procedures to be used by the index method when the operator class is selected for an index column. All the operators and functions used by an operator class must be defined before the operator class is created.

If a schema name is given then the operator class is created in the specified schema. Otherwise it is created in the current schema. Two operator classes in the same schema can have the same name only if they are for different index methods.

The user who defines an operator class becomes its owner. Presently, the creating user must be a superuser. (This restriction is made because an erroneous operator class definition could confuse or even crash the server.)

CREATE OPERATOR CLASS does not presently check whether the operator class definition includes all the operators and functions required by the index method. It is the user’s responsibility to define a valid operator class.

Refer to Section 31.14 for further information.

Parameters

name

The name of the operator class to be created. The name may be schema-qualified.

DEFAULT

If present, the operator class will become the default operator class for its data type. At most one operator class can be the default for a specific data type and index method.

data_type

The column data type that this operator class is for.

index_method

The name of the index method this operator class is for.

strategy_number

The index method's strategy number for an operator associated with the operator class.

operator_name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an operator associated with the operator class.

op_type

The operand data type(s) of an operator, or NONE to signify a left-unary or right-unary operator. The operand data types may be omitted in the normal case where they are the same as the operator class's data type.

RECHECK

If present, the index is "lossy" for this operator, and so the rows retrieved using the index must be rechecked to verify that they actually satisfy the qualification clause involving this operator.

support_number

The index method's support procedure number for a function associated with the operator class.

funcname

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of a function that is an index method support procedure for the operator class.

argument_types

The parameter data type(s) of the function.

storage_type

The data type actually stored in the index. Normally this is the same as the column data type, but some index methods (only GiST at this writing) allow it to be different. The STORAGE clause must be omitted unless the index method allows a different type to be used.

The OPERATOR, FUNCTION, and STORAGE clauses may appear in any order.

Notes

The operators should not be defined by SQL functions. A SQL function is likely to be inlined into the calling query, which will prevent the optimizer from recognizing that the query matches an index.

Examples

The following example command defines a GiST index operator class for the data type `_int4` (array of `int4`). See `contrib/intarray/` for the complete example.

```
CREATE OPERATOR CLASS gist__int_ops
  DEFAULT FOR TYPE _int4 USING gist AS
  OPERATOR          3          &&
```

CREATE OPERATOR CLASS

```
OPERATOR      6      =      RECHECK,
OPERATOR      7      @,
OPERATOR      8      ~,
OPERATOR      20     @@ (_int4, query_int),
FUNCTION      1      g_int_consistent (internal, _int4, int4),
FUNCTION      2      g_int_union (bytea, internal),
FUNCTION      3      g_int_compress (internal),
FUNCTION      4      g_int_decompress (internal),
FUNCTION      5      g_int_penalty (internal, internal, internal),
FUNCTION      6      g_int_picksplit (internal, internal),
FUNCTION      7      g_int_same (_int4, _int4, internal);
```

Compatibility

CREATE OPERATOR CLASS is a PostgreSQL extension. There is no CREATE OPERATOR CLASS statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

ALTER OPERATOR CLASS, DROP OPERATOR CLASS

CREATE RULE

Name

CREATE RULE — define a new rewrite rule

Synopsis

```
CREATE [ OR REPLACE ] RULE name AS ON event
    TO table [ WHERE condition ]
    DO [ ALSO | INSTEAD ] { NOTHING | command | ( command ; command ... ) }
```

Description

CREATE RULE defines a new rule applying to a specified table or view. CREATE OR REPLACE RULE will either create a new rule, or replace an existing rule of the same name for the same table.

The PostgreSQL rule system allows one to define an alternate action to be performed on insertions, updates, or deletions in database tables. Roughly speaking, a rule causes additional commands to be executed when a given command on a given table is executed. Alternatively, an INSTEAD rule can replace a given command by another, or cause a command not to be executed at all. Rules are used to implement table views as well. It is important to realize that a rule is really a command transformation mechanism, or command macro. The transformation happens before the execution of the commands starts. If you actually want an operation that fires independently for each physical row, you probably want to use a trigger, not a rule. More information about the rules system is in Chapter 33.

Presently, ON SELECT rules must be unconditional INSTEAD rules and must have actions that consist of a single SELECT command. Thus, an ON SELECT rule effectively turns the table into a view, whose visible contents are the rows returned by the rule's SELECT command rather than whatever had been stored in the table (if anything). It is considered better style to write a CREATE VIEW command than to create a real table and define an ON SELECT rule for it.

You can create the illusion of an updatable view by defining ON INSERT, ON UPDATE, and ON DELETE rules (or any subset of those that's sufficient for your purposes) to replace update actions on the view with appropriate updates on other tables.

There is a catch if you try to use conditional rules for view updates: there *must* be an unconditional INSTEAD rule for each action you wish to allow on the view. If the rule is conditional, or is not INSTEAD, then the system will still reject attempts to perform the update action, because it thinks it might end up trying to perform the action on the dummy table of the view in some cases. If you want to handle all the useful cases in conditional rules, add an unconditional DO INSTEAD NOTHING rule to ensure that the system understands it will never be called on to update the dummy table. Then make the conditional rules non-INSTEAD; in the cases where they are applied, they add to the default INSTEAD NOTHING action.

Parameters

name

The name of a rule to create. This must be distinct from the name of any other rule for the same table. Multiple rules on the same table and same event type are applied in alphabetical name order.

event

The event is one of SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE.

table

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the table or view the rule applies to.

condition

Any SQL conditional expression (returning `boolean`). The condition expression may not refer to any tables except NEW and OLD, and may not contain aggregate functions.

INSTEAD

INSTEAD indicates that the commands should be executed *instead of* the original command.

ALSO

ALSO indicates that the commands should be executed *in addition to* the original command.

If neither ALSO nor INSTEAD is specified, ALSO is the default.

command

The command or commands that make up the rule action. Valid commands are SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, or NOTIFY.

Within *condition* and *command*, the special table names NEW and OLD may be used to refer to values in the referenced table. NEW is valid in ON INSERT and ON UPDATE rules to refer to the new row being inserted or updated. OLD is valid in ON UPDATE and ON DELETE rules to refer to the existing row being updated or deleted.

Notes

You must have the privilege RULE on a table to be allowed to define a rule on it.

It is very important to take care to avoid circular rules. For example, though each of the following two rule definitions are accepted by PostgreSQL, the SELECT command would cause PostgreSQL to report an error because the query cycled too many times:

```
CREATE RULE "_RETURN" AS
  ON SELECT TO t1
  DO INSTEAD
    SELECT * FROM t2;

CREATE RULE "_RETURN" AS
  ON SELECT TO t2
  DO INSTEAD
    SELECT * FROM t1;
```

```
SELECT * FROM t1;
```

Presently, if a rule action contains a `NOTIFY` command, the `NOTIFY` command will be executed unconditionally, that is, the `NOTIFY` will be issued even if there are not any rows that the rule should apply to. For example, in

```
CREATE RULE notify_me AS ON UPDATE TO mytable DO ALSO NOTIFY mytable;
```

```
UPDATE mytable SET name = 'foo' WHERE id = 42;
```

one `NOTIFY` event will be sent during the `UPDATE`, whether or not there are any rows that match the condition `id = 42`. This is an implementation restriction that may be fixed in future releases.

Compatibility

`CREATE RULE` is a PostgreSQL language extension, as is the entire query rewrite system.

CREATE SCHEMA

Name

CREATE SCHEMA — define a new schema

Synopsis

```
CREATE SCHEMA schemaname [ AUTHORIZATION username ] [ schema_element [ ... ] ]  
CREATE SCHEMA AUTHORIZATION username [ schema_element [ ... ] ]
```

Description

CREATE SCHEMA enters a new schema into the current database. The schema name must be distinct from the name of any existing schema in the current database.

A schema is essentially a namespace: it contains named objects (tables, data types, functions, and operators) whose names may duplicate those of other objects existing in other schemas. Named objects are accessed either by “qualifying” their names with the schema name as a prefix, or by setting a search path that includes the desired schema(s). A CREATE command specifying an unqualified object name creates the object in the current schema (the one at the front of the search path, which can be determined with the function `current_schema`).

Optionally, CREATE SCHEMA can include subcommands to create objects within the new schema. The subcommands are treated essentially the same as separate commands issued after creating the schema, except that if the AUTHORIZATION clause is used, all the created objects will be owned by that user.

Parameters

schemaname

The name of a schema to be created. If this is omitted, the user name is used as the schema name. The name cannot begin with `pg_`, as such names are reserved for system schemas.

username

The name of the user who will own the schema. If omitted, defaults to the user executing the command. Only superusers may create schemas owned by users other than themselves.

schema_element

An SQL statement defining an object to be created within the schema. Currently, only CREATE TABLE, CREATE VIEW, CREATE INDEX, CREATE SEQUENCE, CREATE TRIGGER and GRANT are accepted as clauses within CREATE SCHEMA. Other kinds of objects may be created in separate commands after the schema is created.

Notes

To create a schema, the invoking user must have the `CREATE` privilege for the current database. (Of course, superusers bypass this check.)

Examples

Create a schema:

```
CREATE SCHEMA myschema;
```

Create a schema for user `joe`; the schema will also be named `joe`:

```
CREATE SCHEMA AUTHORIZATION joe;
```

Create a schema and create a table and view within it:

```
CREATE SCHEMA hollywood
    CREATE TABLE films (title text, release date, awards text[])
    CREATE VIEW winners AS
        SELECT title, release FROM films WHERE awards IS NOT NULL;
```

Notice that the individual subcommands do not end with semicolons.

The following is an equivalent way of accomplishing the same result:

```
CREATE SCHEMA hollywood;
CREATE TABLE hollywood.films (title text, release date, awards text[]);
CREATE VIEW hollywood.winners AS
    SELECT title, release FROM hollywood.films WHERE awards IS NOT NULL;
```

Compatibility

The SQL standard allows a `DEFAULT CHARACTER SET` clause in `CREATE SCHEMA`, as well as more subcommand types than are presently accepted by PostgreSQL.

The SQL standard specifies that the subcommands in `CREATE SCHEMA` may appear in any order. The present PostgreSQL implementation does not handle all cases of forward references in subcommands; it may sometimes be necessary to reorder the subcommands in order to avoid forward references.

According to the SQL standard, the owner of a schema always owns all objects within it. PostgreSQL allows schemas to contain objects owned by users other than the schema owner. This can happen only if the schema owner grants the `CREATE` privilege on his schema to someone else.

See Also

ALTER SCHEMA, DROP SCHEMA

CREATE SEQUENCE

Name

CREATE SEQUENCE — define a new sequence generator

Synopsis

```
CREATE [ TEMPORARY | TEMP ] SEQUENCE name [ INCREMENT [ BY ] increment ]
      [ MINVALUE minvalue | NO MINVALUE ] [ MAXVALUE maxvalue | NO MAXVALUE ]
      [ START [ WITH ] start ] [ CACHE cache ] [ [ NO ] CYCLE ]
```

Description

CREATE SEQUENCE creates a new sequence number generator. This involves creating and initializing a new special single-row table with the name *name*. The generator will be owned by the user issuing the command.

If a schema name is given then the sequence is created in the specified schema. Otherwise it is created in the current schema. Temporary sequences exist in a special schema, so a schema name may not be given when creating a temporary sequence. The sequence name must be distinct from the name of any other sequence, table, index, or view in the same schema.

After a sequence is created, you use the functions `nextval`, `currval`, and `setval` to operate on the sequence. These functions are documented in Section 9.12.

Although you cannot update a sequence directly, you can use a query like

```
SELECT * FROM name;
```

to examine the parameters and current state of a sequence. In particular, the `last_value` field of the sequence shows the last value allocated by any session. (Of course, this value may be obsolete by the time it's printed, if other sessions are actively doing `nextval` calls.)

Parameters

TEMPORARY or TEMP

If specified, the sequence object is created only for this session, and is automatically dropped on session exit. Existing permanent sequences with the same name are not visible (in this session) while the temporary sequence exists, unless they are referenced with schema-qualified names.

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the sequence to be created.

increment

The optional clause `INCREMENT BY increment` specifies which value is added to the current sequence value to create a new value. A positive value will make an ascending sequence, a negative one a descending sequence. The default value is 1.

minvalue

`NO MINVALUE`

The optional clause `MINVALUE minvalue` determines the minimum value a sequence can generate. If this clause is not supplied or `NO MINVALUE` is specified, then defaults will be used. The defaults are 1 and $-2^{63}-1$ for ascending and descending sequences, respectively.

maxvalue

`NO MAXVALUE`

The optional clause `MAXVALUE maxvalue` determines the maximum value for the sequence. If this clause is not supplied or `NO MAXVALUE` is specified, then default values will be used. The defaults are $2^{63}-1$ and -1 for ascending and descending sequences, respectively.

start

The optional clause `START WITH start` allows the sequence to begin anywhere. The default starting value is *minvalue* for ascending sequences and *maxvalue* for descending ones.

cache

The optional clause `CACHE cache` specifies how many sequence numbers are to be preallocated and stored in memory for faster access. The minimum value is 1 (only one value can be generated at a time, i.e., no cache), and this is also the default.

`CYCLE`

`NO CYCLE`

The `CYCLE` option allows the sequence to wrap around when the *maxvalue* or *minvalue* has been reached by an ascending or descending sequence respectively. If the limit is reached, the next number generated will be the *minvalue* or *maxvalue*, respectively.

If `NO CYCLE` is specified, any calls to `nextval` after the sequence has reached its maximum value will return an error. If neither `CYCLE` or `NO CYCLE` are specified, `NO CYCLE` is the default.

Notes

Use `DROP SEQUENCE` to remove a sequence.

Sequences are based on `bigint` arithmetic, so the range cannot exceed the range of an eight-byte integer (-9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807). On some older platforms, there may be no compiler support for eight-byte integers, in which case sequences use regular `integer` arithmetic (range -2147483648 to +2147483647).

Unexpected results may be obtained if a *cache* setting greater than one is used for a sequence object that will be used concurrently by multiple sessions. Each session will allocate and cache successive sequence values during one access to the sequence object and increase the sequence object's `last_value` accordingly. Then, the next *cache*-1 uses of `nextval` within that session simply return the preallocated values

without touching the sequence object. So, any numbers allocated but not used within a session will be lost when that session ends, resulting in “holes” in the sequence.

Furthermore, although multiple sessions are guaranteed to allocate distinct sequence values, the values may be generated out of sequence when all the sessions are considered. For example, with a *cache* setting of 10, session A might reserve values 1..10 and return `nextval=1`, then session B might reserve values 11..20 and return `nextval=11` before session A has generated `nextval=2`. Thus, with a *cache* setting of one it is safe to assume that `nextval` values are generated sequentially; with a *cache* setting greater than one you should only assume that the `nextval` values are all distinct, not that they are generated purely sequentially. Also, `last_value` will reflect the latest value reserved by any session, whether or not it has yet been returned by `nextval`.

Another consideration is that a `setval` executed on such a sequence will not be noticed by other sessions until they have used up any preallocated values they have cached.

Examples

Create an ascending sequence called `serial`, starting at 101:

```
CREATE SEQUENCE serial START 101;
```

Select the next number from this sequence:

```
SELECT nextval('serial');
```

```
nextval
-----
      114
```

Use this sequence in an `INSERT` command:

```
INSERT INTO distributors VALUES (nextval('serial'), 'nothing');
```

Update the sequence value after a `COPY FROM`:

```
BEGIN;
COPY distributors FROM 'input_file';
SELECT setval('serial', max(id)) FROM distributors;
END;
```

Compatibility

`CREATE SEQUENCE` is specified in SQL:2003. PostgreSQL conforms with the standard, with the following exceptions:

- The standard's `AS <data type>` expression is not supported.
- Obtaining the next value is done using the `nextval()` function instead of the standard's `NEXT VALUE FOR` expression.

CREATE TABLE

Name

CREATE TABLE — define a new table

Synopsis

```
CREATE [ [ GLOBAL | LOCAL ] { TEMPORARY | TEMP } ] TABLE table_name (
    { column_name data_type [ DEFAULT default_expr ] [ column_constraint [ ... ] ]
      | table_constraint
      | LIKE parent_table [ { INCLUDING | EXCLUDING } DEFAULTS ] } [, ... ]
)
[ INHERITS ( parent_table [, ... ] ) ]
[ WITH OIDS | WITHOUT OIDS ]
[ ON COMMIT { PRESERVE ROWS | DELETE ROWS | DROP } ]
[ TABLESPACE tablespace ]
```

where *column_constraint* is:

```
[ CONSTRAINT constraint_name ]
{ NOT NULL |
  NULL |
  UNIQUE [ USING INDEX TABLESPACE tablespace ] |
  PRIMARY KEY [ USING INDEX TABLESPACE tablespace ] |
  CHECK (expression) |
  REFERENCES reftable [ ( refcolumn ) ] [ MATCH FULL | MATCH PARTIAL | MATCH SIMPLE ]
    [ ON DELETE action ] [ ON UPDATE action ] }
[ DEFERRABLE | NOT DEFERRABLE ] [ INITIALLY DEFERRED | INITIALLY IMMEDIATE ]
```

and *table_constraint* is:

```
[ CONSTRAINT constraint_name ]
{ UNIQUE ( column_name [, ... ] ) [ USING INDEX TABLESPACE tablespace ] |
  PRIMARY KEY ( column_name [, ... ] ) [ USING INDEX TABLESPACE tablespace ] |
  CHECK ( expression ) |
  FOREIGN KEY ( column_name [, ... ] ) REFERENCES reftable [ ( refcolumn [, ... ] ) ]
    [ MATCH FULL | MATCH PARTIAL | MATCH SIMPLE ] [ ON DELETE action ] [ ON UPDATE action ] }
[ DEFERRABLE | NOT DEFERRABLE ] [ INITIALLY DEFERRED | INITIALLY IMMEDIATE ]
```

Description

CREATE TABLE will create a new, initially empty table in the current database. The table will be owned by the user issuing the command.

If a schema name is given (for example, CREATE TABLE myschema.mytable ...) then the table is created in the specified schema. Otherwise it is created in the current schema. Temporary tables exist in a special schema, so a schema name may not be given when creating a temporary table. The table name must be distinct from the name of any other table, sequence, index, or view in the same schema.

CREATE TABLE also automatically creates a data type that represents the composite type corresponding to one row of the table. Therefore, tables cannot have the same name as any existing data type in the same schema.

The optional constraint clauses specify constraints (tests) that new or updated rows must satisfy for an insert or update operation to succeed. A constraint is an SQL object that helps define the set of valid values in the table in various ways.

There are two ways to define constraints: table constraints and column constraints. A column constraint is defined as part of a column definition. A table constraint definition is not tied to a particular column, and it can encompass more than one column. Every column constraint can also be written as a table constraint; a column constraint is only a notational convenience for use when the constraint only affects one column.

Parameters

TEMPORARY or TEMP

If specified, the table is created as a temporary table. Temporary tables are automatically dropped at the end of a session, or optionally at the end of the current transaction (see ON COMMIT below). Existing permanent tables with the same name are not visible to the current session while the temporary table exists, unless they are referenced with schema-qualified names. Any indexes created on a temporary table are automatically temporary as well.

Optionally, GLOBAL or LOCAL can be written before TEMPORARY or TEMP. This makes no difference in PostgreSQL, but see *Compatibility*.

table_name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the table to be created.

column_name

The name of a column to be created in the new table.

data_type

The data type of the column. This may include array specifiers. For more information on the data types supported by PostgreSQL, refer to Chapter 8.

DEFAULT *default_expr*

The DEFAULT clause assigns a default data value for the column whose column definition it appears within. The value is any variable-free expression (subqueries and cross-references to other columns in the current table are not allowed). The data type of the default expression must match the data type of the column.

The default expression will be used in any insert operation that does not specify a value for the column. If there is no default for a column, then the default is null.

INHERITS (*parent_table* [, ...])

The optional INHERITS clause specifies a list of tables from which the new table automatically inherits all columns.

Use of INHERITS creates a persistent relationship between the new child table and its parent table(s). Schema modifications to the parent(s) normally propagate to children as well, and by default the data of the child table is included in scans of the parent(s).

If the same column name exists in more than one parent table, an error is reported unless the data types of the columns match in each of the parent tables. If there is no conflict, then the duplicate columns are merged to form a single column in the new table. If the column name list of the new table contains a column name that is also inherited, the data type must likewise match the inherited column(s), and the column definitions are merged into one. However, inherited and new column declarations of the same name need not specify identical constraints: all constraints provided from any declaration are merged together and all are applied to the new table. If the new table explicitly specifies a default value for the column, this default overrides any defaults from inherited declarations of the column. Otherwise, any parents that specify default values for the column must all specify the same default, or an error will be reported.

`LIKE parent_table [{ INCLUDING | EXCLUDING } DEFAULTS]`

The `LIKE` clause specifies a table from which the new table automatically copies all column names, their data types, and their not-null constraints.

Unlike `INHERITS`, the new table and original table are completely decoupled after creation is complete. Changes to the original table will not be applied to the new table, and it is not possible to include data of the new table in scans of the original table.

Default expressions for the copied column definitions will only be copied if `INCLUDING DEFAULTS` is specified. The default behavior is to exclude default expressions, resulting in all columns of the new table having null defaults.

`WITH OIDS`

`WITHOUT OIDS`

This optional clause specifies whether rows of the new table should have OIDs (object identifiers) assigned to them. If neither `WITH OIDS` nor `WITHOUT OIDS` is specified, the default value depends upon the `default_with_oids` configuration parameter. (If the new table inherits from any tables that have OIDs, then `WITH OIDS` is forced even if the command says `WITHOUT OIDS`.)

If `WITHOUT OIDS` is specified or implied, the new table does not store OIDs and no OID will be assigned for a row inserted into it. This is generally considered worthwhile, since it will reduce OID consumption and thereby postpone the wraparound of the 32-bit OID counter. Once the counter wraps around, OIDs can no longer be assumed to be unique, which makes them considerably less useful. In addition, excluding OIDs from a table reduces the space required to store the table on disk by 4 bytes per row (on most machines), slightly improving performance.

To remove OIDs from a table after it has been created, use `ALTER TABLE`.

`CONSTRAINT constraint_name`

An optional name for a column or table constraint. If not specified, the system generates a name.

`NOT NULL`

The column is not allowed to contain null values.

`NULL`

The column is allowed to contain null values. This is the default.

This clause is only provided for compatibility with non-standard SQL databases. Its use is discouraged in new applications.

UNIQUE (column constraint)

UNIQUE (*column_name* [, ...]) (table constraint)

The UNIQUE constraint specifies that a group of one or more columns of a table may contain only unique values. The behavior of the unique table constraint is the same as that for column constraints, with the additional capability to span multiple columns.

For the purpose of a unique constraint, null values are not considered equal.

Each unique table constraint must name a set of columns that is different from the set of columns named by any other unique or primary key constraint defined for the table. (Otherwise it would just be the same constraint listed twice.)

PRIMARY KEY (column constraint)

PRIMARY KEY (*column_name* [, ...]) (table constraint)

The primary key constraint specifies that a column or columns of a table may contain only unique (non-duplicate), nonnull values. Technically, PRIMARY KEY is merely a combination of UNIQUE and NOT NULL, but identifying a set of columns as primary key also provides metadata about the design of the schema, as a primary key implies that other tables may rely on this set of columns as a unique identifier for rows.

Only one primary key can be specified for a table, whether as a column constraint or a table constraint.

The primary key constraint should name a set of columns that is different from other sets of columns named by any unique constraint defined for the same table.

CHECK (*expression*)

The CHECK clause specifies an expression producing a Boolean result which new or updated rows must satisfy for an insert or update operation to succeed. Expressions evaluating to TRUE or UNKNOWN succeed. Should any row of an insert or update operation produce a FALSE result an error exception is raised and the insert or update does not alter the database. A check constraint specified as a column constraint should reference that column's value only, while an expression appearing in a table constraint may reference multiple columns.

Currently, CHECK expressions cannot contain subqueries nor refer to variables other than columns of the current row.

REFERENCES *reftable* [(*refcolumn*)] [MATCH *matchtype*] [ON DELETE *action*] [ON UPDATE *action*] (column constraint)

FOREIGN KEY (*column* [, ...]) REFERENCES *reftable* [(*refcolumn* [, ...])] [MATCH *matchtype*] [ON DELETE *action*] [ON UPDATE *action*] (table constraint)

These clauses specify a foreign key constraint, which requires that a group of one or more columns of the new table must only contain values that match values in the referenced column(s) of some row of the referenced table. If *refcolumn* is omitted, the primary key of the *reftable* is used. The referenced columns must be the columns of a unique or primary key constraint in the referenced table.

A value inserted into the referencing column(s) is matched against the values of the referenced table and referenced columns using the given match type. There are three match types: MATCH FULL, MATCH PARTIAL, and MATCH SIMPLE, which is also the default. MATCH FULL will not allow one column of a multicolumn foreign key to be null unless all foreign key columns are null. MATCH SIMPLE allows some foreign key columns to be null while other parts of the foreign key are not null. MATCH PARTIAL is not yet implemented.

In addition, when the data in the referenced columns is changed, certain actions are performed on the data in this table's columns. The `ON DELETE` clause specifies the action to perform when a referenced row in the referenced table is being deleted. Likewise, the `ON UPDATE` clause specifies the action to perform when a referenced column in the referenced table is being updated to a new value. If the row is updated, but the referenced column is not actually changed, no action is done. Referential actions other than the `NO ACTION` check cannot be deferred, even if the constraint is declared deferrable. There are the following possible actions for each clause:

`NO ACTION`

Produce an error indicating that the deletion or update would create a foreign key constraint violation. If the constraint is deferred, this error will be produced at constraint check time if there still exist any referencing rows. This is the default action.

`RESTRICT`

Produce an error indicating that the deletion or update would create a foreign key constraint violation. This is the same as `NO ACTION` except that the check is not deferrable.

`CASCADE`

Delete any rows referencing the deleted row, or update the value of the referencing column to the new value of the referenced column, respectively.

`SET NULL`

Set the referencing column(s) to null.

`SET DEFAULT`

Set the referencing column(s) to their default values.

If the referenced column(s) are changed frequently, it may be wise to add an index to the foreign key column so that referential actions associated with the foreign key column can be performed more efficiently.

`DEFERRABLE``NOT DEFERRABLE`

This controls whether the constraint can be deferred. A constraint that is not deferrable will be checked immediately after every command. Checking of constraints that are deferrable may be postponed until the end of the transaction (using the `SET CONSTRAINTS` command). `NOT DEFERRABLE` is the default. Only foreign key constraints currently accept this clause. All other constraint types are not deferrable.

`INITIALLY IMMEDIATE``INITIALLY DEFERRED`

If a constraint is deferrable, this clause specifies the default time to check the constraint. If the constraint is `INITIALLY IMMEDIATE`, it is checked after each statement. This is the default. If the constraint is `INITIALLY DEFERRED`, it is checked only at the end of the transaction. The constraint check time can be altered with the `SET CONSTRAINTS` command.

ON COMMIT

The behavior of temporary tables at the end of a transaction block can be controlled using ON COMMIT. The three options are:

PRESERVE ROWS

No special action is taken at the ends of transactions. This is the default behavior.

DELETE ROWS

All rows in the temporary table will be deleted at the end of each transaction block. Essentially, an automatic TRUNCATE is done at each commit.

DROP

The temporary table will be dropped at the end of the current transaction block.

TABLESPACE *tablespace*

The *tablespace* is the name of the tablespace in which the new table is to be created. If not specified, *default_tablespace* is used, or the database's default tablespace if *default_tablespace* is an empty string.

USING INDEX TABLESPACE *tablespace*

This clause allows selection of the tablespace in which the index associated with a UNIQUE or PRIMARY KEY constraint will be created. If not specified, *default_tablespace* is used, or the database's default tablespace if *default_tablespace* is an empty string.

Notes

Using OIDs in new applications is not recommended: where possible, using a SERIAL or other sequence generator as the table's primary key is preferred. However, if your application does make use of OIDs to identify specific rows of a table, it is recommended to create a unique constraint on the `oid` column of that table, to ensure that OIDs in the table will indeed uniquely identify rows even after counter wraparound. Avoid assuming that OIDs are unique across tables; if you need a database-wide unique identifier, use the combination of `tableoid` and row OID for the purpose.

Tip: The use of `WITHOUT OIDS` is not recommended for tables with no primary key, since without either an OID or a unique data key, it is difficult to identify specific rows.

PostgreSQL automatically creates an index for each unique constraint and primary key constraint to enforce uniqueness. Thus, it is not necessary to create an index explicitly for primary key columns. (See *CREATE INDEX* for more information.)

Unique constraints and primary keys are not inherited in the current implementation. This makes the combination of inheritance and unique constraints rather dysfunctional.

A table cannot have more than 1600 columns. (In practice, the effective limit is lower because of tuple-length constraints.)

Examples

Create table `films` and table `distributors`:

```
CREATE TABLE films (
    code          char(5) CONSTRAINT firstkey PRIMARY KEY,
    title         varchar(40) NOT NULL,
    did           integer NOT NULL,
    date_prod    date,
    kind          varchar(10),
    len           interval hour to minute
);

CREATE TABLE distributors (
    did          integer PRIMARY KEY DEFAULT nextval('serial'),
    name         varchar(40) NOT NULL CHECK (name <> "")
);
```

Create a table with a 2-dimensional array:

```
CREATE TABLE array_int (
    vector       int[][]
);
```

Define a unique table constraint for the table `films`. Unique table constraints can be defined on one or more columns of the table.

```
CREATE TABLE films (
    code          char(5),
    title         varchar(40),
    did           integer,
    date_prod    date,
    kind          varchar(10),
    len           interval hour to minute,
    CONSTRAINT production UNIQUE(date_prod)
);
```

Define a check column constraint:

```
CREATE TABLE distributors (
    did          integer CHECK (did > 100),
    name         varchar(40)
);
```

Define a check table constraint:

```
CREATE TABLE distributors (
    did      integer,
    name     varchar(40)
    CONSTRAINT con1 CHECK (did > 100 AND name <> "")
);
```

Define a primary key table constraint for the table `films`. Primary key table constraints can be defined on one or more columns of the table.

```
CREATE TABLE films (
    code      char(5),
    title     varchar(40),
    did       integer,
    date_prod date,
    kind      varchar(10),
    len       interval hour to minute,
    CONSTRAINT code_title PRIMARY KEY(code,title)
);
```

Define a primary key constraint for table `distributors`. The following two examples are equivalent, the first using the table constraint syntax, the second the column constraint syntax.

```
CREATE TABLE distributors (
    did      integer,
    name     varchar(40),
    PRIMARY KEY(did)
);

CREATE TABLE distributors (
    did      integer PRIMARY KEY,
    name     varchar(40)
);
```

This assigns a literal constant default value for the column `name`, arranges for the default value of column `did` to be generated by selecting the next value of a sequence object, and makes the default value of `modtime` be the time at which the row is inserted.

```
CREATE TABLE distributors (
    name     varchar(40) DEFAULT 'Luso Films',
    did      integer DEFAULT nextval('distributors_serial'),
    modtime  timestamp DEFAULT current_timestamp
);
```

Define two NOT NULL column constraints on the table `distributors`, one of which is explicitly given a name:

```
CREATE TABLE distributors (
    did      integer CONSTRAINT no_null NOT NULL,
    name     varchar(40) NOT NULL
);
```

Define a unique constraint for the name column:

```
CREATE TABLE distributors (
    did      integer,
    name     varchar(40) UNIQUE
);
```

The above is equivalent to the following specified as a table constraint:

```
CREATE TABLE distributors (
    did      integer,
    name     varchar(40),
    UNIQUE(name)
);
```

Create table `cinemas` in tablespace `diskvoll1`:

```
CREATE TABLE cinemas (
    id serial,
    name text,
    location text
) TABLESPACE diskvoll1;
```

Compatibility

The `CREATE TABLE` command conforms to SQL-92 and to a subset of SQL:1999, with exceptions listed below.

Temporary Tables

Although the syntax of `CREATE TEMPORARY TABLE` resembles that of the SQL standard, the effect is not the same. In the standard, temporary tables are defined just once and automatically exist (starting with empty contents) in every session that needs them. PostgreSQL instead requires each session to issue its own `CREATE TEMPORARY TABLE` command for each temporary table to be used. This allows different sessions to use the same temporary table name for different purposes, whereas the standard's approach constrains all instances of a given temporary table name to have the same table structure.

The standard's definition of the behavior of temporary tables is widely ignored. PostgreSQL's behavior on this point is similar to that of several other SQL databases.

The standard's distinction between global and local temporary tables is not in PostgreSQL, since that distinction depends on the concept of modules, which PostgreSQL does not have. For compatibility's

sake, PostgreSQL will accept the `GLOBAL` and `LOCAL` keywords in a temporary table declaration, but they have no effect.

The `ON COMMIT` clause for temporary tables also resembles the SQL standard, but has some differences. If the `ON COMMIT` clause is omitted, SQL specifies that the default behavior is `ON COMMIT DELETE ROWS`. However, the default behavior in PostgreSQL is `ON COMMIT PRESERVE ROWS`. The `ON COMMIT DROP` option does not exist in SQL.

Column Check Constraints

The SQL standard says that `CHECK` column constraints may only refer to the column they apply to; only `CHECK` table constraints may refer to multiple columns. PostgreSQL does not enforce this restriction; it treats column and table check constraints alike.

NULL “Constraint”

The `NULL` “constraint” (actually a non-constraint) is a PostgreSQL extension to the SQL standard that is included for compatibility with some other database systems (and for symmetry with the `NOT NULL` constraint). Since it is the default for any column, its presence is simply noise.

Inheritance

Multiple inheritance via the `INHERITS` clause is a PostgreSQL language extension. SQL:1999 (but not SQL-92) defines single inheritance using a different syntax and different semantics. SQL:1999-style inheritance is not yet supported by PostgreSQL.

Object IDs

The PostgreSQL concept of OIDs is not standard.

Zero-column tables

PostgreSQL allows a table of no columns to be created (for example, `CREATE TABLE foo();`). This is an extension from the SQL standard, which does not allow zero-column tables. Zero-column tables are not in themselves very useful, but disallowing them creates odd special cases for `ALTER TABLE DROP COLUMN`, so it seems cleaner to ignore this spec restriction.

Tablespaces

The PostgreSQL concept of tablespaces is not part of the standard. Hence, the clauses `TABLESPACE` and `USING INDEX TABLESPACE` are extensions.

See Also

ALTER TABLE, DROP TABLE, CREATE TABLESPACE

CREATE TABLE AS

Name

CREATE TABLE AS — define a new table from the results of a query

Synopsis

```
CREATE [ [ GLOBAL | LOCAL ] { TEMPORARY | TEMP } ] TABLE table_name [ (column_name [, . . . ] ) ]  
AS query
```

Description

CREATE TABLE AS creates a table and fills it with data computed by a SELECT command or an EXECUTE that runs a prepared SELECT command. The table columns have the names and data types associated with the output columns of the SELECT (except that you can override the column names by giving an explicit list of new column names).

CREATE TABLE AS bears some resemblance to creating a view, but it is really quite different: it creates a new table and evaluates the query just once to fill the new table initially. The new table will not track subsequent changes to the source tables of the query. In contrast, a view re-evaluates its defining SELECT statement whenever it is queried.

Parameters

GLOBAL or LOCAL

Ignored for compatibility. Refer to *CREATE TABLE* for details.

TEMPORARY or TEMP

If specified, the table is created as a temporary table. Refer to *CREATE TABLE* for details.

table_name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the table to be created.

column_name

The name of a column in the new table. If column names are not provided, they are taken from the output column names of the query. If the table is created from an EXECUTE command, a column name list cannot be specified.

WITH OIDS

WITHOUT OIDS

This optional clause specifies whether the table created by CREATE TABLE AS should include OIDs. If neither form of this clause is specified, the value of the default_with_oids configuration parameter is used.

query

A query statement (that is, a `SELECT` command or an `EXECUTE` command that runs a prepared `SELECT` command). Refer to *SELECT* or *EXECUTE*, respectively, for a description of the allowed syntax.

Notes

This command is functionally similar to *SELECT INTO*, but it is preferred since it is less likely to be confused with other uses of the `SELECT INTO` syntax. Furthermore, `CREATE TABLE AS` offers a superset of the functionality offered by `SELECT INTO`.

Prior to PostgreSQL 8.0, `CREATE TABLE AS` always included OIDs in the table it produced. As of PostgreSQL 8.0, the `CREATE TABLE AS` command allows the user to explicitly specify whether OIDs should be included. If the presence of OIDs is not explicitly specified, the `default_with_oids` configuration variable is used. While this variable currently defaults to true, the default value may be changed in the future. Therefore, applications that require OIDs in the table created by `CREATE TABLE AS` should explicitly specify `WITH OIDS` to ensure compatibility with future versions of PostgreSQL.

Examples

Create a new table `films_recent` consisting of only recent entries from the table `films`:

```
CREATE TABLE films_recent AS
  SELECT * FROM films WHERE date_prod >= '2002-01-01';
```

Compatibility

`CREATE TABLE AS` is specified by the SQL:2003 standard. There are some small differences between the definition of the command in SQL:2003 and its implementation in PostgreSQL:

- The standard requires parentheses around the subquery clause; in PostgreSQL, these parentheses are optional.
- The standard defines an `ON COMMIT` clause; this is not currently implemented by PostgreSQL.
- The standard defines a `WITH DATA` clause; this is not currently implemented by PostgreSQL.

See Also

CREATE TABLE, *EXECUTE*, *SELECT*, *SELECT INTO*

CREATE TABLESPACE

Name

CREATE TABLESPACE — define a new tablespace

Synopsis

```
CREATE TABLESPACE tablespacename [ OWNER username ] LOCATION 'directory'
```

Description

CREATE TABLESPACE registers a new cluster-wide tablespace. The tablespace name must be distinct from the name of any existing tablespace in the database cluster.

A tablespace allows superusers to define an alternative location on the file system where the data files containing database objects (such as tables and indexes) may reside.

A user with appropriate privileges can pass *tablespacename* to CREATE DATABASE, CREATE TABLE, CREATE INDEX or ADD CONSTRAINT to have the data files for these objects stored within the specified tablespace.

Parameters

tablespacename

The name of a tablespace to be created. The name cannot begin with `pg_`, as such names are reserved for system tablespaces.

username

The name of the user who will own the tablespace. If omitted, defaults to the user executing the command. Only superusers may create tablespaces, but they can assign ownership of tablespaces to non-superusers.

directory

The directory that will be used for the tablespace. The directory must be empty and must be owned by the PostgreSQL system user. The directory must be specified by an absolute path name.

Notes

Tablespaces are only supported on systems that support symbolic links.

Examples

Create a tablespace dbspace at /data/dbs:

```
CREATE TABLESPACE dbspace LOCATION '/data/dbs';
```

Create a tablespace indexspace at /data/indexes owned by user genevieve:

```
CREATE TABLESPACE indexspace OWNER genevieve LOCATION '/data/indexes';
```

Compatibility

CREATE TABLESPACE is a PostgreSQL extension.

See Also

CREATE DATABASE, CREATE TABLE, CREATE INDEX, DROP TABLESPACE, ALTER TABLESPACE

CREATE TRIGGER

Name

CREATE TRIGGER — define a new trigger

Synopsis

```
CREATE TRIGGER name { BEFORE | AFTER } { event [ OR ... ] }  
ON table [ FOR [ EACH ] { ROW | STATEMENT } ]  
EXECUTE PROCEDURE funcname ( arguments )
```

Description

CREATE TRIGGER creates a new trigger. The trigger will be associated with the specified table and will execute the specified function *funcname* when certain events occur.

The trigger can be specified to fire either before the operation is attempted on a row (before constraints are checked and the INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE is attempted) or after the operation has completed (after constraints are checked and the INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE has completed). If the trigger fires before the event, the trigger may skip the operation for the current row, or change the row being inserted (for INSERT and UPDATE operations only). If the trigger fires after the event, all changes, including the last insertion, update, or deletion, are “visible” to the trigger.

A trigger that is marked FOR EACH ROW is called once for every row that the operation modifies. For example, a DELETE that affects 10 rows will cause any ON DELETE triggers on the target relation to be called 10 separate times, once for each deleted row. In contrast, a trigger that is marked FOR EACH STATEMENT only executes once for any given operation, regardless of how many rows it modifies (in particular, an operation that modifies zero rows will still result in the execution of any applicable FOR EACH STATEMENT triggers).

If multiple triggers of the same kind are defined for the same event, they will be fired in alphabetical order by name.

SELECT does not modify any rows so you can not create SELECT triggers. Rules and views are more appropriate in such cases.

Refer to Chapter 32 for more information about triggers.

Parameters

name

The name to give the new trigger. This must be distinct from the name of any other trigger for the same table.

BEFORE

AFTER

Determines whether the function is called before or after the event.

event

One of INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE; this specifies the event that will fire the trigger. Multiple events can be specified using OR.

table

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the table the trigger is for.

FOR EACH ROW

FOR EACH STATEMENT

This specifies whether the trigger procedure should be fired once for every row affected by the trigger event, or just once per SQL statement. If neither is specified, FOR EACH STATEMENT is the default.

funcname

A user-supplied function that is declared as taking no arguments and returning type `trigger`, which is executed when the trigger fires.

arguments

An optional comma-separated list of arguments to be provided to the function when the trigger is executed. The arguments are literal string constants. Simple names and numeric constants may be written here, too, but they will all be converted to strings. Please check the description of the implementation language of the trigger function about how the trigger arguments are accessible within the function; it may be different from normal function arguments.

Notes

To create a trigger on a table, the user must have the TRIGGER privilege on the table.

In PostgreSQL versions before 7.3, it was necessary to declare trigger functions as returning the placeholder type `opaque`, rather than `trigger`. To support loading of old dump files, CREATE TRIGGER will accept a function declared as returning `opaque`, but it will issue a notice and change the function's declared return type to `trigger`.

Use `DROP TRIGGER` to remove a trigger.

Examples

Section 32.4 contains a complete example.

Compatibility

The CREATE TRIGGER statement in PostgreSQL implements a subset of the SQL:1999 standard. (There are no provisions for triggers in SQL-92.) The following functionality is missing:

- SQL:1999 allows triggers to fire on updates to specific columns (e.g., AFTER UPDATE OF `col1`, `col2`).

- SQL:1999 allows you to define aliases for the “old” and “new” rows or tables for use in the definition of the triggered action (e.g., `CREATE TRIGGER ... ON tablename REFERENCING OLD ROW AS somename NEW ROW AS othername ...`). Since PostgreSQL allows trigger procedures to be written in any number of user-defined languages, access to the data is handled in a language-specific way.
- PostgreSQL only allows the execution of a user-defined function for the triggered action. SQL:1999 allows the execution of a number of other SQL commands, such as `CREATE TABLE` as triggered action. This limitation is not hard to work around by creating a user-defined function that executes the desired commands.

SQL:1999 specifies that multiple triggers should be fired in time-of-creation order. PostgreSQL uses name order, which was judged more convenient to work with.

The ability to specify multiple actions for a single trigger using `OR` is a PostgreSQL extension of the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE FUNCTION, ALTER TRIGGER, DROP TRIGGER

CREATE TYPE

Name

CREATE TYPE — define a new data type

Synopsis

```
CREATE TYPE name AS
    ( attribute_name data_type [ , ... ] )

CREATE TYPE name (
    INPUT = input_function,
    OUTPUT = output_function
    [ , RECEIVE = receive_function ]
    [ , SEND = send_function ]
    [ , ANALYZE = analyze_function ]
    [ , INTERNALLENGTH = { internallength | VARIABLE } ]
    [ , PASSEDBYVALUE ]
    [ , ALIGNMENT = alignment ]
    [ , STORAGE = storage ]
    [ , DEFAULT = default ]
    [ , ELEMENT = element ]
    [ , DELIMITER = delimiter ]
)
```

Description

CREATE TYPE registers a new data type for use in the current database. The user who defines a type becomes its owner.

If a schema name is given then the type is created in the specified schema. Otherwise it is created in the current schema. The type name must be distinct from the name of any existing type or domain in the same schema. (Because tables have associated data types, the type name must also be distinct from the name of any existing table in the same schema.)

Composite Types

The first form of CREATE TYPE creates a composite type. The composite type is specified by a list of attribute names and data types. This is essentially the same as the row type of a table, but using CREATE TYPE avoids the need to create an actual table when all that is wanted is to define a type. A stand-alone composite type is useful as the argument or return type of a function.

Base Types

The second form of CREATE TYPE creates a new base type (scalar type). The parameters may appear in any order, not only that illustrated above, and most are optional. You must register two or more functions (using CREATE FUNCTION) before defining the type. The support functions *input_function* and

output_function are required, while the functions *receive_function*, *send_function* and *analyze_function* are optional. Generally these functions have to be coded in C or another low-level language.

The *input_function* converts the type's external textual representation to the internal representation used by the operators and functions defined for the type. *output_function* performs the reverse transformation. The input function may be declared as taking one argument of type *cstring*, or as taking three arguments of types *cstring*, *oid*, *integer*. The first argument is the input text as a C string, the second argument is the element type's OID in case this is an array type (or the type's own OID for a composite type), and the third is the *typmod* of the destination column, if known (-1 will be passed if not). The input function should return a value of the data type itself. The output function may be declared as taking one argument of the new data type, or as taking two arguments of which the second is type *oid*. The second argument is again the array element type OID for array types or the type OID for composite types. The output function should return type *cstring*.

The optional *receive_function* converts the type's external binary representation to the internal representation. If this function is not supplied, the type cannot participate in binary input. The binary representation should be chosen to be cheap to convert to internal form, while being reasonably portable. (For example, the standard integer data types use network byte order as the external binary representation, while the internal representation is in the machine's native byte order.) The receive function should perform adequate checking to ensure that the value is valid. The receive function may be declared as taking one argument of type *internal*, or two arguments of types *internal* and *oid*. It must return a value of the data type itself. (The first argument is a pointer to a *StringInfo* buffer holding the received byte string; the optional second argument is the element type OID in case this is an array type, or the type's own OID for a composite type.) Similarly, the optional *send_function* converts from the internal representation to the external binary representation. If this function is not supplied, the type cannot participate in binary output. The send function may be declared as taking one argument of the new data type, or as taking two arguments of which the second is type *oid*. The second argument is again the array element type OID for array types or the type OID for composite types. The send function must return type *bytea*.

You should at this point be wondering how the input and output functions can be declared to have results or arguments of the new type, when they have to be created before the new type can be created. The answer is that the input function must be created first, then the output function (and the binary I/O functions if wanted), and finally the data type. PostgreSQL will first see the name of the new data type as the return type of the input function. It will create a "shell" type, which is simply a placeholder entry in the system catalog, and link the input function definition to the shell type. Similarly the other functions will be linked to the (now already existing) shell type. Finally, `CREATE TYPE` replaces the shell entry with a complete type definition, and the new type can be used.

The optional *analyze_function* performs type-specific statistics collection for columns of the data type. By default, `ANALYZE` will attempt to gather statistics using the type's "equals" and "less-than" operators, if there is a default b-tree operator class for the type. For non-scalar types this behavior is likely to be unsuitable, so it can be overridden by specifying a custom analysis function. The analysis function must be declared to take a single argument of type *internal*, and return a *boolean* result. The detailed API for analysis functions appears in `src/include/commands/vacuum.h`.

While the details of the new type's internal representation are only known to the I/O functions and other functions you create to work with the type, there are several properties of the internal representation that must be declared to PostgreSQL. Foremost of these is *internallength*. Base data types can be fixed-length, in which case *internallength* is a positive integer, or variable length, indicated by setting *internallength* to `VARIABLE`. (Internally, this is represented by setting *typplen* to -1.) The internal

representation of all variable-length types must start with a 4-byte integer giving the total length of this value of the type.

The optional flag `PASSEDBYVALUE` indicates that values of this data type are passed by value, rather than by reference. You may not pass by value types whose internal representation is larger than the size of the `Datum` type (4 bytes on most machines, 8 bytes on a few).

The *alignment* parameter specifies the storage alignment required for the data type. The allowed values equate to alignment on 1, 2, 4, or 8 byte boundaries. Note that variable-length types must have an alignment of at least 4, since they necessarily contain an `int4` as their first component.

The *storage* parameter allows selection of storage strategies for variable-length data types. (Only `plain` is allowed for fixed-length types.) `plain` specifies that data of the type will always be stored in-line and not compressed. `extended` specifies that the system will first try to compress a long data value, and will move the value out of the main table row if it's still too long. `external` allows the value to be moved out of the main table, but the system will not try to compress it. `main` allows compression, but discourages moving the value out of the main table. (Data items with this storage strategy may still be moved out of the main table if there is no other way to make a row fit, but they will be kept in the main table preferentially over `extended` and `external` items.)

A default value may be specified, in case a user wants columns of the data type to default to something other than the null value. Specify the default with the `DEFAULT` key word. (Such a default may be overridden by an explicit `DEFAULT` clause attached to a particular column.)

To indicate that a type is an array, specify the type of the array elements using the `ELEMENT` key word. For example, to define an array of 4-byte integers (`int4`), specify `ELEMENT = int4`. More details about array types appear below.

To indicate the delimiter to be used between values in the external representation of arrays of this type, *delimiter* can be set to a specific character. The default delimiter is the comma (`,`). Note that the delimiter is associated with the array element type, not the array type itself.

Array Types

Whenever a user-defined base data type is created, PostgreSQL automatically creates an associated array type, whose name consists of the base type's name prepended with an underscore. The parser understands this naming convention, and translates requests for columns of type `foo[]` into requests for type `_foo`. The implicitly-created array type is variable length and uses the built-in input and output functions `array_in` and `array_out`.

You might reasonably ask why there is an `ELEMENT` option, if the system makes the correct array type automatically. The only case where it's useful to use `ELEMENT` is when you are making a fixed-length type that happens to be internally an array of a number of identical things, and you want to allow these things to be accessed directly by subscripting, in addition to whatever operations you plan to provide for the type as a whole. For example, type name allows its constituent `char` elements to be accessed this way. A 2-D `point` type could allow its two component numbers to be accessed like `point[0]` and `point[1]`. Note that this facility only works for fixed-length types whose internal form is exactly a sequence of identical fixed-length fields. A subscriptable variable-length type must have the generalized internal representation used by `array_in` and `array_out`. For historical reasons (i.e., this is clearly wrong but it's far too late to change it), subscripting of fixed-length array types starts from zero, rather than from one as for variable-length arrays.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of a type to be created.

attribute_name

The name of an attribute (column) for the composite type.

data_type

The name of an existing data type to become a column of the composite type.

input_function

The name of a function that converts data from the type's external textual form to its internal form.

output_function

The name of a function that converts data from the type's internal form to its external textual form.

receive_function

The name of a function that converts data from the type's external binary form to its internal form.

send_function

The name of a function that converts data from the type's internal form to its external binary form.

analyze_function

The name of a function that performs statistical analysis for the data type.

internallength

A numeric constant that specifies the length in bytes of the new type's internal representation. The default assumption is that it is variable-length.

alignment

The storage alignment requirement of the data type. If specified, it must be `char`, `int2`, `int4`, or `double`; the default is `int4`.

storage

The storage strategy for the data type. If specified, must be `plain`, `external`, `extended`, or `main`; the default is `plain`.

default

The default value for the data type. If this is omitted, the default is null.

element

The type being created is an array; this specifies the type of the array elements.

delimiter

The delimiter character to be used between values in arrays made of this type.

Notes

User-defined type names cannot begin with the underscore character (`_`) and can only be 62 characters long (or in general `NAMEDATALEN - 2`, rather than the `NAMEDATALEN - 1` characters allowed for other names). Type names beginning with underscore are reserved for internally-created array type names.

In PostgreSQL versions before 7.3, it was customary to avoid creating a shell type by replacing the functions' forward references to the type name with the placeholder pseudotype `opaque`. The `cstring` arguments and results also had to be declared as `opaque` before 7.3. To support loading of old dump files, `CREATE TYPE` will accept functions declared using `opaque`, but it will issue a notice and change the function's declaration to use the correct types.

Examples

This example creates a composite type and uses it in a function definition:

```
CREATE TYPE compfoo AS (f1 int, f2 text);

CREATE FUNCTION getfoo() RETURNS SETOF compfoo AS $$
    SELECT foid, fooname FROM foo
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;
```

This example creates the base data type `box` and then uses the type in a table definition:

```
CREATE TYPE box (
    INTERNALLENGTH = 16,
    INPUT = my_box_in_function,
    OUTPUT = my_box_out_function
);

CREATE TABLE myboxes (
    id integer,
    description box
);
```

If the internal structure of `box` were an array of four `float4` elements, we might instead use

```
CREATE TYPE box (
    INTERNALLENGTH = 16,
    INPUT = my_box_in_function,
    OUTPUT = my_box_out_function,
    ELEMENT = float4
);
```

which would allow a `box` value's component numbers to be accessed by subscripting. Otherwise the type behaves the same as before.

This example creates a large object type and uses it in a table definition:

```
CREATE TYPE bigobj (
```

```
        INPUT = lo_filein, OUTPUT = lo_fileout,  
        INTERNALLENGTH = VARIABLE  
    );  
CREATE TABLE big_objs (  
    id integer,  
    obj bigobj  
);
```

More examples, including suitable input and output functions, are in Section 31.11.

Compatibility

This `CREATE TYPE` command is a PostgreSQL extension. There is a `CREATE TYPE` statement in SQL:1999 and later that is rather different in detail.

See Also

CREATE FUNCTION, DROP TYPE, ALTER TYPE

CREATE USER

Name

CREATE USER — define a new database user account

Synopsis

```
CREATE USER name [ [ WITH ] option [ ... ] ]
```

where *option* can be:

```
    SYSID uid  
    | CREATEDB | NOCREATEDB  
    | CREATEUSER | NOCREATEUSER  
    | IN GROUP groupname [ , ... ]  
    | [ ENCRYPTED | UNENCRYPTED ] PASSWORD 'password'  
    | VALID UNTIL 'abstime'
```

Description

CREATE USER adds a new user to a PostgreSQL database cluster. Refer to Chapter 17 and Chapter 19 for information about managing users and authentication. You must be a database superuser to use this command.

Parameters

name

The name of the new user.

uid

The SYSID clause can be used to choose the PostgreSQL user ID of the new user. This is normally not necessary, but may be useful if you need to recreate the owner of an orphaned object.

If this is not specified, the highest assigned user ID plus one (with a minimum of 100) will be used as default.

CREATEDB

NOCREATEDB

These clauses define a user's ability to create databases. If CREATEDB is specified, the user being defined will be allowed to create his own databases. Using NOCREATEDB will deny a user the ability to create databases. If not specified, NOCREATEDB is the default.

CREATEUSER
 NOCREATEUSER

These clauses determine whether a user will be permitted to create new users himself. `CREATEUSER` will also make the user a superuser, who can override all access restrictions. If not specified, `NOCREATEUSER` is the default.

groupname

A name of an existing group into which to insert the user as a new member. Multiple group names may be listed.

password

Sets the user's password. If you do not plan to use password authentication you can omit this option, but then the user won't be able to connect if you decide to switch to password authentication. The password can be set or changed later, using `ALTER USER`.

ENCRYPTED
 UNENCRYPTED

These key words control whether the password is stored encrypted in the system catalogs. (If neither is specified, the default behavior is determined by the configuration parameter `password_encryption`.) If the presented password string is already in MD5-encrypted format, then it is stored encrypted as-is, regardless of whether `ENCRYPTED` or `UNENCRYPTED` is specified (since the system cannot decrypt the specified encrypted password string). This allows reloading of encrypted passwords during dump/restore.

Note that older clients may lack support for the MD5 authentication mechanism that is needed to work with passwords that are stored encrypted.

abstime

The `VALID UNTIL` clause sets an absolute time after which the user's password is no longer valid. If this clause is omitted the password will be valid for all time.

Notes

Use `ALTER USER` to change the attributes of a user, and `DROP USER` to remove a user. Use `ALTER GROUP` to add the user to groups or remove the user from groups.

PostgreSQL includes a program `createuser` that has the same functionality as `CREATE USER` (in fact, it calls this command) but can be run from the command shell.

The `VALID UNTIL` clause defines an expiration time for a password only, not for the user account *per se*. In particular, the expiration time is not enforced when logging in using a non-password-based authentication method.

Examples

Create a user with no password:

```
CREATE USER jonathan;
```

Create a user with a password:

```
CREATE USER davide WITH PASSWORD 'jw8s0F4';
```

Create a user with a password that is valid until the end of 2004. After one second has ticked in 2005, the password is no longer valid.

```
CREATE USER miriam WITH PASSWORD 'jw8s0F4' VALID UNTIL '2005-01-01';
```

Create an account where the user can create databases:

```
CREATE USER manuel WITH PASSWORD 'jw8s0F4' CREATEDB;
```

Compatibility

The `CREATE USER` statement is a PostgreSQL extension. The SQL standard leaves the definition of users to the implementation.

See Also

ALTER USER, *DROP USER*, `createuser`

CREATE VIEW

Name

CREATE VIEW — define a new view

Synopsis

```
CREATE [ OR REPLACE ] VIEW name [ ( column_name [, ...] ) ] AS query
```

Description

CREATE VIEW defines a view of a query. The view is not physically materialized. Instead, the query is run every time the view is referenced in a query.

CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW is similar, but if a view of the same name already exists, it is replaced. You can only replace a view with a new query that generates the identical set of columns (i.e., same column names and data types).

If a schema name is given (for example, CREATE VIEW *myschema.myview* ...) then the view is created in the specified schema. Otherwise it is created in the current schema. The view name must be distinct from the name of any other view, table, sequence, or index in the same schema.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of a view to be created.

column_name

An optional list of names to be used for columns of the view. If not given, the column names are deduced from the query.

query

A query (that is, a SELECT statement) which will provide the columns and rows of the view.

Refer to *SELECT* for more information about valid queries.

Notes

Currently, views are read only: the system will not allow an insert, update, or delete on a view. You can get the effect of an updatable view by creating rules that rewrite inserts, etc. on the view into appropriate actions on other tables. For more information see *CREATE RULE*.

Use the DROP VIEW statement to drop views.

Be careful that the names and types of the view's columns will be assigned the way you want. For example,

```
CREATE VIEW vista AS SELECT 'Hello World';
```

is bad form in two ways: the column name defaults to `?column?`, and the column data type defaults to unknown. If you want a string literal in a view's result, use something like

```
CREATE VIEW vista AS SELECT text 'Hello World' AS hello;
```

Access to tables referenced in the view is determined by permissions of the view owner. However, functions called in the view are treated the same as if they had been called directly from the query using the view. Therefore the user of a view must have permissions to call all functions used by the view.

Examples

Create a view consisting of all comedy films:

```
CREATE VIEW comedies AS
  SELECT *
  FROM films
  WHERE kind = 'Comedy';
```

Compatibility

The SQL standard specifies some additional capabilities for the `CREATE VIEW` statement:

```
CREATE VIEW name [ ( column [, ...] ) ]
  AS query
  [ WITH [ CASCADE | LOCAL ] CHECK OPTION ]
```

The optional clauses for the full SQL command are:

CHECK OPTION

This option has to do with updatable views. All `INSERT` and `UPDATE` commands on the view will be checked to ensure data satisfy the view-defining condition (that is, the new data would be visible through the view). If they do not, the update will be rejected.

LOCAL

Check for integrity on this view.

CASCADE

Check for integrity on this view and on any dependent view. `CASCADE` is assumed if neither `CASCADE` nor `LOCAL` is specified.

CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW is a PostgreSQL language extension.

See Also

DROP VIEW

DEALLOCATE

Name

DEALLOCATE — deallocate a prepared statement

Synopsis

```
DEALLOCATE [ PREPARE ] plan_name
```

Description

DEALLOCATE is used to deallocate a previously prepared SQL statement. If you do not explicitly deallocate a prepared statement, it is deallocated when the session ends.

For more information on prepared statements, see *PREPARE*.

Parameters

PREPARE

This key word is ignored.

plan_name

The name of the prepared statement to deallocate.

Compatibility

The SQL standard includes a DEALLOCATE statement, but it is only for use in embedded SQL.

See Also

EXECUTE, *PREPARE*

DECLARE

Name

DECLARE — define a cursor

Synopsis

```
DECLARE name [ BINARY ] [ INSENSITIVE ] [ [ NO ] SCROLL ]
        CURSOR [ { WITH | WITHOUT } HOLD ] FOR query
        [ FOR { READ ONLY | UPDATE [ OF column [, ...] ] } ]
```

Description

DECLARE allows a user to create cursors, which can be used to retrieve a small number of rows at a time out of a larger query. Cursors can return data either in text or in binary format using *FETCH*.

Normal cursors return data in text format, the same as a *SELECT* would produce. Since data is stored natively in binary format, the system must do a conversion to produce the text format. Once the information comes back in text form, the client application may need to convert it to a binary format to manipulate it. In addition, data in the text format is often larger in size than in the binary format. Binary cursors return the data in a binary representation that may be more easily manipulated. Nevertheless, if you intend to display the data as text anyway, retrieving it in text form will save you some effort on the client side.

As an example, if a query returns a value of one from an integer column, you would get a string of 1 with a default cursor whereas with a binary cursor you would get a 4-byte field containing the internal representation of the value (in big-endian byte order).

Binary cursors should be used carefully. Many applications, including *psql*, are not prepared to handle binary cursors and expect data to come back in the text format.

Note: When the client application uses the “extended query” protocol to issue a *FETCH* command, the Bind protocol message specifies whether data is to be retrieved in text or binary format. This choice overrides the way that the cursor is defined. The concept of a binary cursor as such is thus obsolete when using extended query protocol — any cursor can be treated as either text or binary.

Parameters

name

The name of the cursor to be created.

BINARY

Causes the cursor to return data in binary rather than in text format.

INSENSITIVE

Indicates that data retrieved from the cursor should be unaffected by updates to the tables underlying the cursor while the cursor exists. In PostgreSQL, all cursors are insensitive; this key word currently has no effect and is present for compatibility with the SQL standard.

SCROLL

NO SCROLL

SCROLL specifies that the cursor may be used to retrieve rows in a nonsequential fashion (e.g., backward). Depending upon the complexity of the query's execution plan, specifying SCROLL may impose a performance penalty on the query's execution time. NO SCROLL specifies that the cursor cannot be used to retrieve rows in a nonsequential fashion.

WITH HOLD

WITHOUT HOLD

WITH HOLD specifies that the cursor may continue to be used after the transaction that created it successfully commits. WITHOUT HOLD specifies that the cursor cannot be used outside of the transaction that created it. If neither WITHOUT HOLD nor WITH HOLD is specified, WITHOUT HOLD is the default.

query

A SELECT command that will provide the rows to be returned by the cursor. Refer to *SELECT* for further information about valid queries.

FOR READ ONLY

FOR UPDATE

FOR READ ONLY indicates that the cursor will be used in a read-only mode. FOR UPDATE indicates that the cursor will be used to update tables. Since cursor updates are not currently supported in PostgreSQL, specifying FOR UPDATE will cause an error message and specifying FOR READ ONLY has no effect.

column

Column(s) to be updated by the cursor. Since cursor updates are not currently supported in PostgreSQL, the FOR UPDATE clause provokes an error message.

The key words BINARY, INSENSITIVE, and SCROLL may appear in any order.

Notes

Unless WITH HOLD is specified, the cursor created by this command can only be used within the current transaction. Thus, DECLARE without WITH HOLD is useless outside a transaction block: the cursor would survive only to the completion of the statement. Therefore PostgreSQL reports an error if this command is used outside a transaction block. Use *BEGIN*, *COMMIT* and *ROLLBACK* to define a transaction block.

If WITH HOLD is specified and the transaction that created the cursor successfully commits, the cursor can continue to be accessed by subsequent transactions in the same session. (But if the creating transaction is aborted, the cursor is removed.) A cursor created with WITH HOLD is closed when an explicit CLOSE command is issued on it, or the session ends. In the current implementation, the rows represented by a held cursor are copied into a temporary file or memory area so that they remain available for subsequent transactions.

The `SCROLL` option should be specified when defining a cursor that will be used to fetch backwards. This is required by the SQL standard. However, for compatibility with earlier versions, PostgreSQL will allow backward fetches without `SCROLL`, if the cursor's query plan is simple enough that no extra overhead is needed to support it. However, application developers are advised not to rely on using backward fetches from a cursor that has not been created with `SCROLL`. If `NO SCROLL` is specified, then backward fetches are disallowed in any case.

The SQL standard only makes provisions for cursors in embedded SQL. The PostgreSQL server does not implement an `OPEN` statement for cursors; a cursor is considered to be open when it is declared. However, ECPG, the embedded SQL preprocessor for PostgreSQL, supports the standard SQL cursor conventions, including those involving `DECLARE` and `OPEN` statements.

Examples

To declare a cursor:

```
DECLARE liahona CURSOR FOR SELECT * FROM films;
```

See *FETCH* for more examples of cursor usage.

Compatibility

The SQL standard allows cursors only in embedded SQL and in modules. PostgreSQL permits cursors to be used interactively.

The SQL standard allows cursors to update table data. All PostgreSQL cursors are read only.

Binary cursors are a PostgreSQL extension.

See Also

CLOSE, *FETCH*, *MOVE*

DELETE

Name

DELETE — delete rows of a table

Synopsis

```
DELETE FROM [ ONLY ] table [ WHERE condition ]
```

Description

DELETE deletes rows that satisfy the WHERE clause from the specified table. If the WHERE clause is absent, the effect is to delete all rows in the table. The result is a valid, but empty table.

Tip: *TRUNCATE* is a PostgreSQL extension that provides a faster mechanism to remove all rows from a table.

By default, DELETE will delete rows in the specified table and all its subtables. If you wish to delete only from the specific table mentioned, you must use the ONLY clause.

You must have the DELETE privilege on the table to delete from it, as well as the SELECT privilege for any table whose values are read in the *condition*.

Parameters

table

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing table.

condition

A value expression that returns a value of type `boolean` that determines the rows which are to be deleted.

Outputs

On successful completion, a DELETE command returns a command tag of the form

```
DELETE count
```

The *count* is the number of rows deleted. If *count* is 0, no rows matched the *condition* (this is not considered an error).

Notes

PostgreSQL lets you reference columns of other tables in the `WHERE` condition. For example, to delete all films produced by a given producer, one might do

```
DELETE FROM films
  WHERE producer_id = producers.id AND producers.name = 'foo';
```

What is essentially happening here is a join between `films` and `producers`, with all successfully joined `films` rows being marked for deletion. This syntax is not standard. A more standard way to do it is

```
DELETE FROM films
  WHERE producer_id IN (SELECT id FROM producers WHERE name = 'foo');
```

In some cases the join style is easier to write or faster to execute than the sub-select style. One objection to the join style is that there is no explicit list of what tables are being used, which makes the style somewhat error-prone; also it cannot handle self-joins.

Examples

Delete all films but musicals:

```
DELETE FROM films WHERE kind <> 'Musical';
```

Clear the table `films`:

```
DELETE FROM films;
```

Compatibility

This command conforms to the SQL standard, except that the ability to reference other tables in the `WHERE` clause is a PostgreSQL extension.

DROP AGGREGATE

Name

DROP AGGREGATE — remove an aggregate function

Synopsis

```
DROP AGGREGATE name ( type ) [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP AGGREGATE will delete an existing aggregate function. To execute this command the current user must be the owner of the aggregate function.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing aggregate function.

type

The argument data type of the aggregate function, or * if the function accepts any data type.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the aggregate function.

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the aggregate function if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

To remove the aggregate function `myavg` for type `integer`:

```
DROP AGGREGATE myavg(integer);
```

Compatibility

There is no DROP AGGREGATE statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

ALTER AGGREGATE, CREATE AGGREGATE

DROP CAST

Name

DROP CAST — remove a cast

Synopsis

```
DROP CAST (sourcetype AS targettype) [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP CAST removes a previously defined cast.

To be able to drop a cast, you must own the source or the target data type. These are the same privileges that are required to create a cast.

Parameters

sourcetype

The name of the source data type of the cast.

targettype

The name of the target data type of the cast.

CASCADE

RESTRICT

These key words do not have any effect, since there are no dependencies on casts.

Examples

To drop the cast from type text to type int:

```
DROP CAST (text AS int);
```

Compatibility

The DROP CAST command conforms to the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE CAST

DROP CONVERSION

Name

DROP CONVERSION — remove a conversion

Synopsis

```
DROP CONVERSION name [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP CONVERSION removes a previously defined conversion. To be able to drop a conversion, you must own the conversion.

Parameters

name

The name of the conversion. The conversion name may be schema-qualified.

CASCADE

RESTRICT

These key words do not have any effect, since there are no dependencies on conversions.

Examples

To drop the conversion named *myname*:

```
DROP CONVERSION myname;
```

Compatibility

There is no DROP CONVERSION statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

ALTER CONVERSION, *CREATE CONVERSION*

DROP DATABASE

Name

DROP DATABASE — remove a database

Synopsis

```
DROP DATABASE name
```

Description

DROP DATABASE drops a database. It removes the catalog entries for the database and deletes the directory containing the data. It can only be executed by the database owner. Also, it cannot be executed while you or anyone else are connected to the target database. (Connect to `template1` or any other database to issue this command.)

DROP DATABASE cannot be undone. Use it with care!

Parameters

name

The name of the database to remove.

Notes

DROP DATABASE cannot be executed inside a transaction block.

This command cannot be executed while connected to the target database. Thus, it might be more convenient to use the program *dropdb* instead, which is a wrapper around this command.

Compatibility

There is no DROP DATABASE statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE DATABASE

DROP DOMAIN

Name

DROP DOMAIN — remove a domain

Synopsis

```
DROP DOMAIN name [, ...] [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP DOMAIN will remove a domain. Only the owner of a domain can remove it.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing domain.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the domain (such as table columns).

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the domain if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

To remove the domain `box`:

```
DROP DOMAIN box;
```

Compatibility

This command conforms to the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE DOMAIN

DROP FUNCTION

Name

DROP FUNCTION — remove a function

Synopsis

```
DROP FUNCTION name ( [ type [, ...] ] ) [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP FUNCTION removes the definition of an existing function. To execute this command the user must be the owner of the function. The argument types to the function must be specified, since several different functions may exist with the same name and different argument lists.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing function.

type

The data type of an argument of the function.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the function (such as operators or triggers).

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the function if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

This command removes the square root function:

```
DROP FUNCTION sqrt(integer);
```

Compatibility

A DROP FUNCTION statement is defined in the SQL standard, but it is not compatible with this command.

See Also

CREATE FUNCTION, ALTER FUNCTION

DROP GROUP

Name

DROP GROUP — remove a user group

Synopsis

```
DROP GROUP name
```

Description

DROP GROUP removes the specified group. The users in the group are not removed.

Parameters

name

The name of an existing group.

Notes

It is unwise to drop a group that has any granted permissions on objects. Currently, this is not enforced, but it is likely that future versions of PostgreSQL will check for the error.

Examples

To drop a group:

```
DROP GROUP staff;
```

Compatibility

There is no DROP GROUP statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

ALTER GROUP, *CREATE GROUP*

DROP INDEX

Name

DROP INDEX — remove an index

Synopsis

```
DROP INDEX name [, ...] [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP INDEX drops an existing index from the database system. To execute this command you must be the owner of the index.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an index to remove.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the index.

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the index if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

This command will remove the index `title_idx`:

```
DROP INDEX title_idx;
```

Compatibility

DROP INDEX is a PostgreSQL language extension. There are no provisions for indexes in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE INDEX

DROP LANGUAGE

Name

DROP LANGUAGE — remove a procedural language

Synopsis

```
DROP [ PROCEDURAL ] LANGUAGE name [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP LANGUAGE will remove the definition of the previously registered procedural language called *name*.

Parameters

name

The name of an existing procedural language. For backward compatibility, the name may be enclosed by single quotes.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the language (such as functions in the language).

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the language if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

This command removes the procedural language `plsample`:

```
DROP LANGUAGE plsample;
```

Compatibility

There is no DROP LANGUAGE statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

ALTER LANGUAGE, *CREATE LANGUAGE*, `droplang`

DROP OPERATOR

Name

DROP OPERATOR — remove an operator

Synopsis

```
DROP OPERATOR name ( { lefttype | NONE } , { righttype | NONE } ) [ CASCADE | RESTRICT
```

Description

DROP OPERATOR drops an existing operator from the database system. To execute this command you must be the owner of the operator.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing operator.

lefttype

The data type of the operator's left operand; write NONE if the operator has no left operand.

righttype

The data type of the operator's right operand; write NONE if the operator has no right operand.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the operator.

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the operator if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

Remove the power operator a^b for type integer:

```
DROP OPERATOR ^ (integer, integer);
```

Remove the left unary bitwise complement operator $\sim b$ for type bit:

```
DROP OPERATOR ~ (none, bit);
```

Remove the right unary factorial operator $x!$ for type `bigint`:

```
DROP OPERATOR ! (bigint, none);
```

Compatibility

There is no `DROP OPERATOR` statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE OPERATOR, ALTER OPERATOR

DROP OPERATOR CLASS

Name

DROP OPERATOR CLASS — remove an operator class

Synopsis

```
DROP OPERATOR CLASS name USING index_method [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP OPERATOR CLASS drops an existing operator class. To execute this command you must be the owner of the operator class.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing operator class.

index_method

The name of the index access method the operator class is for.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the operator class.

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the operator class if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

Remove the B-tree operator class `widget_ops`:

```
DROP OPERATOR CLASS widget_ops USING btree;
```

This command will not succeed if there are any existing indexes that use the operator class. Add `CASCADE` to drop such indexes along with the operator class.

Compatibility

There is no DROP OPERATOR CLASS statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

ALTER OPERATOR CLASS, CREATE OPERATOR CLASS

DROP RULE

Name

DROP RULE — remove a rewrite rule

Synopsis

```
DROP RULE name ON relation [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP RULE drops a rewrite rule.

Parameters

name

The name of the rule to drop.

relation

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the table or view that the rule applies to.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the rule.

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the rule if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

To drop the rewrite rule `newrule`:

```
DROP RULE newrule ON mytable;
```

Compatibility

There is no DROP RULE statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CREATE RULE

DROP SCHEMA

Name

DROP SCHEMA — remove a schema

Synopsis

```
DROP SCHEMA name [ , ... ] [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP SCHEMA removes schemas from the database.

A schema can only be dropped by its owner or a superuser. Note that the owner can drop the schema (and thereby all contained objects) even if he does not own some of the objects within the schema.

Parameters

name

The name of a schema.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects (tables, functions, etc.) that are contained in the schema.

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the schema if it contains any objects. This is the default.

Examples

To remove schema `mystuff` from the database, along with everything it contains:

```
DROP SCHEMA mystuff CASCADE;
```

Compatibility

DROP SCHEMA is fully conforming with the SQL standard, except that the standard only allows one schema to be dropped per command.

See Also

ALTER SCHEMA, CREATE SCHEMA

DROP SEQUENCE

Name

DROP SEQUENCE — remove a sequence

Synopsis

```
DROP SEQUENCE name [, ...] [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP SEQUENCE removes sequence number generators.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of a sequence.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the sequence.

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the sequence if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

To remove the sequence `serial`:

```
DROP SEQUENCE serial;
```

Compatibility

DROP SEQUENCE conforms with SQL:2003, except that the standard only allows one sequence to be dropped per command.

See Also

CREATE SEQUENCE

DROP TABLE

Name

DROP TABLE — remove a table

Synopsis

```
DROP TABLE name [, ...] [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP TABLE removes tables from the database. Only its owner may destroy a table. To empty a table of rows, without destroying the table, use DELETE.

DROP TABLE always removes any indexes, rules, triggers, and constraints that exist for the target table. However, to drop a table that is referenced by a view or a foreign-key constraint of another table, CASCADE must be specified. (CASCADE will remove a dependent view entirely, but in the foreign-key case it will only remove the foreign-key constraint, not the other table entirely.)

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the table to drop.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the table (such as views).

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the table if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

To destroy two tables, films and distributors:

```
DROP TABLE films, distributors;
```

Compatibility

This command conforms to the SQL standard, except that the standard only allows one table to be dropped per command.

See Also

ALTER TABLE, CREATE TABLE

DROP TABLESPACE

Name

DROP TABLESPACE — remove a tablespace

Synopsis

```
DROP TABLESPACE tablespacename
```

Description

DROP TABLESPACE removes a tablespace from the system.

A tablespace can only be dropped by its owner or a superuser. The tablespace must be empty of all database objects before it can be dropped. It is possible that objects in other databases may still reside in the tablespace even if no objects in the current database are using the tablespace.

Parameters

tablespacename

The name of a tablespace.

Examples

To remove tablespace `mystuff` from the system:

```
DROP TABLESPACE mystuff;
```

Compatibility

DROP TABLESPACE is a PostgreSQL extension.

See Also

CREATE TABLESPACE, *ALTER TABLESPACE*

DROP TRIGGER

Name

DROP TRIGGER — remove a trigger

Synopsis

```
DROP TRIGGER name ON table [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP TRIGGER will remove an existing trigger definition. To execute this command, the current user must be the owner of the table for which the trigger is defined.

Parameters

name

The name of the trigger to remove.

table

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the table for which the trigger is defined.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the trigger.

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the trigger if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

Destroy the trigger `if_dist_exists` on the table `films`:

```
DROP TRIGGER if_dist_exists ON films;
```

Compatibility

The DROP TRIGGER statement in PostgreSQL is incompatible with the SQL standard. In the SQL standard, trigger names are not local to tables, so the command is simply DROP TRIGGER *name*.

See Also

CREATE TRIGGER

DROP TYPE

Name

`DROP TYPE` — remove a data type

Synopsis

```
DROP TYPE name [ , ... ] [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

`DROP TYPE` will remove a user-defined data type. Only the owner of a type can remove it.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the data type to remove.

`CASCADE`

Automatically drop objects that depend on the type (such as table columns, functions, operators).

`RESTRICT`

Refuse to drop the type if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

To remove the data type `box`:

```
DROP TYPE box;
```

Compatibility

This command is similar to the corresponding command in the SQL standard, but note that the `CREATE TYPE` command and the data type extension mechanisms in PostgreSQL differ from the SQL standard.

See Also

`CREATE TYPE`, `ALTER TYPE`

DROP USER

Name

DROP USER — remove a database user account

Synopsis

```
DROP USER name
```

Description

DROP USER removes the specified user. It does not remove tables, views, or other objects owned by the user. If the user owns any database, an error is raised.

Parameters

name

The name of the user to remove.

Notes

PostgreSQL includes a program *dropuser* that has the same functionality as this command (in fact, it calls this command) but can be run from the command shell.

To drop a user who owns a database, first drop the database or change its ownership.

It is unwise to drop a user who either owns any database objects or has any granted permissions on objects. Currently, this is only enforced for the case of owners of databases, but it is likely that future versions of PostgreSQL will check other cases.

Examples

To drop a user account:

```
DROP USER jonathan;
```

Compatibility

The DROP USER statement is a PostgreSQL extension. The SQL standard leaves the definition of users to the implementation.

See Also

ALTER USER, CREATE USER

DROP VIEW

Name

DROP VIEW — remove a view

Synopsis

```
DROP VIEW name [ , ... ] [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

DROP VIEW drops an existing view. To execute this command you must be the owner of the view.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the view to remove.

CASCADE

Automatically drop objects that depend on the view (such as other views).

RESTRICT

Refuse to drop the view if any objects depend on it. This is the default.

Examples

This command will remove the view called `kinds`:

```
DROP VIEW kinds;
```

Compatibility

This command conforms to the SQL standard, except that the standard only allows one view to be dropped per command.

See Also

CREATE VIEW

END

Name

END — commit the current transaction

Synopsis

```
END [ WORK | TRANSACTION ]
```

Description

END commits the current transaction. All changes made by the transaction become visible to others and are guaranteed to be durable if a crash occurs. This command is a PostgreSQL extension that is equivalent to *COMMIT*.

Parameters

WORK
TRANSACTION

Optional key words. They have no effect.

Notes

Use *ROLLBACK* to abort a transaction.

Issuing END when not inside a transaction does no harm, but it will provoke a warning message.

Examples

To commit the current transaction and make all changes permanent:

```
END;
```

Compatibility

END is a PostgreSQL extension that provides functionality equivalent to *COMMIT*, which is specified in the SQL standard.

See Also

BEGIN, COMMIT, ROLLBACK

EXECUTE

Name

EXECUTE — execute a prepared statement

Synopsis

```
EXECUTE plan_name [ (parameter [, ...] ) ]
```

Description

EXECUTE is used to execute a previously prepared statement. Since prepared statements only exist for the duration of a session, the prepared statement must have been created by a PREPARE statement executed earlier in the current session.

If the PREPARE statement that created the statement specified some parameters, a compatible set of parameters must be passed to the EXECUTE statement, or else an error is raised. Note that (unlike functions) prepared statements are not overloaded based on the type or number of their parameters; the name of a prepared statement must be unique within a database session.

For more information on the creation and usage of prepared statements, see *PREPARE*.

Parameters

plan_name

The name of the prepared statement to execute.

parameter

The actual value of a parameter to the prepared statement. This must be an expression yielding a value of a type compatible with the data type specified for this parameter position in the PREPARE command that created the prepared statement.

Outputs

The command tag returned by EXECUTE is that of the prepared statement, and not EXECUTE.

Examples

Examples are given in the *Examples* section of the *PREPARE* documentation.

Compatibility

The SQL standard includes an `EXECUTE` statement, but it is only for use in embedded SQL. This version of the `EXECUTE` statement also uses a somewhat different syntax.

See Also

DEALLOCATE, PREPARE

EXPLAIN

Name

EXPLAIN — show the execution plan of a statement

Synopsis

```
EXPLAIN [ ANALYZE ] [ VERBOSE ] statement
```

Description

This command displays the execution plan that the PostgreSQL planner generates for the supplied statement. The execution plan shows how the table(s) referenced by the statement will be scanned — by plain sequential scan, index scan, etc. — and if multiple tables are referenced, what join algorithms will be used to bring together the required rows from each input table.

The most critical part of the display is the estimated statement execution cost, which is the planner's guess at how long it will take to run the statement (measured in units of disk page fetches). Actually two numbers are shown: the start-up time before the first row can be returned, and the total time to return all the rows. For most queries the total time is what matters, but in contexts such as a subquery in `EXISTS`, the planner will choose the smallest start-up time instead of the smallest total time (since the executor will stop after getting one row, anyway). Also, if you limit the number of rows to return with a `LIMIT` clause, the planner makes an appropriate interpolation between the endpoint costs to estimate which plan is really the cheapest.

The `ANALYZE` option causes the statement to be actually executed, not only planned. The total elapsed time expended within each plan node (in milliseconds) and total number of rows it actually returned are added to the display. This is useful for seeing whether the planner's estimates are close to reality.

Important: Keep in mind that the statement is actually executed when `ANALYZE` is used. Although `EXPLAIN` will discard any output that a `SELECT` would return, other side effects of the statement will happen as usual. If you wish to use `EXPLAIN ANALYZE` on an `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, or `EXECUTE` statement without letting the command affect your data, use this approach:

```
BEGIN;  
EXPLAIN ANALYZE ...;  
ROLLBACK;
```

Parameters

`ANALYZE`

Carry out the command and show the actual run times.

VERBOSE

Show the full internal representation of the plan tree, rather than just a summary. Usually this option is only useful for specialized debugging purposes. The `VERBOSE` output is either pretty-printed or not, depending on the setting of the `explain_pretty_print` configuration parameter.

statement

Any `SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, `EXECUTE`, or `DECLARE` statement, whose execution plan you wish to see.

Notes

There is only sparse documentation on the optimizer's use of cost information in PostgreSQL. Refer to Section 13.1 for more information.

In order to allow the PostgreSQL query planner to make reasonably informed decisions when optimizing queries, the `ANALYZE` statement should be run to record statistics about the distribution of data within the table. If you have not done this (or if the statistical distribution of the data in the table has changed significantly since the last time `ANALYZE` was run), the estimated costs are unlikely to conform to the real properties of the query, and consequently an inferior query plan may be chosen.

Prior to PostgreSQL 7.3, the plan was emitted in the form of a `NOTICE` message. Now it appears as a query result (formatted like a table with a single text column).

Examples

To show the plan for a simple query on a table with a single integer column and 10000 rows:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM foo;

              QUERY PLAN
-----
Seq Scan on foo (cost=0.00..155.00 rows=10000 width=4)
(1 row)
```

If there is an index and we use a query with an indexable `WHERE` condition, `EXPLAIN` might show a different plan:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM foo WHERE i = 4;

              QUERY PLAN
-----
Index Scan using fi on foo (cost=0.00..5.98 rows=1 width=4)
  Index Cond: (i = 4)
(2 rows)
```

And here is an example of a query plan for a query using an aggregate function:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT sum(i) FROM foo WHERE i < 10;
```

```
QUERY PLAN
```

```
-----
Aggregate  (cost=23.93..23.93 rows=1 width=4)
->  Index Scan using fi on foo  (cost=0.00..23.92 rows=6 width=4)
      Index Cond: (i < 10)
(3 rows)
```

Here is an example of using `EXPLAIN EXECUTE` to display the execution plan for a prepared query:

```
PREPARE query(int, int) AS SELECT sum(bar) FROM test
      WHERE id > $1 AND id < $2
      GROUP BY foo;
```

```
EXPLAIN ANALYZE EXECUTE query(100, 200);
```

```
QUERY PLAN
```

```
-----
HashAggregate  (cost=39.53..39.53 rows=1 width=8) (actual time=0.661..0.672 rows=7 loops=1)
->  Index Scan using test_pkey on test  (cost=0.00..32.97 rows=1311 width=8) (actual time=0.000..0.000 rows=1311 loops=1)
      Index Cond: ((id > $1) AND (id < $2))
Total runtime: 0.851 ms
(4 rows)
```

Of course, the specific numbers shown here depend on the actual contents of the tables involved. Also note that the numbers, and even the selected query strategy, may vary between PostgreSQL releases due to planner improvements. In addition, the `ANALYZE` command uses random sampling to estimate data statistics; therefore, it is possible for cost estimates to change after a fresh run of `ANALYZE`, even if the actual distribution of data in the table has not changed.

Compatibility

There is no `EXPLAIN` statement defined in the SQL standard.

See Also

ANALYZE

FETCH

Name

FETCH — retrieve rows from a query using a cursor

Synopsis

```
FETCH [ direction { FROM | IN } ] cursorname
```

where *direction* can be empty or one of:

```
NEXT  
PRIOR  
FIRST  
LAST  
ABSOLUTE count  
RELATIVE count  
count  
ALL  
FORWARD  
FORWARD count  
FORWARD ALL  
BACKWARD  
BACKWARD count  
BACKWARD ALL
```

Description

FETCH retrieves rows using a previously-created cursor.

A cursor has an associated position, which is used by FETCH. The cursor position can be before the first row of the query result, on any particular row of the result, or after the last row of the result. When created, a cursor is positioned before the first row. After fetching some rows, the cursor is positioned on the row most recently retrieved. If FETCH runs off the end of the available rows then the cursor is left positioned after the last row, or before the first row if fetching backward. FETCH ALL or FETCH BACKWARD ALL will always leave the cursor positioned after the last row or before the first row.

The forms NEXT, PRIOR, FIRST, LAST, ABSOLUTE, RELATIVE fetch a single row after moving the cursor appropriately. If there is no such row, an empty result is returned, and the cursor is left positioned before the first row or after the last row as appropriate.

The forms using FORWARD and BACKWARD retrieve the indicated number of rows moving in the forward or backward direction, leaving the cursor positioned on the last-returned row (or after/before all rows, if the *count* exceeds the number of rows available).

RELATIVE 0, FORWARD 0, and BACKWARD 0 all request fetching the current row without moving the cursor, that is, re-fetching the most recently fetched row. This will succeed unless the cursor is positioned before the first row or after the last row; in which case, no row is returned.

Parameters

direction

direction defines the fetch direction and number of rows to fetch. It can be one of the following:

NEXT

Fetch the next row. This is the default if *direction* is omitted.

PRIOR

Fetch the prior row.

FIRST

Fetch the first row of the query (same as ABSOLUTE 1).

LAST

Fetch the last row of the query (same as ABSOLUTE -1).

ABSOLUTE *count*

Fetch the *count*'th row of the query, or the $\text{abs}(\text{count})$ 'th row from the end if *count* is negative. Position before first row or after last row if *count* is out of range; in particular, ABSOLUTE 0 positions before the first row.

RELATIVE *count*

Fetch the *count*'th succeeding row, or the $\text{abs}(\text{count})$ 'th prior row if *count* is negative. RELATIVE 0 re-fetches the current row, if any.

count

Fetch the next *count* rows (same as FORWARD *count*).

ALL

Fetch all remaining rows (same as FORWARD ALL).

FORWARD

Fetch the next row (same as NEXT).

FORWARD *count*

Fetch the next *count* rows. FORWARD 0 re-fetches the current row.

FORWARD ALL

Fetch all remaining rows.

BACKWARD

Fetch the prior row (same as PRIOR).

BACKWARD *count*

Fetch the prior *count* rows (scanning backwards). BACKWARD 0 re-fetches the current row.

BACKWARD ALL

Fetch all prior rows (scanning backwards).

count

count is a possibly-signed integer constant, determining the location or number of rows to fetch. For FORWARD and BACKWARD cases, specifying a negative *count* is equivalent to changing the sense of FORWARD and BACKWARD.

cursorname

An open cursor's name.

Outputs

On successful completion, a FETCH command returns a command tag of the form

```
FETCH count
```

The *count* is the number of rows fetched (possibly zero). Note that in `psql`, the command tag will not actually be displayed, since `psql` displays the fetched rows instead.

Notes

The cursor should be declared with the `SCROLL` option if one intends to use any variants of `FETCH` other than `FETCH NEXT` or `FETCH FORWARD` with a positive count. For simple queries PostgreSQL will allow backwards fetch from cursors not declared with `SCROLL`, but this behavior is best not relied on. If the cursor is declared with `NO SCROLL`, no backward fetches are allowed.

`ABSOLUTE` fetches are not any faster than navigating to the desired row with a relative move: the underlying implementation must traverse all the intermediate rows anyway. Negative absolute fetches are even worse: the query must be read to the end to find the last row, and then traversed backward from there. However, rewinding to the start of the query (as with `FETCH ABSOLUTE 0`) is fast.

Updating data via a cursor is currently not supported by PostgreSQL.

`DECLARE` is used to define a cursor. Use `MOVE` to change cursor position without retrieving data.

Examples

The following example traverses a table using a cursor.

```
BEGIN WORK ;

-- Set up a cursor:
DECLARE liahona SCROLL CURSOR FOR SELECT * FROM films;
```

```
-- Fetch the first 5 rows in the cursor liahona:
FETCH FORWARD 5 FROM liahona;
```

code	title	did	date_prod	kind	len
BL101	The Third Man	101	1949-12-23	Drama	01:44
BL102	The African Queen	101	1951-08-11	Romantic	01:43
JL201	Une Femme est une Femme	102	1961-03-12	Romantic	01:25
P_301	Vertigo	103	1958-11-14	Action	02:08
P_302	Becket	103	1964-02-03	Drama	02:28

```
-- Fetch the previous row:
FETCH PRIOR FROM liahona;
```

code	title	did	date_prod	kind	len
P_301	Vertigo	103	1958-11-14	Action	02:08

```
-- Close the cursor and end the transaction:
CLOSE liahona;
COMMIT WORK;
```

Compatibility

The SQL standard defines `FETCH` for use in embedded SQL only. The variant of `FETCH` described here returns the data as if it were a `SELECT` result rather than placing it in host variables. Other than this point, `FETCH` is fully upward-compatible with the SQL standard.

The `FETCH` forms involving `FORWARD` and `BACKWARD`, as well as the forms `FETCH count` and `FETCH ALL`, in which `FORWARD` is implicit, are PostgreSQL extensions.

The SQL standard allows only `FROM` preceding the cursor name; the option to use `IN` is an extension.

See Also

CLOSE, DECLARE, MOVE

GRANT

Name

GRANT — define access privileges

Synopsis

```
GRANT { { SELECT | INSERT | UPDATE | DELETE | RULE | REFERENCES | TRIGGER }
        [,...] | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
ON [ TABLE ] tablename [, ...]
TO { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...] [ WITH GRANT OPTION ]

GRANT { { CREATE | TEMPORARY | TEMP } [,...] | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
ON DATABASE dbname [, ...]
TO { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...] [ WITH GRANT OPTION ]

GRANT { EXECUTE | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
ON FUNCTION funcname ([type, ...]) [, ...]
TO { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...] [ WITH GRANT OPTION ]

GRANT { USAGE | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
ON LANGUAGE langname [, ...]
TO { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...] [ WITH GRANT OPTION ]

GRANT { { CREATE | USAGE } [,...] | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
ON SCHEMA schemaname [, ...]
TO { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...] [ WITH GRANT OPTION ]

GRANT { CREATE | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
ON TABLESPACE tablespacename [, ...]
TO { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...] [ WITH GRANT OPTION ]
```

Description

The GRANT command gives specific privileges on an object (table, view, sequence, database, function, procedural language, schema, or tablespace) to one or more users or groups of users. These privileges are added to those already granted, if any.

The key word PUBLIC indicates that the privileges are to be granted to all users, including those that may be created later. PUBLIC may be thought of as an implicitly defined group that always includes all users. Any particular user will have the sum of privileges granted directly to him, privileges granted to any group he is presently a member of, and privileges granted to PUBLIC.

If WITH GRANT OPTION is specified, the recipient of the privilege may in turn grant it to others. Without a grant option, the recipient cannot do that. At present, grant options can only be granted to individual users, not to groups or PUBLIC.

There is no need to grant privileges to the owner of an object (usually the user that created it), as the owner has all privileges by default. (The owner could, however, choose to revoke some of his own privileges for

safety.) The right to drop an object, or to alter its definition in any way is not described by a grantable privilege; it is inherent in the owner, and cannot be granted or revoked. The owner implicitly has all grant options for the object, too.

Depending on the type of object, the initial default privileges may include granting some privileges to PUBLIC. The default is no public access for tables, schemas, and tablespaces; TEMP table creation privilege for databases; EXECUTE privilege for functions; and USAGE privilege for languages. The object owner may of course revoke these privileges. (For maximum security, issue the REVOKE in the same transaction that creates the object; then there is no window in which another user may use the object.)

The possible privileges are:

SELECT

Allows *SELECT* from any column of the specified table, view, or sequence. Also allows the use of *COPY TO*. For sequences, this privilege also allows the use of the `currval` function.

INSERT

Allows *INSERT* of a new row into the specified table. Also allows *COPY FROM*.

UPDATE

Allows *UPDATE* of any column of the specified table. *SELECT ... FOR UPDATE* also requires this privilege (besides the *SELECT* privilege). For sequences, this privilege allows the use of the `nextval` and `setval` functions.

DELETE

Allows *DELETE* of a row from the specified table.

RULE

Allows the creation of a rule on the table/view. (See the *CREATE RULE* statement.)

REFERENCES

To create a foreign key constraint, it is necessary to have this privilege on both the referencing and referenced tables.

TRIGGER

Allows the creation of a trigger on the specified table. (See the *CREATE TRIGGER* statement.)

CREATE

For databases, allows new schemas to be created within the database.

For schemas, allows new objects to be created within the schema. To rename an existing object, you must own the object *and* have this privilege for the containing schema.

For tablespaces, allows tables and indexes to be created within the tablespace, and allows databases to be created that have the tablespace as their default tablespace. (Note that revoking this privilege will not alter the placement of existing objects.)

TEMPORARY

TEMP

Allows temporary tables to be created while using the database.

EXECUTE

Allows the use of the specified function and the use of any operators that are implemented on top of the function. This is the only type of privilege that is applicable to functions. (This syntax works for aggregate functions, as well.)

USAGE

For procedural languages, allows the use of the specified language for the creation of functions in that language. This is the only type of privilege that is applicable to procedural languages.

For schemas, allows access to objects contained in the specified schema (assuming that the objects' own privilege requirements are also met). Essentially this allows the grantee to "look up" objects within the schema.

ALL PRIVILEGES

Grant all of the available privileges at once. The `PRIVILEGES` key word is optional in PostgreSQL, though it is required by strict SQL.

The privileges required by other commands are listed on the reference page of the respective command.

Notes

The *REVOKE* command is used to revoke access privileges.

When a non-owner of an object attempts to *GRANT* privileges on the object, the command will fail outright if the user has no privileges whatsoever on the object. As long as some privilege is available, the command will proceed, but it will grant only those privileges for which the user has grant options. The `GRANT ALL PRIVILEGES` forms will issue a warning message if no grant options are held, while the other forms will issue a warning if grant options for any of the privileges specifically named in the command are not held. (In principle these statements apply to the object owner as well, but since the owner is always treated as holding all grant options, the cases can never occur.)

It should be noted that database superusers can access all objects regardless of object privilege settings. This is comparable to the rights of `root` in a Unix system. As with `root`, it's unwise to operate as a superuser except when absolutely necessary.

If a superuser chooses to issue a *GRANT* or *REVOKE* command, the command is performed as though it were issued by the owner of the affected object. In particular, privileges granted via such a command will appear to have been granted by the object owner.

Currently, PostgreSQL does not support granting or revoking privileges for individual columns of a table. One possible workaround is to create a view having just the desired columns and then grant privileges to that view.

Use `psql's \z` command to obtain information about existing privileges, for example:

```
=> \z mytable
```

```

                                Access privileges for database "lusitania"
Schema | Name   | Type | Access privileges
-----+-----+-----+-----
public | mytable | table | {miriam=arwdRxt/miriam,=r/miriam,"group todos=arw/miriam"}
```

(1 row)

The entries shown by \z are interpreted thus:

```

=xxxx -- privileges granted to PUBLIC
uname=xxxx -- privileges granted to a user
group gname=xxxx -- privileges granted to a group

r -- SELECT ("read")
w -- UPDATE ("write")
a -- INSERT ("append")
d -- DELETE
R -- RULE
x -- REFERENCES
t -- TRIGGER
X -- EXECUTE
U -- USAGE
C -- CREATE
T -- TEMPORARY
arwdRxt -- ALL PRIVILEGES (for tables)
* -- grant option for preceding privilege

/yyyy -- user who granted this privilege

```

The above example display would be seen by user `miriam` after creating table `mytable` and doing

```

GRANT SELECT ON mytable TO PUBLIC;
GRANT SELECT, UPDATE, INSERT ON mytable TO GROUP todos;

```

If the “Access privileges” column is empty for a given object, it means the object has default privileges (that is, its privileges column is null). Default privileges always include all privileges for the owner, and may include some privileges for `PUBLIC` depending on the object type, as explained above. The first `GRANT` or `REVOKE` on an object will instantiate the default privileges (producing, for example, `{miriam=arwdRxt/miriam}`) and then modify them per the specified request.

Notice that the owner’s implicit grant options are not marked in the access privileges display. A `*` will appear only when grant options have been explicitly granted to someone.

Examples

Grant insert privilege to all users on table `films`:

```

GRANT INSERT ON films TO PUBLIC;

```

Grant all available privileges to user `manuel` on view `kinds`:

```

GRANT ALL PRIVILEGES ON kinds TO manuel;

```

Note that while the above will indeed grant all privileges if executed by a superuser or the owner of `kinds`, when executed by someone else it will only grant those permissions for which the someone else has grant options.

Compatibility

According to the SQL standard, the `PRIVILEGES` key word in `ALL PRIVILEGES` is required. The SQL standard does not support setting the privileges on more than one object per command.

PostgreSQL allows an object owner to revoke his own ordinary privileges: for example, a table owner can make the table read-only to himself by revoking his own `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` privileges. This is not possible according to the SQL standard. The reason is that PostgreSQL treats the owner's privileges as having been granted by the owner to himself; therefore he can revoke them too. In the SQL standard, the owner's privileges are granted by an assumed entity “`_SYSTEM`”. Not being “`_SYSTEM`”, the owner cannot revoke these rights.

The SQL standard allows setting privileges for individual columns within a table:

```
GRANT privileges
  ON table [ ( column [, ...] ) ] [, ...]
  TO { PUBLIC | username [, ...] } [ WITH GRANT OPTION ]
```

The SQL standard provides for a `USAGE` privilege on other kinds of objects: character sets, collations, translations, domains.

The `RULE` privilege, and privileges on databases, tablespaces, schemas, languages, and sequences are PostgreSQL extensions.

See Also

REVOKE

INSERT

Name

INSERT — create new rows in a table

Synopsis

```
INSERT INTO table [ ( column [, ...] ) ]  
    { DEFAULT VALUES | VALUES ( { expression | DEFAULT } [, ...] ) | query }
```

Description

INSERT inserts new rows into a table. One can insert a single row specified by value expressions, or several rows as a result of a query.

The target column names may be listed in any order. If no list of column names is given at all, the default is all the columns of the table in their declared order; or the first *N* column names, if there are only *N* columns supplied by the VALUES clause or *query*. The values supplied by the VALUES clause or *query* are associated with the explicit or implicit column list left-to-right.

Each column not present in the explicit or implicit column list will be filled with a default value, either its declared default value or null if there is none.

If the expression for any column is not of the correct data type, automatic type conversion will be attempted.

You must have INSERT privilege to a table in order to insert into it. If you use the *query* clause to insert rows from a query, you also need to have SELECT privilege on any table used in the query.

Parameters

table

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing table.

column

The name of a column in *table*. The column name can be qualified with a subfield name or array subscript, if needed. (Inserting into only some fields of a composite column leaves the other fields null.)

DEFAULT VALUES

All columns will be filled with their default values.

expression

An expression or value to assign to the corresponding *column*.

DEFAULT

The corresponding *column* will be filled with its default value.

query

A query (`SELECT` statement) that supplies the rows to be inserted. Refer to the `SELECT` statement for a description of the syntax.

Outputs

On successful completion, an `INSERT` command returns a command tag of the form

```
INSERT oid count
```

The *count* is the number of rows inserted. If *count* is exactly one, and the target table has OIDs, then *oid* is the OID assigned to the inserted row. Otherwise *oid* is zero.

Examples

Insert a single row into table `films`:

```
INSERT INTO films VALUES
    ('UA502', 'Bananas', 105, '1971-07-13', 'Comedy', '82 minutes');
```

In this example, the `len` column is omitted and therefore it will have the default value:

```
INSERT INTO films (code, title, did, date_prod, kind)
    VALUES ('T_601', 'Yojimbo', 106, '1961-06-16', 'Drama');
```

This example uses the `DEFAULT` clause for the date columns rather than specifying a value:

```
INSERT INTO films VALUES
    ('UA502', 'Bananas', 105, DEFAULT, 'Comedy', '82 minutes');
INSERT INTO films (code, title, did, date_prod, kind)
    VALUES ('T_601', 'Yojimbo', 106, DEFAULT, 'Drama');
```

To insert a row consisting entirely of default values:

```
INSERT INTO films DEFAULT VALUES;
```

This example inserts some rows into table `films` from a table `tmp_films` with the same column layout as `films`:

```
INSERT INTO films SELECT * FROM tmp_films WHERE date_prod < '2004-05-07';
```

This example inserts into array columns:

```
-- Create an empty 3x3 gameboard for noughts-and-crosses
-- (these commands create the same board)
INSERT INTO tictactoe (game, board[1:3][1:3])
  VALUES (1, '{{"", "", ""}, {"", "", ""}, {"", "", ""}}');
INSERT INTO tictactoe (game, board)
  VALUES (2, '{{" }, {" }, {" } }');
```

Compatibility

INSERT conforms to the SQL standard. The case in which a column name list is omitted, but not all the columns are filled from the VALUES clause or *query*, is disallowed by the standard.

Possible limitations of the *query* clause are documented under *SELECT*.

LISTEN

Name

LISTEN — listen for a notification

Synopsis

```
LISTEN name
```

Description

LISTEN registers the current session as a listener on the notification condition *name*. If the current session is already registered as a listener for this notification condition, nothing is done.

Whenever the command NOTIFY *name* is invoked, either by this session or another one connected to the same database, all the sessions currently listening on that notification condition are notified, and each will in turn notify its connected client application. See the discussion of NOTIFY for more information.

A session can be unregistered for a given notify condition with the UNLISTEN command. A session's listen registrations are automatically cleared when the session ends.

The method a client application must use to detect notification events depends on which PostgreSQL application programming interface it uses. With the libpq library, the application issues LISTEN as an ordinary SQL command, and then must periodically call the function PQnotifies to find out whether any notification events have been received. Other interfaces such as libpqtc1 provide higher-level methods for handling notify events; indeed, with libpqtc1 the application programmer should not even issue LISTEN or UNLISTEN directly. See the documentation for the interface you are using for more details.

NOTIFY contains a more extensive discussion of the use of LISTEN and NOTIFY.

Parameters

name

Name of a notify condition (any identifier).

Examples

Configure and execute a listen/notify sequence from psql:

```
LISTEN virtual;  
NOTIFY virtual;  
Asynchronous notification "virtual" received from server process with PID 8448.
```

Compatibility

There is no `LISTEN` statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

NOTIFY, UNLISTEN

LOAD

Name

LOAD — load or reload a shared library file

Synopsis

```
LOAD 'filename'
```

Description

This command loads a shared library file into the PostgreSQL server's address space. If the file had been loaded previously, it is first unloaded. This command is primarily useful to unload and reload a shared library file that has been changed since the server first loaded it. To make use of the shared library, function(s) in it need to be declared using the *CREATE FUNCTION* command.

The file name is specified in the same way as for shared library names in *CREATE FUNCTION*; in particular, one may rely on a search path and automatic addition of the system's standard shared library file name extension. See Section 31.9 for more information on this topic.

Compatibility

LOAD is a PostgreSQL extension.

See Also

CREATE FUNCTION

LOCK

Name

LOCK — lock a table

Synopsis

```
LOCK [ TABLE ] name [, ...] [ IN lockmode MODE ] [ NOWAIT ]
```

where *lockmode* is one of:

```
ACCESS SHARE | ROW SHARE | ROW EXCLUSIVE | SHARE UPDATE EXCLUSIVE  
| SHARE | SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE | EXCLUSIVE | ACCESS EXCLUSIVE
```

Description

LOCK TABLE obtains a table-level lock, waiting if necessary for any conflicting locks to be released. If NOWAIT is specified, LOCK TABLE does not wait to acquire the desired lock: if it cannot be acquired immediately, the command is aborted and an error is emitted. Once obtained, the lock is held for the remainder of the current transaction. (There is no UNLOCK TABLE command; locks are always released at transaction end.)

When acquiring locks automatically for commands that reference tables, PostgreSQL always uses the least restrictive lock mode possible. LOCK TABLE provides for cases when you might need more restrictive locking. For example, suppose an application runs a transaction at the Read Committed isolation level and needs to ensure that data in a table remains stable for the duration of the transaction. To achieve this you could obtain SHARE lock mode over the table before querying. This will prevent concurrent data changes and ensure subsequent reads of the table see a stable view of committed data, because SHARE lock mode conflicts with the ROW EXCLUSIVE lock acquired by writers, and your LOCK TABLE *name* IN SHARE MODE statement will wait until any concurrent holders of ROW EXCLUSIVE mode locks commit or roll back. Thus, once you obtain the lock, there are no uncommitted writes outstanding; furthermore none can begin until you release the lock.

To achieve a similar effect when running a transaction at the Serializable isolation level, you have to execute the LOCK TABLE statement before executing any SELECT or data modification statement. A serializable transaction's view of data will be frozen when its first SELECT or data modification statement begins. A LOCK TABLE later in the transaction will still prevent concurrent writes — but it won't ensure that what the transaction reads corresponds to the latest committed values.

If a transaction of this sort is going to change the data in the table, then it should use SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE lock mode instead of SHARE mode. This ensures that only one transaction of this type runs at a time. Without this, a deadlock is possible: two transactions might both acquire SHARE mode, and then be unable to also acquire ROW EXCLUSIVE mode to actually perform their updates. (Note that a transaction's own locks never conflict, so a transaction can acquire ROW EXCLUSIVE mode when it holds SHARE mode — but not if anyone else holds SHARE mode.) To avoid deadlocks, make sure all transactions acquire locks on the same objects in the same order, and if multiple lock modes are involved for a single object, then transactions should always acquire the most restrictive mode first.

More information about the lock modes and locking strategies can be found in Section 12.3.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing table to lock.

The command `LOCK TABLE a, b;` is equivalent to `LOCK TABLE a; LOCK TABLE b;`. The tables are locked one-by-one in the order specified in the `LOCK TABLE` command.

lockmode

The lock mode specifies which locks this lock conflicts with. Lock modes are described in Section 12.3.

If no lock mode is specified, then `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE`, the most restrictive mode, is used.

`NOWAIT`

Specifies that `LOCK TABLE` should not wait for any conflicting locks to be released: if the specified lock(s) cannot be acquired immediately without waiting, the transaction is aborted.

Notes

`LOCK TABLE ... IN ACCESS SHARE MODE` requires `SELECT` privileges on the target table. All other forms of `LOCK TABLE` require `UPDATE` and/or `DELETE` privileges.

`LOCK TABLE` is useful only inside a transaction block (`BEGIN/COMMIT` pair), since the lock is dropped as soon as the transaction ends. A `LOCK TABLE` command appearing outside any transaction block forms a self-contained transaction, so the lock will be dropped as soon as it is obtained.

`LOCK TABLE` only deals with table-level locks, and so the mode names involving `ROW` are all misnomers. These mode names should generally be read as indicating the intention of the user to acquire row-level locks within the locked table. Also, `ROW EXCLUSIVE` mode is a sharable table lock. Keep in mind that all the lock modes have identical semantics so far as `LOCK TABLE` is concerned, differing only in the rules about which modes conflict with which. For information on how to acquire an actual row-level lock, see Section 12.3.2 and the *FOR UPDATE Clause* in the `SELECT` reference documentation.

Examples

Obtain a `SHARE` lock on a primary key table when going to perform inserts into a foreign key table:

```
BEGIN WORK;
LOCK TABLE films IN SHARE MODE;
SELECT id FROM films
    WHERE name = 'Star Wars: Episode I - The Phantom Menace';
-- Do ROLLBACK if record was not returned
INSERT INTO films_user_comments VALUES
    (_id_, 'GREAT! I was waiting for it for so long!');
COMMIT WORK;
```

Take a `SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE` lock on a primary key table when going to perform a delete operation:

```
BEGIN WORK;  
LOCK TABLE films IN SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE MODE;  
DELETE FROM films_user_comments WHERE id IN  
    (SELECT id FROM films WHERE rating < 5);  
DELETE FROM films WHERE rating < 5;  
COMMIT WORK;
```

Compatibility

There is no `LOCK TABLE` in the SQL standard, which instead uses `SET TRANSACTION` to specify concurrency levels on transactions. PostgreSQL supports that too; see *SET TRANSACTION* for details.

Except for `ACCESS SHARE`, `ACCESS EXCLUSIVE`, and `SHARE UPDATE EXCLUSIVE` lock modes, the PostgreSQL lock modes and the `LOCK TABLE` syntax are compatible with those present in Oracle.

MOVE

Name

MOVE — position a cursor

Synopsis

```
MOVE [ direction { FROM | IN } ] cursorname
```

Description

MOVE repositions a cursor without retrieving any data. MOVE works exactly like the FETCH command, except it only positions the cursor and does not return rows.

Refer to *FETCH* for details on syntax and usage.

Outputs

On successful completion, a MOVE command returns a command tag of the form

```
MOVE count
```

The *count* is the number of rows that a FETCH command with the same parameters would have returned (possibly zero).

Examples

```
BEGIN WORK;
DECLARE liahona CURSOR FOR SELECT * FROM films;

-- Skip the first 5 rows:
MOVE FORWARD 5 IN liahona;
MOVE 5

-- Fetch the 6th row from the cursor liahona:
FETCH 1 FROM liahona;
  code | title | did | date_prod | kind | len
-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----
  P_303 | 48 Hrs | 103 | 1982-10-22 | Action | 01:37
(1 row)

-- Close the cursor liahona and end the transaction:
CLOSE liahona;
COMMIT WORK;
```

Compatibility

There is no *MOVE* statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

CLOSE, DECLARE, FETCH

NOTIFY

Name

NOTIFY — generate a notification

Synopsis

```
NOTIFY name
```

Description

The `NOTIFY` command sends a notification event to each client application that has previously executed `LISTEN name` for the specified notification name in the current database.

`NOTIFY` provides a simple form of signal or interprocess communication mechanism for a collection of processes accessing the same PostgreSQL database. Higher-level mechanisms can be built by using tables in the database to pass additional data (beyond a mere notification name) from notifier to listener(s).

The information passed to the client for a notification event includes the notification name and the notifying session's server process PID. It is up to the database designer to define the notification names that will be used in a given database and what each one means.

Commonly, the notification name is the same as the name of some table in the database, and the notify event essentially means, "I changed this table, take a look at it to see what's new". But no such association is enforced by the `NOTIFY` and `LISTEN` commands. For example, a database designer could use several different notification names to signal different sorts of changes to a single table.

When `NOTIFY` is used to signal the occurrence of changes to a particular table, a useful programming technique is to put the `NOTIFY` in a rule that is triggered by table updates. In this way, notification happens automatically when the table is changed, and the application programmer can't accidentally forget to do it.

`NOTIFY` interacts with SQL transactions in some important ways. Firstly, if a `NOTIFY` is executed inside a transaction, the notify events are not delivered until and unless the transaction is committed. This is appropriate, since if the transaction is aborted, all the commands within it have had no effect, including `NOTIFY`. But it can be disconcerting if one is expecting the notification events to be delivered immediately. Secondly, if a listening session receives a notification signal while it is within a transaction, the notification event will not be delivered to its connected client until just after the transaction is completed (either committed or aborted). Again, the reasoning is that if a notification were delivered within a transaction that was later aborted, one would want the notification to be undone somehow — but the server cannot "take back" a notification once it has sent it to the client. So notification events are only delivered between transactions. The upshot of this is that applications using `NOTIFY` for real-time signaling should try to keep their transactions short.

`NOTIFY` behaves like Unix signals in one important respect: if the same notification name is signaled multiple times in quick succession, recipients may get only one notification event for several executions of `NOTIFY`. So it is a bad idea to depend on the number of notifications received. Instead, use `NOTIFY`

to wake up applications that need to pay attention to something, and use a database object (such as a sequence) to keep track of what happened or how many times it happened.

It is common for a client that executes `NOTIFY` to be listening on the same notification name itself. In that case it will get back a notification event, just like all the other listening sessions. Depending on the application logic, this could result in useless work, for example, reading a database table to find the same updates that that session just wrote out. It is possible to avoid such extra work by noticing whether the notifying session's server process PID (supplied in the notification event message) is the same as one's own session's PID (available from `libpq`). When they are the same, the notification event is one's own work bouncing back, and can be ignored. (Despite what was said in the preceding paragraph, this is a safe technique. PostgreSQL keeps self-notifications separate from notifications arriving from other sessions, so you cannot miss an outside notification by ignoring your own notifications.)

Parameters

name

Name of the notification to be signaled (any identifier).

Examples

Configure and execute a listen/notify sequence from `psql`:

```
LISTEN virtual;  
NOTIFY virtual;  
Asynchronous notification "virtual" received from server process with PID 8448.
```

Compatibility

There is no `NOTIFY` statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

LISTEN, *UNLISTEN*

PREPARE

Name

PREPARE — prepare a statement for execution

Synopsis

```
PREPARE plan_name [ (datatype [, ...] ) ] AS statement
```

Description

PREPARE creates a prepared statement. A prepared statement is a server-side object that can be used to optimize performance. When the PREPARE statement is executed, the specified statement is parsed, rewritten, and planned. When an EXECUTE command is subsequently issued, the prepared statement need only be executed. Thus, the parsing, rewriting, and planning stages are only performed once, instead of every time the statement is executed.

Prepared statements can take parameters: values that are substituted into the statement when it is executed. To include parameters in a prepared statement, supply a list of data types in the PREPARE statement, and, in the statement to be prepared itself, refer to the parameters by position using \$1, \$2, etc. When executing the statement, specify the actual values for these parameters in the EXECUTE statement. Refer to *EXECUTE* for more information about that.

Prepared statements only last for the duration of the current database session. When the session ends, the prepared statement is forgotten, so it must be recreated before being used again. This also means that a single prepared statement cannot be used by multiple simultaneous database clients; however, each client can create their own prepared statement to use. The prepared statement can be manually cleaned up using the DEALLOCATE command.

Prepared statements have the largest performance advantage when a single session is being used to execute a large number of similar statements. The performance difference will be particularly significant if the statements are complex to plan or rewrite, for example, if the query involves a join of many tables or requires the application of several rules. If the statement is relatively simple to plan and rewrite but relatively expensive to execute, the performance advantage of prepared statements will be less noticeable.

Parameters

plan_name

An arbitrary name given to this particular prepared statement. It must be unique within a single session and is subsequently used to execute or deallocate a previously prepared statement.

datatype

The data type of a parameter to the prepared statement. To refer to the parameters in the prepared statement itself, use \$1, \$2, etc.

statement

Any SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement.

Notes

In some situations, the query plan produced for a prepared statement will be inferior to the query plan that would have been chosen if the statement had been submitted and executed normally. This is because when the statement is planned and the planner attempts to determine the optimal query plan, the actual values of any parameters specified in the statement are unavailable. PostgreSQL collects statistics on the distribution of data in the table, and can use constant values in a statement to make guesses about the likely result of executing the statement. Since this data is unavailable when planning prepared statements with parameters, the chosen plan may be suboptimal. To examine the query plan PostgreSQL has chosen for a prepared statement, use *EXPLAIN*.

For more information on query planning and the statistics collected by PostgreSQL for that purpose, see the *ANALYZE* documentation.

Examples

Create a prepared query for an INSERT statement, and then execute it:

```
PREPARE fooplan (int, text, bool, numeric) AS
    INSERT INTO foo VALUES($1, $2, $3, $4);
EXECUTE fooplan(1, 'Hunter Valley', 't', 200.00);
```

Create a prepared query for a SELECT statement, and then execute it:

```
PREPARE usrrptplan (int, date) AS
    SELECT * FROM users u, logs l WHERE u.usrid=$1 AND u.usrid=l.usrid
    AND l.date = $2;
EXECUTE usrrptplan(1, current_date);
```

Compatibility

The SQL standard includes a PREPARE statement, but it is only for use in embedded SQL. This version of the PREPARE statement also uses a somewhat different syntax.

See Also

DEALLOCATE, *EXECUTE*

REINDEX

Name

REINDEX — rebuild indexes

Synopsis

```
REINDEX { DATABASE | TABLE | INDEX } name [ FORCE ]
```

Description

REINDEX rebuilds an index based on the data stored in the index's table, replacing the old copy of the index. There are two main reasons to use REINDEX:

- An index has become corrupted, and no longer contains valid data. Although in theory this should never happen, in practice indexes may become corrupted due to software bugs or hardware failures. REINDEX provides a recovery method.
- The index in question contains a lot of dead index pages that are not being reclaimed. This can occur with B-tree indexes in PostgreSQL under certain access patterns. REINDEX provides a way to reduce the space consumption of the index by writing a new version of the index without the dead pages. See Section 21.2 for more information.

Parameters

DATABASE

Recreate all system indexes of a specified database. Indexes on user tables are not processed. Also, indexes on shared system catalogs are skipped except in stand-alone mode (see below).

TABLE

Recreate all indexes of a specified table. If the table has a secondary “TOAST” table, that is reindexed as well.

INDEX

Recreate a specified index.

name

The name of the specific database, table, or index to be reindexed. Table and index names may be schema-qualified. Presently, REINDEX DATABASE can only reindex the current database, so its parameter must match the current database's name.

FORCE

This is an obsolete option; it is ignored if specified.

Notes

If you suspect corruption of an index on a user table, you can simply rebuild that index, or all indexes on the table, using `REINDEX INDEX` or `REINDEX TABLE`.

Things are more difficult if you need to recover from corruption of an index on a system table. In this case it's important for the system to not have used any of the suspect indexes itself. (Indeed, in this sort of scenario you may find that server processes are crashing immediately at start-up, due to reliance on the corrupted indexes.) To recover safely, the server must be started with the `-P` option, which prevents it from using indexes for system catalog lookups.

One way to do this is to shut down the postmaster and start a stand-alone PostgreSQL server with the `-P` option included on its command line. Then, `REINDEX DATABASE`, `REINDEX TABLE`, or `REINDEX INDEX` can be issued, depending on how much you want to reconstruct. If in doubt, use `REINDEX DATABASE` to select reconstruction of all system indexes in the database. Then quit the standalone server session and restart the regular server. See the postgres reference page for more information about how to interact with the stand-alone server interface.

Alternatively, a regular server session can be started with `-P` included in its command line options. The method for doing this varies across clients, but in all libpq-based clients, it is possible to set the `PGOPTIONS` environment variable to `-P` before starting the client. Note that while this method does not require locking out other clients, it may still be wise to prevent other users from connecting to the damaged database until repairs have been completed.

If corruption is suspected in the indexes of any of the shared system catalogs (`pg_database`, `pg_group`, `pg_shadow`, or `pg_tablespace`), then a standalone server must be used to repair it. `REINDEX` will not process shared catalogs in multiuser mode.

For all indexes except the shared system catalogs, `REINDEX` is crash-safe and transaction-safe. `REINDEX` is not crash-safe for shared indexes, which is why this case is disallowed during normal operation. If a failure occurs while reindexing one of these catalogs in standalone mode, it will not be possible to restart the regular server until the problem is rectified. (The typical symptom of a partially rebuilt shared index is “index is not a btree” errors.)

`REINDEX` is similar to a drop and recreate of the index in that the index contents are rebuilt from scratch. However, the locking considerations are rather different. `REINDEX` locks out writes but not reads of the index's parent table. It also takes an exclusive lock on the specific index being processed, which will block reads that attempt to use that index. In contrast, `DROP INDEX` momentarily takes exclusive lock on the parent table, blocking both writes and reads. The subsequent `CREATE INDEX` locks out writes but not reads; since the index is not there, no read will attempt to use it, meaning that there will be no blocking but reads may be forced into expensive sequential scans. Another important point is that the drop/create approach invalidates any cached query plans that use the index, while `REINDEX` does not.

Prior to PostgreSQL 7.4, `REINDEX TABLE` did not automatically process TOAST tables, and so those had to be reindexed by separate commands. This is still possible, but redundant.

Examples

Recreate the indexes on the table `my_table`:

```
REINDEX TABLE my_table;
```

Rebuild a single index:

```
REINDEX INDEX my_index;
```

Rebuild all system indexes in a particular database, without trusting them to be valid already:

```
$ export PGOPTIONS="-P"  
$ psql broken_db  
...  
broken_db=> REINDEX DATABASE broken_db;  
broken_db=> \q
```

Compatibility

There is no `REINDEX` command in the SQL standard.

RELEASE SAVEPOINT

Name

RELEASE SAVEPOINT — destroy a previously defined savepoint

Synopsis

```
RELEASE [ SAVEPOINT ] savepoint_name
```

Description

RELEASE SAVEPOINT destroys a savepoint previously defined in the current transaction.

Destroying a savepoint makes it unavailable as a rollback point, but it has no other user visible behavior. It does not undo the effects of commands executed after the savepoint was established. (To do that, see *ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT*.) Destroying a savepoint when it is no longer needed may allow the system to reclaim some resources earlier than transaction end.

RELEASE SAVEPOINT also destroys all savepoints that were established after the named savepoint was established.

Parameters

savepoint_name

The name of the savepoint to destroy.

Notes

Specifying a savepoint name that was not previously defined is an error.

It is not possible to release a savepoint when the transaction is in an aborted state.

If multiple savepoints have the same name, only the one that was most recently defined is released.

Examples

To establish and later destroy a savepoint:

```
BEGIN;  
  INSERT INTO table1 VALUES (3);  
  SAVEPOINT my_savepoint;  
  INSERT INTO table1 VALUES (4);  
  RELEASE SAVEPOINT my_savepoint;  
COMMIT;
```

The above transaction will insert both 3 and 4.

Compatibility

This command conforms to the SQL:2003 standard. The standard specifies that the key word *SAVEPOINT* is mandatory, but PostgreSQL allows it to be omitted.

See Also

BEGIN, COMMIT, ROLLBACK, ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT, SAVEPOINT

RESET

Name

RESET — restore the value of a run-time parameter to the default value

Synopsis

```
RESET name
RESET ALL
```

Description

RESET restores run-time parameters to their default values. RESET is an alternative spelling for

```
SET parameter TO DEFAULT
```

Refer to *SET* for details.

The default value is defined as the value that the parameter would have had, had no *SET* ever been issued for it in the current session. The actual source of this value might be a compiled-in default, the configuration file, command-line options, or per-database or per-user default settings. See Section 16.4 for details.

See the *SET* reference page for details on the transaction behavior of RESET.

Parameters

name

The name of a run-time parameter. See *SET* for a list.

ALL

Resets all settable run-time parameters to default values.

Examples

Set the `geqo` configuration variable to its default value:

```
RESET geqo ;
```

Compatibility

RESET is a PostgreSQL extension.

REVOKE

Name

REVOKE — remove access privileges

Synopsis

```
REVOKE [ GRANT OPTION FOR ]
    { { SELECT | INSERT | UPDATE | DELETE | RULE | REFERENCES | TRIGGER }
      [,...] | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
    ON [ TABLE ] tablename [, ...]
    FROM { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...]
    [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

```
REVOKE [ GRANT OPTION FOR ]
    { { CREATE | TEMPORARY | TEMP } [,...] | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
    ON DATABASE dbname [, ...]
    FROM { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...]
    [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

```
REVOKE [ GRANT OPTION FOR ]
    { EXECUTE | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
    ON FUNCTION funcname ([type, ...]) [, ...]
    FROM { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...]
    [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

```
REVOKE [ GRANT OPTION FOR ]
    { USAGE | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
    ON LANGUAGE langname [, ...]
    FROM { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...]
    [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

```
REVOKE [ GRANT OPTION FOR ]
    { { CREATE | USAGE } [,...] | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
    ON SCHEMA schemaname [, ...]
    FROM { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...]
    [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

```
REVOKE [ GRANT OPTION FOR ]
    { CREATE | ALL [ PRIVILEGES ] }
    ON TABLESPACE tablespacename [, ...]
    FROM { username | GROUP groupname | PUBLIC } [, ...]
    [ CASCADE | RESTRICT ]
```

Description

The `REVOKE` command revokes previously granted privileges from one or more users or groups of users. The key word `PUBLIC` refers to the implicitly defined group of all users.

See the description of the `GRANT` command for the meaning of the privilege types.

Note that any particular user will have the sum of privileges granted directly to him, privileges granted to any group he is presently a member of, and privileges granted to `PUBLIC`. Thus, for example, revoking `SELECT` privilege from `PUBLIC` does not necessarily mean that all users have lost `SELECT` privilege on the object: those who have it granted directly or via a group will still have it.

If `GRANT OPTION FOR` is specified, only the grant option for the privilege is revoked, not the privilege itself. Otherwise, both the privilege and the grant option are revoked.

If a user holds a privilege with grant option and has granted it to other users then the privileges held by those other users are called dependent privileges. If the privilege or the grant option held by the first user is being revoked and dependent privileges exist, those dependent privileges are also revoked if `CASCADE` is specified, else the revoke action will fail. This recursive revocation only affects privileges that were granted through a chain of users that is traceable to the user that is the subject of this `REVOKE` command. Thus, the affected users may effectively keep the privilege if it was also granted through other users.

Notes

Use `psql`'s `\z` command to display the privileges granted on existing objects. See `GRANT` for information about the format.

A user can only revoke privileges that were granted directly by that user. If, for example, user A has granted a privilege with grant option to user B, and user B has in turned granted it to user C, then user A cannot revoke the privilege directly from C. Instead, user A could revoke the grant option from user B and use the `CASCADE` option so that the privilege is in turn revoked from user C. For another example, if both A and B have granted the same privilege to C, A can revoke his own grant but not B's grant, so C will still effectively have the privilege.

When a non-owner of an object attempts to `REVOKE` privileges on the object, the command will fail outright if the user has no privileges whatsoever on the object. As long as some privilege is available, the command will proceed, but it will revoke only those privileges for which the user has grant options. The `REVOKE ALL PRIVILEGES` forms will issue a warning message if no grant options are held, while the other forms will issue a warning if grant options for any of the privileges specifically named in the command are not held. (In principle these statements apply to the object owner as well, but since the owner is always treated as holding all grant options, the cases can never occur.)

If a superuser chooses to issue a `GRANT` or `REVOKE` command, the command is performed as though it were issued by the owner of the affected object. Since all privileges ultimately come from the object owner (possibly indirectly via chains of grant options), it is possible for a superuser to revoke all privileges, but this may require use of `CASCADE` as stated above.

Examples

Revoke insert privilege for the public on table `films`:

```
REVOKE INSERT ON films FROM PUBLIC;
```

Revoke all privileges from user manuel on view kinds:

```
REVOKE ALL PRIVILEGES ON kinds FROM manuel;
```

Note that this actually means “revoke all privileges that I granted”.

Compatibility

The compatibility notes of the *GRANT* command apply analogously to *REVOKE*. The syntax summary is:

```
REVOKE [ GRANT OPTION FOR ] privileges  
ON object [ ( column [, ...] ) ]  
FROM { PUBLIC | username [, ...] }  
{ RESTRICT | CASCADE }
```

One of *RESTRICT* or *CASCADE* is required according to the standard, but PostgreSQL assumes *RESTRICT* by default.

See Also

GRANT

ROLLBACK

Name

ROLLBACK — abort the current transaction

Synopsis

```
ROLLBACK [ WORK | TRANSACTION ]
```

Description

ROLLBACK rolls back the current transaction and causes all the updates made by the transaction to be discarded.

Parameters

WORK
TRANSACTION

Optional key words. They have no effect.

Notes

Use *COMMIT* to successfully terminate a transaction.

Issuing ROLLBACK when not inside a transaction does no harm, but it will provoke a warning message.

Examples

To abort all changes:

```
ROLLBACK ;
```

Compatibility

The SQL standard only specifies the two forms ROLLBACK and ROLLBACK WORK. Otherwise, this command is fully conforming.

See Also

BEGIN, COMMIT, ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT

ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT

Name

ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT — roll back to a savepoint

Synopsis

```
ROLLBACK [ WORK | TRANSACTION ] TO [ SAVEPOINT ] savepoint_name
```

Description

Roll back all commands that were executed after the savepoint was established. The savepoint remains valid and can be rolled back to again later, if needed.

ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT implicitly destroys all savepoints that were established after the named savepoint.

Parameters

savepoint_name

The savepoint to roll back to.

Notes

Use *RELEASE SAVEPOINT* to destroy a savepoint without discarding the effects of commands executed after it was established.

Specifying a savepoint name that has not been established is an error.

Cursors have somewhat non-transactional behavior with respect to savepoints. Any cursor that is opened inside the savepoint is not closed when the savepoint is rolled back. If a cursor is affected by a `FETCH` command inside a savepoint that is later rolled back, the cursor position remains at the position that `FETCH` left it pointing to (that is, `FETCH` is not rolled back). A cursor whose execution causes a transaction to abort is put in a can't-execute state, so while the transaction can be restored using `ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT`, the cursor can no longer be used.

Examples

To undo the effects of the commands executed after `my_savepoint` was established:

```
ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT my_savepoint;
```

Cursor positions are not affected by savepoint rollback:

```
BEGIN;

DECLARE foo CURSOR FOR SELECT 1 UNION SELECT 2;

SAVEPOINT foo;

FETCH 1 FROM foo;
?column?
-----
      1

ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT foo;

FETCH 1 FROM foo;
?column?
-----
      2

COMMIT;
```

Compatibility

The SQL:2003 standard specifies that the key word `SAVEPOINT` is mandatory, but PostgreSQL and Oracle allow it to be omitted. SQL:2003 allows only `WORK`, not `TRANSACTION`, as a noise word after `ROLLBACK`. Also, SQL:2003 has an optional clause `AND [NO] CHAIN` which is not currently supported by PostgreSQL. Otherwise, this command conforms to the SQL standard.

See Also

BEGIN, COMMIT, RELEASE SAVEPOINT, ROLLBACK, SAVEPOINT

SAVEPOINT

Name

SAVEPOINT — define a new savepoint within the current transaction

Synopsis

```
SAVEPOINT savepoint_name
```

Description

SAVEPOINT establishes a new savepoint within the current transaction.

A savepoint is a special mark inside a transaction that allows all commands that are executed after it was established to be rolled back, restoring the transaction state to what it was at the time of the savepoint.

Parameters

savepoint_name

The name to give to the new savepoint.

Notes

Use *ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT* to rollback to a savepoint. Use *RELEASE SAVEPOINT* to destroy a savepoint, keeping the effects of commands executed after it was established.

Savepoints can only be established when inside a transaction block. There can be multiple savepoints defined within a transaction.

Examples

To establish a savepoint and later undo the effects of all commands executed after it was established:

```
BEGIN;  
  INSERT INTO table1 VALUES (1);  
  SAVEPOINT my_savepoint;  
  INSERT INTO table1 VALUES (2);  
  ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT my_savepoint;  
  INSERT INTO table1 VALUES (3);  
COMMIT;
```

The above transaction will insert the values 1 and 3, but not 2.

To establish and later destroy a savepoint:

```
BEGIN;  
    INSERT INTO table1 VALUES (3);  
    SAVEPOINT my_savepoint;  
    INSERT INTO table1 VALUES (4);  
    RELEASE SAVEPOINT my_savepoint;  
COMMIT;
```

The above transaction will insert both 3 and 4.

Compatibility

SQL requires a savepoint to be destroyed automatically when another savepoint with the same name is established. In PostgreSQL, the old savepoint is kept, though only the more recent one will be used when rolling back or releasing. (Releasing the newer savepoint will cause the older one to again become accessible to `ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT` and `RELEASE SAVEPOINT`.) Otherwise, `SAVEPOINT` is fully SQL conforming.

See Also

BEGIN, COMMIT, RELEASE SAVEPOINT, ROLLBACK, ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT

SELECT

Name

SELECT — retrieve rows from a table or view

Synopsis

```
SELECT [ ALL | DISTINCT [ ON ( expression [, ...] ) ] ]
      * | expression [ AS output_name ] [, ...]
      [ FROM from_item [, ...] ]
      [ WHERE condition ]
      [ GROUP BY expression [, ...] ]
      [ HAVING condition [, ...] ]
      [ { UNION | INTERSECT | EXCEPT } [ ALL ] select ]
      [ ORDER BY expression [ ASC | DESC | USING operator ] [, ...] ]
      [ LIMIT { count | ALL } ]
      [ OFFSET start ]
      [ FOR UPDATE [ OF table_name [, ...] ] ]
```

where *from_item* can be one of:

```
[ ONLY ] table_name [ * ] [ [ AS ] alias [ ( column_alias [, ...] ) ] ]
( select ) [ AS ] alias [ ( column_alias [, ...] ) ]
function_name ( [ argument [, ...] ] ) [ AS ] alias [ ( column_alias [, ...] | column_name ) ]
function_name ( [ argument [, ...] ] ) AS ( column_definition [, ...] )
from_item [ NATURAL ] join_type from_item [ ON join_condition | USING ( join_column
```

Description

SELECT retrieves rows from one or more tables. The general processing of SELECT is as follows:

1. All elements in the FROM list are computed. (Each element in the FROM list is a real or virtual table.)
If more than one element is specified in the FROM list, they are cross-joined together. (See *FROM Clause* below.)
2. If the WHERE clause is specified, all rows that do not satisfy the condition are eliminated from the output. (See *WHERE Clause* below.)
3. If the GROUP BY clause is specified, the output is divided into groups of rows that match on one or more values. If the HAVING clause is present, it eliminates groups that do not satisfy the given condition. (See *GROUP BY Clause* and *HAVING Clause* below.)
4. The actual output rows are computed using the SELECT output expressions for each selected row. (See *SELECT List* below.)
5. Using the operators UNION, INTERSECT, and EXCEPT, the output of more than one SELECT statement can be combined to form a single result set. The UNION operator returns all rows that are in one or both of the result sets. The INTERSECT operator returns all rows that are strictly in both result sets. The EXCEPT operator returns the rows that are in the first result set but not in the second. In all

three cases, duplicate rows are eliminated unless ALL is specified. (See *UNION Clause*, *INTERSECT Clause*, and *EXCEPT Clause* below.)

6. If the ORDER BY clause is specified, the returned rows are sorted in the specified order. If ORDER BY is not given, the rows are returned in whatever order the system finds fastest to produce. (See *ORDER BY Clause* below.)
7. DISTINCT eliminates duplicate rows from the result. DISTINCT ON eliminates rows that match on all the specified expressions. ALL (the default) will return all candidate rows, including duplicates. (See *DISTINCT Clause* below.)
8. If the LIMIT or OFFSET clause is specified, the SELECT statement only returns a subset of the result rows. (See *LIMIT Clause* below.)
9. The FOR UPDATE clause causes the SELECT statement to lock the selected rows against concurrent updates. (See *FOR UPDATE Clause* below.)

You must have SELECT privilege on a table to read its values. The use of FOR UPDATE requires UPDATE privilege as well.

Parameters

FROM Clause

The FROM clause specifies one or more source tables for the SELECT. If multiple sources are specified, the result is the Cartesian product (cross join) of all the sources. But usually qualification conditions are added to restrict the returned rows to a small subset of the Cartesian product.

The FROM clause can contain the following elements:

table_name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of an existing table or view. If ONLY is specified, only that table is scanned. If ONLY is not specified, the table and all its descendant tables (if any) are scanned. * can be appended to the table name to indicate that descendant tables are to be scanned, but in the current version, this is the default behavior. (In releases before 7.1, ONLY was the default behavior.) The default behavior can be modified by changing the sql_inheritance configuration option.

alias

A substitute name for the FROM item containing the alias. An alias is used for brevity or to eliminate ambiguity for self-joins (where the same table is scanned multiple times). When an alias is provided, it completely hides the actual name of the table or function; for example given FROM foo AS f, the remainder of the SELECT must refer to this FROM item as f not foo. If an alias is written, a column alias list can also be written to provide substitute names for one or more columns of the table.

select

A sub-SELECT can appear in the FROM clause. This acts as though its output were created as a temporary table for the duration of this single SELECT command. Note that the sub-SELECT must be surrounded by parentheses, and an alias *must* be provided for it.

function_name

Function calls can appear in the `FROM` clause. (This is especially useful for functions that return result sets, but any function can be used.) This acts as though its output were created as a temporary table for the duration of this single `SELECT` command. An alias may also be used. If an alias is written, a column alias list can also be written to provide substitute names for one or more attributes of the function's composite return type. If the function has been defined as returning the `record` data type, then an alias or the key word `AS` must be present, followed by a column definition list in the form (*column_name data_type* [, ...]). The column definition list must match the actual number and types of columns returned by the function.

join_type

One of

- [`INNER`] `JOIN`
- `LEFT` [`OUTER`] `JOIN`
- `RIGHT` [`OUTER`] `JOIN`
- `FULL` [`OUTER`] `JOIN`
- `CROSS JOIN`

For the `INNER` and `OUTER` join types, a join condition must be specified, namely exactly one of `NATURAL`, `ON join_condition`, or `USING (join_column [, ...])`. See below for the meaning. For `CROSS JOIN`, none of these clauses may appear.

A `JOIN` clause combines two `FROM` items. Use parentheses if necessary to determine the order of nesting. In the absence of parentheses, `JOINS` nest left-to-right. In any case `JOIN` binds more tightly than the commas separating `FROM` items.

`CROSS JOIN` and `INNER JOIN` produce a simple Cartesian product, the same result as you get from listing the two items at the top level of `FROM`, but restricted by the join condition (if any). `CROSS JOIN` is equivalent to `INNER JOIN ON (TRUE)`, that is, no rows are removed by qualification. These join types are just a notational convenience, since they do nothing you couldn't do with plain `FROM` and `WHERE`.

`LEFT OUTER JOIN` returns all rows in the qualified Cartesian product (i.e., all combined rows that pass its join condition), plus one copy of each row in the left-hand table for which there was no right-hand row that passed the join condition. This left-hand row is extended to the full width of the joined table by inserting null values for the right-hand columns. Note that only the `JOIN` clause's own condition is considered while deciding which rows have matches. Outer conditions are applied afterwards.

Conversely, `RIGHT OUTER JOIN` returns all the joined rows, plus one row for each unmatched right-hand row (extended with nulls on the left). This is just a notational convenience, since you could convert it to a `LEFT OUTER JOIN` by switching the left and right inputs.

`FULL OUTER JOIN` returns all the joined rows, plus one row for each unmatched left-hand row (extended with nulls on the right), plus one row for each unmatched right-hand row (extended with nulls on the left).

`ON join_condition`

join_condition is an expression resulting in a value of type `boolean` (similar to a `WHERE` clause) that specifies which rows in a join are considered to match.

USING (*join_column* [, ...])

A clause of the form USING (*a*, *b*, ...) is shorthand for ON *left_table.a* = *right_table.a* AND *left_table.b* = *right_table.b* Also, USING implies that only one of each pair of equivalent columns will be included in the join output, not both.

NATURAL

NATURAL is shorthand for a USING list that mentions all columns in the two tables that have the same names.

WHERE Clause

The optional WHERE clause has the general form

WHERE *condition*

where *condition* is any expression that evaluates to a result of type `boolean`. Any row that does not satisfy this condition will be eliminated from the output. A row satisfies the condition if it returns true when the actual row values are substituted for any variable references.

GROUP BY Clause

The optional GROUP BY clause has the general form

GROUP BY *expression* [, ...]

GROUP BY will condense into a single row all selected rows that share the same values for the grouped expressions. *expression* can be an input column name, or the name or ordinal number of an output column (SELECT list item), or an arbitrary expression formed from input-column values. In case of ambiguity, a GROUP BY name will be interpreted as an input-column name rather than an output column name.

Aggregate functions, if any are used, are computed across all rows making up each group, producing a separate value for each group (whereas without GROUP BY, an aggregate produces a single value computed across all the selected rows). When GROUP BY is present, it is not valid for the SELECT list expressions to refer to ungrouped columns except within aggregate functions, since there would be more than one possible value to return for an ungrouped column.

HAVING Clause

The optional HAVING clause has the general form

HAVING *condition*

where *condition* is the same as specified for the WHERE clause.

HAVING eliminates group rows that do not satisfy the condition. HAVING is different from WHERE: WHERE filters individual rows before the application of GROUP BY, while HAVING filters group rows created by GROUP BY. Each column referenced in *condition* must unambiguously reference a grouping column, unless the reference appears within an aggregate function.

SELECT List

The SELECT list (between the key words SELECT and FROM) specifies expressions that form the output rows of the SELECT statement. The expressions can (and usually do) refer to columns computed in the FROM clause. Using the clause AS *output_name*, another name can be specified for an output column. This name is primarily used to label the column for display. It can also be used to refer to the column's value in ORDER BY and GROUP BY clauses, but not in the WHERE or HAVING clauses; there you must write out the expression instead.

Instead of an expression, * can be written in the output list as a shorthand for all the columns of the selected rows. Also, one can write *table_name*. * as a shorthand for the columns coming from just that table.

UNION Clause

The UNION clause has this general form:

```
select_statement UNION [ ALL ] select_statement
```

select_statement is any SELECT statement without an ORDER BY, LIMIT, or FOR UPDATE clause. (ORDER BY and LIMIT can be attached to a subexpression if it is enclosed in parentheses. Without parentheses, these clauses will be taken to apply to the result of the UNION, not to its right-hand input expression.)

The UNION operator computes the set union of the rows returned by the involved SELECT statements. A row is in the set union of two result sets if it appears in at least one of the result sets. The two SELECT statements that represent the direct operands of the UNION must produce the same number of columns, and corresponding columns must be of compatible data types.

The result of UNION does not contain any duplicate rows unless the ALL option is specified. ALL prevents elimination of duplicates. (Therefore, UNION ALL is usually significantly quicker than UNION; use ALL when you can.)

Multiple UNION operators in the same SELECT statement are evaluated left to right, unless otherwise indicated by parentheses.

Currently, FOR UPDATE may not be specified either for a UNION result or for any input of a UNION.

INTERSECT Clause

The INTERSECT clause has this general form:

```
select_statement INTERSECT [ ALL ] select_statement
```

select_statement is any SELECT statement without an ORDER BY, LIMIT, or FOR UPDATE clause.

The `INTERSECT` operator computes the set intersection of the rows returned by the involved `SELECT` statements. A row is in the intersection of two result sets if it appears in both result sets.

The result of `INTERSECT` does not contain any duplicate rows unless the `ALL` option is specified. With `ALL`, a row that has m duplicates in the left table and n duplicates in the right table will appear $\min(m,n)$ times in the result set.

Multiple `INTERSECT` operators in the same `SELECT` statement are evaluated left to right, unless parentheses dictate otherwise. `INTERSECT` binds more tightly than `UNION`. That is, `A UNION B INTERSECT C` will be read as `A UNION (B INTERSECT C)`.

Currently, `FOR UPDATE` may not be specified either for an `INTERSECT` result or for any input of an `INTERSECT`.

EXCEPT Clause

The `EXCEPT` clause has this general form:

```
select_statement EXCEPT [ ALL ] select_statement
```

select_statement is any `SELECT` statement without an `ORDER BY`, `LIMIT`, or `FOR UPDATE` clause.

The `EXCEPT` operator computes the set of rows that are in the result of the left `SELECT` statement but not in the result of the right one.

The result of `EXCEPT` does not contain any duplicate rows unless the `ALL` option is specified. With `ALL`, a row that has m duplicates in the left table and n duplicates in the right table will appear $\max(m-n,0)$ times in the result set.

Multiple `EXCEPT` operators in the same `SELECT` statement are evaluated left to right, unless parentheses dictate otherwise. `EXCEPT` binds at the same level as `UNION`.

Currently, `FOR UPDATE` may not be specified either for an `EXCEPT` result or for any input of an `EXCEPT`.

ORDER BY Clause

The optional `ORDER BY` clause has this general form:

```
ORDER BY expression [ ASC | DESC | USING operator ] [, ...]
```

expression can be the name or ordinal number of an output column (`SELECT` list item), or it can be an arbitrary expression formed from input-column values.

The `ORDER BY` clause causes the result rows to be sorted according to the specified expressions. If two rows are equal according to the leftmost expression, they are compared according to the next expression and so on. If they are equal according to all specified expressions, they are returned in an implementation-dependent order.

The ordinal number refers to the ordinal (left-to-right) position of the result column. This feature makes it possible to define an ordering on the basis of a column that does not have a unique name. This is never absolutely necessary because it is always possible to assign a name to a result column using the `AS` clause.

It is also possible to use arbitrary expressions in the `ORDER BY` clause, including columns that do not appear in the `SELECT` result list. Thus the following statement is valid:

```
SELECT name FROM distributors ORDER BY code;
```

A limitation of this feature is that an `ORDER BY` clause applying to the result of a `UNION`, `INTERSECT`, or `EXCEPT` clause may only specify an output column name or number, not an expression.

If an `ORDER BY` expression is a simple name that matches both a result column name and an input column name, `ORDER BY` will interpret it as the result column name. This is the opposite of the choice that `GROUP BY` will make in the same situation. This inconsistency is made to be compatible with the SQL standard.

Optionally one may add the key word `ASC` (ascending) or `DESC` (descending) after any expression in the `ORDER BY` clause. If not specified, `ASC` is assumed by default. Alternatively, a specific ordering operator name may be specified in the `USING` clause. `ASC` is usually equivalent to `USING <` and `DESC` is usually equivalent to `USING >`. (But the creator of a user-defined data type can define exactly what the default sort ordering is, and it might correspond to operators with other names.)

The null value sorts higher than any other value. In other words, with ascending sort order, null values sort at the end, and with descending sort order, null values sort at the beginning.

Character-string data is sorted according to the locale-specific collation order that was established when the database cluster was initialized.

DISTINCT Clause

If `DISTINCT` is specified, all duplicate rows are removed from the result set (one row is kept from each group of duplicates). `ALL` specifies the opposite: all rows are kept; that is the default.

`DISTINCT ON (expression [, ...])` keeps only the first row of each set of rows where the given expressions evaluate to equal. The `DISTINCT ON` expressions are interpreted using the same rules as for `ORDER BY` (see above). Note that the “first row” of each set is unpredictable unless `ORDER BY` is used to ensure that the desired row appears first. For example,

```
SELECT DISTINCT ON (location) location, time, report
FROM weather_reports
ORDER BY location, time DESC;
```

retrieves the most recent weather report for each location. But if we had not used `ORDER BY` to force descending order of time values for each location, we’d have gotten a report from an unpredictable time for each location.

The `DISTINCT ON` expression(s) must match the leftmost `ORDER BY` expression(s). The `ORDER BY` clause will normally contain additional expression(s) that determine the desired precedence of rows within each `DISTINCT ON` group.

LIMIT Clause

The `LIMIT` clause consists of two independent sub-clauses:

```
LIMIT { count | ALL }
OFFSET start
```

count specifies the maximum number of rows to return, while *start* specifies the number of rows to skip before starting to return rows. When both are specified, *start* rows are skipped before starting to

count the *count* rows to be returned.

When using `LIMIT`, it is a good idea to use an `ORDER BY` clause that constrains the result rows into a unique order. Otherwise you will get an unpredictable subset of the query's rows — you may be asking for the tenth through twentieth rows, but tenth through twentieth in what ordering? You don't know what ordering unless you specify `ORDER BY`.

The query planner takes `LIMIT` into account when generating a query plan, so you are very likely to get different plans (yielding different row orders) depending on what you use for `LIMIT` and `OFFSET`. Thus, using different `LIMIT/OFFSET` values to select different subsets of a query result *will give inconsistent results* unless you enforce a predictable result ordering with `ORDER BY`. This is not a bug; it is an inherent consequence of the fact that SQL does not promise to deliver the results of a query in any particular order unless `ORDER BY` is used to constrain the order.

FOR UPDATE Clause

The `FOR UPDATE` clause has this form:

```
FOR UPDATE [ OF table_name [, ...] ]
```

`FOR UPDATE` causes the rows retrieved by the `SELECT` statement to be locked as though for update. This prevents them from being modified or deleted by other transactions until the current transaction ends. That is, other transactions that attempt `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, or `SELECT FOR UPDATE` of these rows will be blocked until the current transaction ends. Also, if an `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, or `SELECT FOR UPDATE` from another transaction has already locked a selected row or rows, `SELECT FOR UPDATE` will wait for the other transaction to complete, and will then lock and return the updated row (or no row, if the row was deleted). For further discussion see Chapter 12.

If specific tables are named in `FOR UPDATE`, then only rows coming from those tables are locked; any other tables used in the `SELECT` are simply read as usual.

`FOR UPDATE` cannot be used in contexts where returned rows can't be clearly identified with individual table rows; for example it can't be used with aggregation.

`FOR UPDATE` may appear before `LIMIT` for compatibility with PostgreSQL versions before 7.3. It effectively executes after `LIMIT`, however, and so that is the recommended place to write it.

Examples

To join the table `films` with the table `distributors`:

```
SELECT f.title, f.did, d.name, f.date_prod, f.kind
   FROM distributors d, films f
  WHERE f.did = d.did
```

title	did	name	date_prod	kind
The Third Man	101	British Lion	1949-12-23	Drama
The African Queen	101	British Lion	1951-08-11	Romantic

...

To sum the column `len` of all films and group the results by `kind`:

```
SELECT kind, sum(len) AS total FROM films GROUP BY kind;
```

kind	total
Action	07:34
Comedy	02:58
Drama	14:28
Musical	06:42
Romantic	04:38

To sum the column `len` of all films, group the results by `kind` and show those group totals that are less than 5 hours:

```
SELECT kind, sum(len) AS total
FROM films
GROUP BY kind
HAVING sum(len) < interval '5 hours';
```

kind	total
Comedy	02:58
Romantic	04:38

The following two examples are identical ways of sorting the individual results according to the contents of the second column (`name`):

```
SELECT * FROM distributors ORDER BY name;
SELECT * FROM distributors ORDER BY 2;
```

did	name
109	20th Century Fox
110	Bavaria Atelier
101	British Lion
107	Columbia
102	Jean Luc Godard
113	Luso films
104	Mosfilm
103	Paramount
106	Toho
105	United Artists
111	Walt Disney
112	Warner Bros.
108	Westward

The next example shows how to obtain the union of the tables `distributors` and `actors`, restricting the results to those that begin with the letter W in each table. Only distinct rows are wanted, so the key word `ALL` is omitted.

```
distributors:                actors:
did |   name                    id |   name
-----+-----                -----+-----
108 | Westward                    1  | Woody Allen
111 | Walt Disney                  2  | Warren Beatty
112 | Warner Bros.                 3  | Walter Matthau
...                               ...

SELECT distributors.name
       FROM distributors
       WHERE distributors.name LIKE 'W%'
UNION
SELECT actors.name
       FROM actors
       WHERE actors.name LIKE 'W%';

       name
-----
Walt Disney
Walter Matthau
Warner Bros.
Warren Beatty
Westward
Woody Allen
```

This example shows how to use a function in the `FROM` clause, both with and without a column definition list:

```
CREATE FUNCTION distributors(int) RETURNS SETOF distributors AS $$
    SELECT * FROM distributors WHERE did = $1;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT * FROM distributors(111);
did |   name
-----+-----
111 | Walt Disney

CREATE FUNCTION distributors_2(int) RETURNS SETOF record AS $$
    SELECT * FROM distributors WHERE did = $1;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

SELECT * FROM distributors_2(111) AS (f1 int, f2 text);
f1 |   f2
-----+-----
111 | Walt Disney
```

Compatibility

Of course, the `SELECT` statement is compatible with the SQL standard. But there are some extensions and some missing features.

Omitted `FROM` Clauses

PostgreSQL allows one to omit the `FROM` clause. It has a straightforward use to compute the results of simple expressions:

```
SELECT 2+2;

?column?
-----
      4
```

Some other SQL databases cannot do this except by introducing a dummy one-row table from which to do the `SELECT`.

A less obvious use is to abbreviate a normal `SELECT` from tables:

```
SELECT distributors.* WHERE distributors.name = 'Westward';

 did | name
-----+-----
  108 | Westward
```

This works because an implicit `FROM` item is added for each table that is referenced in other parts of the `SELECT` statement but not mentioned in `FROM`.

While this is a convenient shorthand, it's easy to misuse. For example, the command

```
SELECT distributors.* FROM distributors d;
```

is probably a mistake; most likely the user meant

```
SELECT d.* FROM distributors d;
```

rather than the unconstrained join

```
SELECT distributors.* FROM distributors d, distributors distributors;
```

that he will actually get. To help detect this sort of mistake, PostgreSQL will warn if the implicit-`FROM` feature is used in a `SELECT` statement that also contains an explicit `FROM` clause. Also, it is possible to disable the implicit-`FROM` feature by setting the `add_missing_from` parameter to false.

The `AS` Key Word

In the SQL standard, the optional key word `AS` is just noise and can be omitted without affecting the meaning. The PostgreSQL parser requires this key word when renaming output columns because the type extensibility features lead to parsing ambiguities without it. `AS` is optional in `FROM` items, however.

Namespace Available to `GROUP BY` and `ORDER BY`

In the SQL-92 standard, an `ORDER BY` clause may only use result column names or numbers, while a `GROUP BY` clause may only use expressions based on input column names. PostgreSQL extends each of these clauses to allow the other choice as well (but it uses the standard's interpretation if there is ambiguity). PostgreSQL also allows both clauses to specify arbitrary expressions. Note that names appearing in an expression will always be taken as input-column names, not as result-column names.

SQL:1999 uses a slightly different definition which is not entirely upward compatible with SQL-92. In most cases, however, PostgreSQL will interpret an `ORDER BY` or `GROUP BY` expression the same way SQL:1999 does.

Nonstandard Clauses

The clauses `DISTINCT ON`, `LIMIT`, and `OFFSET` are not defined in the SQL standard.

SELECT INTO

Name

SELECT INTO — define a new table from the results of a query

Synopsis

```
SELECT [ ALL | DISTINCT [ ON ( expression [, ...] ) ] ]
      * | expression [ AS output_name ] [, ...]
INTO [ TEMPORARY | TEMP ] [ TABLE ] new_table
[ FROM from_item [, ...] ]
[ WHERE condition ]
[ GROUP BY expression [, ...] ]
[ HAVING condition [, ...] ]
[ { UNION | INTERSECT | EXCEPT } [ ALL ] select ]
[ ORDER BY expression [ ASC | DESC | USING operator ] [, ...] ]
[ LIMIT { count | ALL } ]
[ OFFSET start ]
[ FOR UPDATE [ OF tablename [, ...] ] ]
```

Description

SELECT INTO creates a new table and fills it with data computed by a query. The data is not returned to the client, as it is with a normal SELECT. The new table's columns have the names and data types associated with the output columns of the SELECT.

Parameters

TEMPORARY or TEMP

If specified, the table is created as a temporary table. Refer to *CREATE TABLE* for details.

new_table

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the table to be created.

All other parameters are described in detail under *SELECT*.

Notes

CREATE TABLE AS is functionally similar to SELECT INTO. *CREATE TABLE AS* is the recommended syntax, since this form of SELECT INTO is not available in ECPG or PL/pgSQL, because they interpret the INTO clause differently. Furthermore, *CREATE TABLE AS* offers a superset of the functionality provided by SELECT INTO.

Prior to PostgreSQL 8.0, the table created by `SELECT INTO` always included OIDs. As of PostgreSQL 8.0, the inclusion of OIDs in the table created by `SELECT INTO` is controlled by the `default_with_oids` configuration variable. This variable currently defaults to true, but will likely default to false in a future release of PostgreSQL.

Examples

Create a new table `films_recent` consisting of only recent entries from the table `films`:

```
SELECT * INTO films_recent FROM films WHERE date_prod >= '2002-01-01';
```

Compatibility

The SQL standard uses `SELECT INTO` to represent selecting values into scalar variables of a host program, rather than creating a new table. This indeed is the usage found in ECPG (see Chapter 29) and PL/pgSQL (see Chapter 35). The PostgreSQL usage of `SELECT INTO` to represent table creation is historical. It is best to use `CREATE TABLE AS` for this purpose in new code.

See Also

CREATE TABLE AS

SET

Name

SET — change a run-time parameter

Synopsis

```
SET [ SESSION | LOCAL ] name { TO | = } { value | 'value' | DEFAULT }  
SET [ SESSION | LOCAL ] TIME ZONE { timezone | LOCAL | DEFAULT }
```

Description

The `SET` command changes run-time configuration parameters. Many of the run-time parameters listed in Section 16.4 can be changed on-the-fly with `SET`. (But some require superuser privileges to change, and others cannot be changed after server or session start.) `SET` only affects the value used by the current session.

If `SET` or `SET SESSION` is issued within a transaction that is later aborted, the effects of the `SET` command disappear when the transaction is rolled back. (This behavior represents a change from PostgreSQL versions prior to 7.3, where the effects of `SET` would not roll back after a later error.) Once the surrounding transaction is committed, the effects will persist until the end of the session, unless overridden by another `SET`.

The effects of `SET LOCAL` last only till the end of the current transaction, whether committed or not. A special case is `SET` followed by `SET LOCAL` within a single transaction: the `SET LOCAL` value will be seen until the end of the transaction, but afterwards (if the transaction is committed) the `SET` value will take effect.

Parameters

`SESSION`

Specifies that the command takes effect for the current session. (This is the default if neither `SESSION` nor `LOCAL` appears.)

`LOCAL`

Specifies that the command takes effect for only the current transaction. After `COMMIT` or `ROLLBACK`, the session-level setting takes effect again. Note that `SET LOCAL` will appear to have no effect if it is executed outside a `BEGIN` block, since the transaction will end immediately.

name

Name of a settable run-time parameter. Available parameters are documented in Section 16.4 and below.

value

New value of parameter. Values can be specified as string constants, identifiers, numbers, or comma-separated lists of these. `DEFAULT` can be used to specify resetting the parameter to its default value.

Besides the configuration parameters documented in Section 16.4, there are a few that can only be adjusted using the `SET` command or that have a special syntax:

NAMES

`SET NAMES value` is an alias for `SET client_encoding TO value`.

SEED

Sets the internal seed for the random number generator (the function `random`). Allowed values are floating-point numbers between 0 and 1, which are then multiplied by $2^{31}-1$.

The seed can also be set by invoking the function `setseed`:

```
SELECT setseed(value);
```

TIME ZONE

`SET TIME ZONE value` is an alias for `SET timezone TO value`. The syntax `SET TIME ZONE` allows special syntax for the time zone specification. Here are examples of valid values:

```
'PST8PDT'
```

The time zone for Berkeley, California.

```
'Europe/Rome'
```

The time zone for Italy.

```
-7
```

The time zone 7 hours west from UTC (equivalent to PDT). Positive values are east from UTC.

```
INTERVAL '-08:00' HOUR TO MINUTE
```

The time zone 8 hours west from UTC (equivalent to PST).

LOCAL

DEFAULT

Set the time zone to your local time zone (the one that the server's operating system defaults to).

See Section 8.5 for more information about time zones. Also, Appendix B has a list of the recognized names for time zones.

Notes

The function `set_config` provides equivalent functionality. See Section 9.20.

Examples

Set the schema search path:

```
SET search_path TO my_schema, public;
```

Set the style of date to traditional POSTGRES with “day before month” input convention:

```
SET datestyle TO postgres, dmy;
```

Set the time zone for Berkeley, California:

```
SET TIME ZONE 'PST8PDT';
```

Set the time zone for Italy:

```
SET TIME ZONE 'Europe/Rome';
```

Compatibility

`SET TIME ZONE` extends syntax defined in the SQL standard. The standard allows only numeric time zone offsets while PostgreSQL allows more flexible time-zone specifications. All other `SET` features are PostgreSQL extensions.

See Also

RESET, *SHOW*

SET CONSTRAINTS

Name

SET CONSTRAINTS — set constraint checking modes for the current transaction

Synopsis

```
SET CONSTRAINTS { ALL | name [, ...] } { DEFERRED | IMMEDIATE }
```

Description

SET CONSTRAINTS sets the behavior of constraint checking within the current transaction. IMMEDIATE constraints are checked at the end of each statement. DEFERRED constraints are not checked until transaction commit. Each constraint has its own IMMEDIATE or DEFERRED mode.

Upon creation, a constraint is given one of three characteristics: DEFERRABLE INITIALLY DEFERRED, DEFERRABLE INITIALLY IMMEDIATE, or NOT DEFERRABLE. The third class is always IMMEDIATE and is not affected by the SET CONSTRAINTS command. The first two classes start every transaction in the indicated mode, but their behavior can be changed within a transaction by SET CONSTRAINTS.

SET CONSTRAINTS with a list of constraint names changes the mode of just those constraints (which must all be deferrable). If there are multiple constraints matching any given name, all are affected. SET CONSTRAINTS ALL changes the mode of all deferrable constraints.

When SET CONSTRAINTS changes the mode of a constraint from DEFERRED to IMMEDIATE, the new mode takes effect retroactively: any outstanding data modifications that would have been checked at the end of the transaction are instead checked during the execution of the SET CONSTRAINTS command. If any such constraint is violated, the SET CONSTRAINTS fails (and does not change the constraint mode). Thus, SET CONSTRAINTS can be used to force checking of constraints to occur at a specific point in a transaction.

Currently, only foreign key constraints are affected by this setting. Check and unique constraints are always effectively not deferrable.

Notes

This command only alters the behavior of constraints within the current transaction. Thus, if you execute this command outside of a transaction block (BEGIN/COMMIT pair), it will not appear to have any effect.

Compatibility

This command complies with the behavior defined in the SQL standard, except for the limitation that, in PostgreSQL, it only applies to foreign-key constraints.

The SQL standard says that constraint names appearing in SET CONSTRAINTS can be schema-qualified. This is not yet supported by PostgreSQL: the names must be unqualified, and all constraints matching the command will be affected no matter which schema they are in.

SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION

Name

SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION — set the session user identifier and the current user identifier of the current session

Synopsis

```
SET [ SESSION | LOCAL ] SESSION AUTHORIZATION username
SET [ SESSION | LOCAL ] SESSION AUTHORIZATION DEFAULT
RESET SESSION AUTHORIZATION
```

Description

This command sets the session user identifier and the current user identifier of the current SQL-session context to be *username*. The user name may be written as either an identifier or a string literal. Using this command, it is possible, for example, to temporarily become an unprivileged user and later switch back to become a superuser.

The session user identifier is initially set to be the (possibly authenticated) user name provided by the client. The current user identifier is normally equal to the session user identifier, but may change temporarily in the context of “setuid” functions and similar mechanisms. The current user identifier is relevant for permission checking.

The session user identifier may be changed only if the initial session user (the *authenticated user*) had the superuser privilege. Otherwise, the command is accepted only if it specifies the authenticated user name.

The SESSION and LOCAL modifiers act the same as for the regular SET command.

The DEFAULT and RESET forms reset the session and current user identifiers to be the originally authenticated user name. These forms may be executed by any user.

Examples

```
SELECT SESSION_USER, CURRENT_USER;
```

```
session_user | current_user
-----+-----
peter       | peter
```

```
SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION 'paul';
```

```
SELECT SESSION_USER, CURRENT_USER;
```

```
session_user | current_user
-----+-----
paul        | paul
```

Compatibility

The SQL standard allows some other expressions to appear in place of the literal *username* which are not important in practice. PostgreSQL allows identifier syntax ("*username*"), which SQL does not. SQL does not allow this command during a transaction; PostgreSQL does not make this restriction because there is no reason to. The privileges necessary to execute this command are left implementation-defined by the standard.

SET TRANSACTION

Name

SET TRANSACTION — set the characteristics of the current transaction

Synopsis

```
SET TRANSACTION transaction_mode [, ...]
SET SESSION CHARACTERISTICS AS TRANSACTION transaction_mode [, ...]
```

where *transaction_mode* is one of:

```
ISOLATION LEVEL { SERIALIZABLE | REPEATABLE READ | READ COMMITTED | READ UNCOMMITTED
READ WRITE | READ ONLY
```

Description

The SET TRANSACTION command sets the characteristics of the current transaction. It has no effect on any subsequent transactions. SET SESSION CHARACTERISTICS sets the default transaction characteristics for subsequent transactions of a session. These defaults can be overridden by SET TRANSACTION for an individual transaction.

The available transaction characteristics are the transaction isolation level and the transaction access mode (read/write or read-only).

The isolation level of a transaction determines what data the transaction can see when other transactions are running concurrently:

READ COMMITTED

A statement can only see rows committed before it began. This is the default.

SERIALIZABLE

All statements of the current transaction can only see rows committed before the first query or data-modification statement was executed in this transaction.

The SQL standard defines two additional levels, READ UNCOMMITTED and REPEATABLE READ. In PostgreSQL READ UNCOMMITTED is treated as READ COMMITTED, while REPEATABLE READ is treated as SERIALIZABLE.

The transaction isolation level cannot be changed after the first query or data-modification statement (SELECT, INSERT, DELETE, UPDATE, FETCH, or COPY) of a transaction has been executed. See Chapter 12 for more information about transaction isolation and concurrency control.

The transaction access mode determines whether the transaction is read/write or read-only. Read/write is the default. When a transaction is read-only, the following SQL commands are disallowed: INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, and COPY TO if the table they would write to is not a temporary table; all CREATE, ALTER, and DROP commands; COMMENT, GRANT, REVOKE, TRUNCATE; and EXPLAIN ANALYZE and

EXECUTE if the command they would execute is among those listed. This is a high-level notion of read-only that does not prevent all writes to disk.

Notes

If SET TRANSACTION is executed without a prior START TRANSACTION or BEGIN, it will appear to have no effect, since the transaction will immediately end.

It is possible to dispense with SET TRANSACTION by instead specifying the desired *transaction_modes* in BEGIN or START TRANSACTION.

The session default transaction modes can also be set by setting the configuration parameters `default_transaction_isolation` and `default_transaction_read_only`. (In fact SET SESSION CHARACTERISTICS is just a verbose equivalent for setting these variables with SET.) This means the defaults can be set in the configuration file, via ALTER DATABASE, etc. Consult Section 16.4 for more information.

Compatibility

Both commands are defined in the SQL standard. SERIALIZABLE is the default transaction isolation level in the standard. In PostgreSQL the default is ordinarily READ COMMITTED, but you can change it as mentioned above. Because of lack of predicate locking, the SERIALIZABLE level is not truly serializable. See Chapter 12 for details.

In the SQL standard, there is one other transaction characteristic that can be set with these commands: the size of the diagnostics area. This concept is specific to embedded SQL, and therefore is not implemented in the PostgreSQL server.

The SQL standard requires commas between successive *transaction_modes*, but for historical reasons PostgreSQL allows the commas to be omitted.

SHOW

Name

SHOW — show the value of a run-time parameter

Synopsis

```
SHOW name
SHOW ALL
```

Description

SHOW will display the current setting of run-time parameters. These variables can be set using the SET statement, by editing the `postgresql.conf` configuration file, through the PGOPTIONS environmental variable (when using libpq or a libpq-based application), or through command-line flags when starting the `postmaster`. See Section 16.4 for details.

Parameters

name

The name of a run-time parameter. Available parameters are documented in Section 16.4 and on the SET reference page. In addition, there are a few parameters that can be shown but not set:

SERVER_VERSION

Shows the server's version number.

SERVER_ENCODING

Shows the server-side character set encoding. At present, this parameter can be shown but not set, because the encoding is determined at database creation time.

LC_COLLATE

Shows the database's locale setting for collation (text ordering). At present, this parameter can be shown but not set, because the setting is determined at `initdb` time.

LC_CTYPE

Shows the database's locale setting for character classification. At present, this parameter can be shown but not set, because the setting is determined at `initdb` time.

IS_SUPERUSER

True if the current session authorization identifier has superuser privileges.

ALL

Show the values of all configuration parameters.

Notes

The function `current_setting` produces equivalent output. See Section 9.20.

Examples

Show the current setting of the parameter `DateStyle`:

```
SHOW DateStyle;
 DateStyle
-----
 ISO, MDY
(1 row)
```

Show the current setting of the parameter `geqo`:

```
SHOW geqo;
 geqo
-----
 on
(1 row)
```

Show all settings:

```
SHOW ALL;
          name          |          setting
-----+-----
 add_missing_from      | on
 archive_command       | unset
 australian_timezones  | off
 .
 .
 .
 work_mem              | 1024
 zero_damaged_pages    | off
(140 rows)
```

Compatibility

The `SHOW` command is a PostgreSQL extension.

See Also

SET, RESET

START TRANSACTION

Name

START TRANSACTION — start a transaction block

Synopsis

```
START TRANSACTION [ transaction_mode [, ...] ]
```

where *transaction_mode* is one of:

```
ISOLATION LEVEL { SERIALIZABLE | REPEATABLE READ | READ COMMITTED | READ UNCOMMITTED  
READ WRITE | READ ONLY
```

Description

This command begins a new transaction block. If the isolation level or read/write mode is specified, the new transaction has those characteristics, as if *SET TRANSACTION* was executed. This is the same as the *BEGIN* command.

Parameters

Refer to *SET TRANSACTION* for information on the meaning of the parameters to this statement.

Compatibility

In the standard, it is not necessary to issue *START TRANSACTION* to start a transaction block: any SQL command implicitly begins a block. PostgreSQL's behavior can be seen as implicitly issuing a *COMMIT* after each command that does not follow *START TRANSACTION* (or *BEGIN*), and it is therefore often called “autocommit”. Other relational database systems may offer an autocommit feature as a convenience.

The SQL standard requires commas between successive *transaction_modes*, but for historical reasons PostgreSQL allows the commas to be omitted.

See also the compatibility section of *SET TRANSACTION*.

See Also

BEGIN, *COMMIT*, *ROLLBACK*, *SAVEPOINT*, *SET TRANSACTION*

TRUNCATE

Name

TRUNCATE — empty a table

Synopsis

```
TRUNCATE [ TABLE ] name
```

Description

TRUNCATE quickly removes all rows from a table. It has the same effect as an unqualified DELETE but since it does not actually scan the table it is faster. This is most useful on large tables.

Parameters

name

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the table to be truncated.

Notes

TRUNCATE cannot be used if there are foreign-key references to the table from other tables. Checking validity in such cases would require table scans, and the whole point is not to do one.

TRUNCATE will not run any user-defined ON DELETE triggers that might exist for the table.

Examples

Truncate the table `bigtable`:

```
TRUNCATE TABLE bigtable;
```

Compatibility

There is no TRUNCATE command in the SQL standard.

UNLISTEN

Name

UNLISTEN — stop listening for a notification

Synopsis

```
UNLISTEN { name | * }
```

Description

UNLISTEN is used to remove an existing registration for NOTIFY events. UNLISTEN cancels any existing registration of the current PostgreSQL session as a listener on the notification *name*. The special wildcard * cancels all listener registrations for the current session.

NOTIFY contains a more extensive discussion of the use of LISTEN and NOTIFY.

Parameters

name

Name of a notification (any identifier).

*

All current listen registrations for this session are cleared.

Notes

You may unlisten something you were not listening for; no warning or error will appear.

At the end of each session, UNLISTEN * is automatically executed.

Examples

To make a registration:

```
LISTEN virtual;  
NOTIFY virtual;  
Asynchronous notification "virtual" received from server process with PID 8448.
```

Once UNLISTEN has been executed, further NOTIFY commands will be ignored:

```
UNLISTEN virtual;
```

```
NOTIFY virtual;  
-- no NOTIFY event is received
```

Compatibility

There is no `UNLISTEN` command in the SQL standard.

See Also

LISTEN, NOTIFY

UPDATE

Name

UPDATE — update rows of a table

Synopsis

```
UPDATE [ ONLY ] table SET column = { expression | DEFAULT } [, ...]  
    [ FROM fromlist ]  
    [ WHERE condition ]
```

Description

UPDATE changes the values of the specified columns in all rows that satisfy the condition. Only the columns to be modified need be mentioned in the SET clause; columns not explicitly modified retain their previous values.

By default, UPDATE will update rows in the specified table and all its subtables. If you wish to only update the specific table mentioned, you must use the ONLY clause.

There are two ways to modify a table using information contained in other tables in the database: using sub-selects, or specifying additional tables in the FROM clause. Which technique is more appropriate depends on the specific circumstances.

You must have the UPDATE privilege on the table to update it, as well as the SELECT privilege to any table whose values are read in the *expressions* or *condition*.

Parameters

table

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of the table to update.

column

The name of a column in *table*. The column name can be qualified with a subfield name or array subscript, if needed.

expression

An expression to assign to the column. The expression may use the old values of this and other columns in the table.

DEFAULT

Set the column to its default value (which will be NULL if no specific default expression has been assigned to it).

fromlist

A list of table expressions, allowing columns from other tables to appear in the `WHERE` condition and the update expressions. This is similar to the list of tables that can be specified in the *FROM Clause* of a `SELECT` statement. Note that the target table must not appear in the *fromlist*, unless you intend a self-join (in which case it must appear with an alias in the *fromlist*).

condition

An expression that returns a value of type `boolean`. Only rows for which this expression returns `true` will be updated.

Outputs

On successful completion, an `UPDATE` command returns a command tag of the form

```
UPDATE count
```

The *count* is the number of rows updated. If *count* is 0, no rows matched the *condition* (this is not considered an error).

Notes

When a `FROM` clause is present, what essentially happens is that the target table is joined to the tables mentioned in the *fromlist*, and each output row of the join represents an update operation for the target table. When using `FROM` you should ensure that the join produces at most one output row for each row to be modified. In other words, a target row shouldn't join to more than one row from the other table(s). If it does, then only one of the join rows will be used to update the target row, but which one will be used is not readily predictable.

Because of this indeterminacy, referencing other tables only within sub-selects is safer, though often harder to read and slower than using a join.

Examples

Change the word `Drama` to `Dramatic` in the column `kind` of the table `films`:

```
UPDATE films SET kind = 'Dramatic' WHERE kind = 'Drama';
```

Adjust temperature entries and reset precipitation to its default value in one row of the table `weather`:

```
UPDATE weather SET temp_lo = temp_lo+1, temp_hi = temp_lo+15, prcp = DEFAULT
WHERE city = 'San Francisco' AND date = '2003-07-03';
```

Increment the sales count of the salesperson who manages the account for Acme Corporation, using the `FROM` clause syntax:

```
UPDATE employees SET sales_count = sales_count + 1 FROM accounts
WHERE accounts.name = 'Acme Corporation'
AND employees.id = accounts.sales_person;
```

Perform the same operation, using a sub-select in the WHERE clause:

```
UPDATE employees SET sales_count = sales_count + 1 WHERE id =
(SELECT sales_person FROM accounts WHERE name = 'Acme Corporation');
```

Attempt to insert a new stock item along with the quantity of stock. If the item already exists, instead update the stock count of the existing item. To do this without failing the entire transaction, use savepoints.

```
BEGIN;
-- other operations
SAVEPOINT sp1;
INSERT INTO wines VALUES('Chateau Lafite 2003', '24');
-- Assume the above fails because of a unique key violation,
-- so now we issue these commands:
ROLLBACK TO sp1;
UPDATE wines SET stock = stock + 24 WHERE winename = 'Chateau Lafite 2003';
-- continue with other operations, and eventually
COMMIT;
```

Compatibility

This command conforms to the SQL standard, except that the FROM clause is a PostgreSQL extension.

Some other database systems offer a FROM option in which the target table is supposed to be listed again within FROM. That is not how PostgreSQL interprets FROM. Be careful when porting applications that use this extension.

VACUUM

Name

VACUUM — garbage-collect and optionally analyze a database

Synopsis

```
VACUUM [ FULL | FREEZE ] [ VERBOSE ] [ table ]  
VACUUM [ FULL | FREEZE ] [ VERBOSE ] ANALYZE [ table [ (column [, ...] ) ] ]
```

Description

VACUUM reclaims storage occupied by deleted tuples. In normal PostgreSQL operation, tuples that are deleted or obsoleted by an update are not physically removed from their table; they remain present until a VACUUM is done. Therefore it's necessary to do VACUUM periodically, especially on frequently-updated tables.

With no parameter, VACUUM processes every table in the current database. With a parameter, VACUUM processes only that table.

VACUUM ANALYZE performs a VACUUM and then an ANALYZE for each selected table. This is a handy combination form for routine maintenance scripts. See *ANALYZE* for more details about its processing.

Plain VACUUM (without FULL) simply reclaims space and makes it available for re-use. This form of the command can operate in parallel with normal reading and writing of the table, as an exclusive lock is not obtained. VACUUM FULL does more extensive processing, including moving of tuples across blocks to try to compact the table to the minimum number of disk blocks. This form is much slower and requires an exclusive lock on each table while it is being processed.

FREEZE is a special-purpose option that causes tuples to be marked “frozen” as soon as possible, rather than waiting until they are quite old. If this is done when there are no other open transactions in the same database, then it is guaranteed that all tuples in the database are “frozen” and will not be subject to transaction ID wraparound problems, no matter how long the database is left unvacuumed. FREEZE is not recommended for routine use. Its only intended usage is in connection with preparation of user-defined template databases, or other databases that are completely read-only and will not receive routine maintenance VACUUM operations. See Chapter 21 for details.

Parameters

FULL

Selects “full” vacuum, which may reclaim more space, but takes much longer and exclusively locks the table.

FREEZE

Selects aggressive “freezing” of tuples.

VERBOSE

Prints a detailed vacuum activity report for each table.

ANALYZE

Updates statistics used by the planner to determine the most efficient way to execute a query.

table

The name (optionally schema-qualified) of a specific table to vacuum. Defaults to all tables in the current database.

column

The name of a specific column to analyze. Defaults to all columns.

Outputs

When **VERBOSE** is specified, **VACUUM** emits progress messages to indicate which table is currently being processed. Various statistics about the tables are printed as well.

Notes

We recommend that active production databases be vacuumed frequently (at least nightly), in order to remove expired rows. After adding or deleting a large number of rows, it may be a good idea to issue a **VACUUM ANALYZE** command for the affected table. This will update the system catalogs with the results of all recent changes, and allow the PostgreSQL query planner to make better choices in planning queries.

The **FULL** option is not recommended for routine use, but may be useful in special cases. An example is when you have deleted most of the rows in a table and would like the table to physically shrink to occupy less disk space. **VACUUM FULL** will usually shrink the table more than a plain **VACUUM** would.

Examples

The following is an example from running **VACUUM** on a table in the regression database:

```

regression=# VACUUM VERBOSE ANALYZE onek;
INFO:  vacuuming "public.onek"
INFO:  index "onek_unique1" now contains 1000 tuples in 14 pages
DETAIL:  3000 index tuples were removed.
0 index pages have been deleted, 0 are currently reusable.
CPU 0.01s/0.08u sec elapsed 0.18 sec.
INFO:  index "onek_unique2" now contains 1000 tuples in 16 pages
DETAIL:  3000 index tuples were removed.
0 index pages have been deleted, 0 are currently reusable.
CPU 0.00s/0.07u sec elapsed 0.23 sec.
INFO:  index "onek_hundred" now contains 1000 tuples in 13 pages
DETAIL:  3000 index tuples were removed.
0 index pages have been deleted, 0 are currently reusable.
CPU 0.01s/0.08u sec elapsed 0.17 sec.

```

```
INFO: index "onek_stringul" now contains 1000 tuples in 48 pages
DETAIL: 3000 index tuples were removed.
0 index pages have been deleted, 0 are currently reusable.
CPU 0.01s/0.09u sec elapsed 0.59 sec.
INFO: "onek": removed 3000 tuples in 108 pages
DETAIL: CPU 0.01s/0.06u sec elapsed 0.07 sec.
INFO: "onek": found 3000 removable, 1000 nonremovable tuples in 143 pages
DETAIL: 0 dead tuples cannot be removed yet.
There were 0 unused item pointers.
0 pages are entirely empty.
CPU 0.07s/0.39u sec elapsed 1.56 sec.
INFO: analyzing "public.onek"
INFO: "onek": 36 pages, 1000 rows sampled, 1000 estimated total rows
VACUUM
```

Compatibility

There is no VACUUM statement in the SQL standard.

See Also

vacuumdb

II. PostgreSQL Client Applications

This part contains reference information for PostgreSQL client applications and utilities. Not all of these commands are of general utility, some may require special privileges. The common feature of these applications is that they can be run on any host, independent of where the database server resides.

clusterdb

Name

clusterdb — cluster a PostgreSQL database

Synopsis

```
clusterdb [connection-option...] [--table | -t table ] [dbname]  
clusterdb [connection-option...] [--all | -a]
```

Description

clusterdb is a utility for recluster tables in a PostgreSQL database. It finds tables that have previously been clustered, and clusters them again on the same index that was last used. Tables that have never been clustered are not affected.

clusterdb is a wrapper around the SQL command *CLUSTER*. There is no effective difference between clustering databases via this utility and via other methods for accessing the server.

Options

clusterdb accepts the following command-line arguments:

-a

--all

Cluster all databases.

[-d] *dbname*

[--dbname] *dbname*

Specifies the name of the database to be clustered. If this is not specified and -a (or --all) is not used, the database name is read from the environment variable PGDATABASE. If that is not set, the user name specified for the connection is used.

-e

--echo

Echo the commands that clusterdb generates and sends to the server.

-q

--quiet

Do not display a response.

-t *table*
 --table *table*
 Cluster *table* only.

clusterdb also accepts the following command-line arguments for connection parameters:

-h *host*
 --host *host*

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket.

-p *port*
 --port *port*

Specifies the TCP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections.

-U *username*
 --username *username*

User name to connect as.

-W
 --password

Force password prompt.

Environment

PGDATABASE
 PGHOST
 PGPORT
 PGUSER

Default connection parameters

Diagnostics

In case of difficulty, see *CLUSTER* and *psql* for discussions of potential problems and error messages. The database server must be running at the targeted host. Also, any default connection settings and environment variables used by the libpq front-end library will apply.

Examples

To cluster the database `test`:

```
$ clusterdb test
```

To cluster a single table `foo` in a database named `xyzy`:

```
$ clusterdb --table foo xyzy
```

See Also

CLUSTER

createdb

Name

`createdb` — create a new PostgreSQL database

Synopsis

```
createdb [option...] [dbname] [description]
```

Description

`createdb` creates a new PostgreSQL database.

Normally, the database user who executes this command becomes the owner of the new database. However a different owner can be specified via the `-O` option, if the executing user has appropriate privileges.

`createdb` is a wrapper around the SQL command `CREATE DATABASE`. There is no effective difference between creating databases via this utility and via other methods for accessing the server.

Options

`createdb` accepts the following command-line arguments:

dbname

Specifies the name of the database to be created. The name must be unique among all PostgreSQL databases in this cluster. The default is to create a database with the same name as the current system user.

description

Specifies a comment to be associated with the newly created database.

`-D tablespace`

`--tablespace tablespace`

Specifies the default tablespace for the database.

`-e`

`--echo`

Echo the commands that `createdb` generates and sends to the server.

`-E encoding`

`--encoding encoding`

Specifies the character encoding scheme to be used in this database. The character sets supported by the PostgreSQL server are described in Section 20.2.1.

`-O owner`

`--owner owner`

Specifies the database user who will own the new database.

`-q`

`--quiet`

Do not display a response.

`-T template`

`--template template`

Specifies the template database from which to build this database.

The options `-D`, `-E`, `-O`, and `-T` correspond to options of the underlying SQL command `CREATE DATABASE`; see there for more information about them.

createdb also accepts the following command-line arguments for connection parameters:

`-h host`

`--host host`

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket.

`-p port`

`--port port`

Specifies the TCP port or the local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections.

`-U username`

`--username username`

User name to connect as

`-W`

`--password`

Force password prompt.

Environment

`PGDATABASE`

If set, the name of the database to create, unless overridden on the command line.

PGHOST
PGPORT
PGUSER

Default connection parameters. PGUSER also determines the name of the database to create, if it is not specified on the command line or by PGDATABASE.

Diagnostics

In case of difficulty, see *CREATE DATABASE* and *psql* for discussions of potential problems and error messages. The database server must be running at the targeted host. Also, any default connection settings and environment variables used by the libpq front-end library will apply.

Examples

To create the database `demo` using the default database server:

```
$ createdb demo
CREATE DATABASE
```

The response is the same as you would have gotten from running the `CREATE DATABASE SQL` command.

To create the database `demo` using the server on host `eden`, port `5000`, using the `LATIN1` encoding scheme with a look at the underlying command:

```
$ createdb -p 5000 -h eden -E LATIN1 -e demo
CREATE DATABASE "demo" WITH ENCODING = 'LATIN1'
CREATE DATABASE
```

See Also

`dropdb`, *CREATE DATABASE*

createlang

Name

createlang — define a new PostgreSQL procedural language

Synopsis

```
createlang [connection-option...] langname [dbname]  
createlang [connection-option...] --list | -l dbname
```

Description

createlang is a utility for adding a new programming language to a PostgreSQL database. createlang can handle all the languages supplied in the default PostgreSQL distribution, but not languages provided by other parties.

Although backend programming languages can be added directly using several SQL commands, it is recommended to use createlang because it performs a number of checks and is much easier to use. See *CREATE LANGUAGE* for additional information.

Options

createlang accepts the following command-line arguments:

langname

Specifies the name of the procedural programming language to be defined.

[-d] *dbname*

[--dbname] *dbname*

Specifies to which database the language should be added. The default is to use the database with the same name as the current system user.

-e

--echo

Display SQL commands as they are executed.

-l

--list

Show a list of already installed languages in the target database.

-L *directory*

Specifies the directory in which the language interpreter is to be found. The directory is normally found automatically; this option is primarily for debugging purposes.

createlang also accepts the following command-line arguments for connection parameters:

`-h host`

`--host host`

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket.

`-p port`

`--port port`

Specifies the TCP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections.

`-U username`

`--username username`

User name to connect as.

`-W`

`--password`

Force password prompt.

Environment

PGDATABASE

PGHOST

PGPORT

PGUSER

Default connection parameters

Diagnostics

Most error messages are self-explanatory. If not, run createlang with the `--echo` option and see under the respective SQL command for details.

Notes

Use droplang to remove a language.

Examples

To install the language `pltcl` into the database `template1`:

```
$ createlang pltcl template1
```

See Also

`droplang`, *CREATE LANGUAGE*

createuser

Name

`createuser` — define a new PostgreSQL user account

Synopsis

```
createuser [option...] [username]
```

Description

`createuser` creates a new PostgreSQL user. Only superusers (users with `usesuper` set in the `pg_shadow` table) can create new PostgreSQL users, so `createuser` must be invoked by someone who can connect as a PostgreSQL superuser.

Being a superuser also implies the ability to bypass access permission checks within the database, so superuserdom should not be granted lightly.

`createuser` is a wrapper around the SQL command `CREATE USER`. There is no effective difference between creating users via this utility and via other methods for accessing the server.

Options

`createuser` accepts the following command-line arguments:

username

Specifies the name of the PostgreSQL user to be created. This name must be unique among all PostgreSQL users.

`-a`

`--adduser`

The new user is allowed to create other users. (Note: Actually, this makes the new user a *superuser*. The option is poorly named.)

`-A`

`--no-adduser`

The new user is not allowed to create other users (i.e., the new user is a regular user, not a superuser). This is the default.

`-d`

`--createdb`

The new user is allowed to create databases.

`-D`

`--no-createdb`

The new user is not allowed to create databases. This is the default.

`-e`

`--echo`

Echo the commands that createuser generates and sends to the server.

`-E`

`--encrypted`

Encrypts the user's password stored in the database. If not specified, the default password behavior is used.

`-i number`

`--sysid number`

Allows you to pick a non-default user ID for the new user. This is not necessary, but some people like it.

`-N`

`--unencrypted`

Does not encrypt the user's password stored in the database. If not specified, the default password behavior is used.

`-P`

`--pwprompt`

If given, createuser will issue a prompt for the password of the new user. This is not necessary if you do not plan on using password authentication.

`-q`

`--quiet`

Do not display a response.

You will be prompted for a name and other missing information if it is not specified on the command line. createuser also accepts the following command-line arguments for connection parameters:

`-h host`

`--host host`

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket.

`-p port`

`--port port`

Specifies the TCP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections.

`-U username`

`--username username`

User name to connect as (not the user name to create).

```
-W
--password
```

Force password prompt (to connect to the server, not for the password of the new user).

Environment

```
PGHOST
PGPORT
PGUSER
```

Default connection parameters

Diagnostics

In case of difficulty, see *CREATE USER* and `psql` for discussions of potential problems and error messages. The database server must be running at the targeted host. Also, any default connection settings and environment variables used by the libpq front-end library will apply.

Examples

To create a user `joe` on the default database server:

```
$ createuser joe
Is the new user allowed to create databases? (y/n) n
Shall the new user be allowed to create more new users? (y/n) n
CREATE USER
```

To create the same user `joe` using the server on host `eden`, port 5000, avoiding the prompts and taking a look at the underlying command:

```
$ createuser -p 5000 -h eden -D -A -e joe
CREATE USER "joe" NOCREATEDB NOCREATEUSER
CREATE USER
```

See Also

`dropuser`, *CREATE USER*

dropdb

Name

dropdb — remove a PostgreSQL database

Synopsis

dropdb [*option...*] *dbname*

Description

dropdb destroys an existing PostgreSQL database. The user who executes this command must be a database superuser or the owner of the database.

dropdb is a wrapper around the SQL command *DROP DATABASE*. There is no effective difference between dropping databases via this utility and via other methods for accessing the server.

Options

dropdb accepts the following command-line arguments:

dbname

Specifies the name of the database to be removed.

-e

--echo

Echo the commands that dropdb generates and sends to the server.

-i

--interactive

Issues a verification prompt before doing anything destructive.

-q

--quiet

Do not display a response.

dropdb also accepts the following command-line arguments for connection parameters:

-h *host*

--host *host*

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket.

```
-p port
--port port
```

Specifies the TCP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections.

```
-U username
--username username
```

User name to connect as

```
-W
--password
```

Force password prompt.

Environment

```
PGHOST
PGPORT
PGUSER
```

Default connection parameters

Diagnostics

In case of difficulty, see *DROP DATABASE* and *psql* for discussions of potential problems and error messages. The database server must be running at the targeted host. Also, any default connection settings and environment variables used by the libpq front-end library will apply.

Examples

To destroy the database `demo` on the default database server:

```
$ dropdb demo
DROP DATABASE
```

To destroy the database `demo` using the server on host `eden`, port `5000`, with verification and a peek at the underlying command:

```
$ dropdb -p 5000 -h eden -i -e demo
Database "demo" will be permanently deleted.
Are you sure? (y/n) y
DROP DATABASE "demo"
DROP DATABASE
```

See Also

createdb, *DROP DATABASE*

droplang

Name

droplang — remove a PostgreSQL procedural language

Synopsis

```
droplang [connection-option...] langname [dbname]  
droplang [connection-option...] --list | -l dbname
```

Description

droplang is a utility for removing an existing programming language from a PostgreSQL database. droplang can drop any procedural language, even those not supplied by the PostgreSQL distribution.

Although backend programming languages can be removed directly using several SQL commands, it is recommended to use droplang because it performs a number of checks and is much easier to use. See *DROP LANGUAGE* for more.

Options

droplang accepts the following command line arguments:

langname

Specifies the name of the backend programming language to be removed.

`[-d] dbname`

`[--dbname] dbname`

Specifies from which database the language should be removed. The default is to use the database with the same name as the current system user.

`-e`

`--echo`

Display SQL commands as they are executed.

`-l`

`--list`

Show a list of already installed languages in the target database.

droplang also accepts the following command line arguments for connection parameters:

`-h host`

`--host host`

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If host begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket.

`-p port`

`--port port`

Specifies the Internet TCP/IP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections.

`-U username`

`--username username`

User name to connect as

`-W`

`--password`

Force password prompt.

Environment

PGDATABASE

PGHOST

PGPORT

PGUSER

Default connection parameters

Diagnostics

Most error messages are self-explanatory. If not, run droplang with the `--echo` option and see under the respective SQL command for details.

Notes

Use createlang to add a language.

Examples

To remove the language `plpgsql`:

```
$ droplang plpgsql dbname
```

See Also

createlang, *DROP LANGUAGE*

dropuser

Name

dropuser — remove a PostgreSQL user account

Synopsis

```
dropuser [option...] [username]
```

Description

dropuser removes an existing PostgreSQL user *and* the databases which that user owned. Only superusers (users with `usesuper` set in the `pg_shadow` table) can destroy PostgreSQL users.

dropuser is a wrapper around the SQL command `DROP USER`. There is no effective difference between dropping users via this utility and via other methods for accessing the server.

Options

dropuser accepts the following command-line arguments:

username

Specifies the name of the PostgreSQL user to be removed. You will be prompted for a name if none is specified on the command line.

-e

--echo

Echo the commands that dropuser generates and sends to the server.

-i

--interactive

Prompt for confirmation before actually removing the user.

-q

--quiet

Do not display a response.

dropuser also accepts the following command-line arguments for connection parameters:

`-h host`

`--host host`

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket.

`-p port`

`--port port`

Specifies the TCP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections.

`-U username`

`--username username`

User name to connect as (not the user name to drop)

`-W`

`--password`

Force password prompt (to connect to the server, not for the password of the user to be dropped).

Environment

PGHOST

PGPORT

PGUSER

Default connection parameters

Diagnostics

In case of difficulty, see *DROP USER* and *psql* for discussions of potential problems and error messages. The database server must be running at the targeted host. Also, any default connection settings and environment variables used by the *libpq* front-end library will apply.

Examples

To remove user `joe` from the default database server:

```
$ dropuser joe
DROP USER
```

To remove user `joe` using the server on host `eden`, port 5000, with verification and a peek at the underlying command:

```
$ dropuser -p 5000 -h eden -i -e joe
User "joe" and any owned databases will be permanently deleted.
Are you sure? (y/n) Y
DROP USER "joe"
DROP USER
```

See Also

createuser, *DROP USER*

ecpg

Name

ecpg — embedded SQL C preprocessor

Synopsis

ecpg [*option...*] *file...*

Description

ecpg is the embedded SQL preprocessor for C programs. It converts C programs with embedded SQL statements to normal C code by replacing the SQL invocations with special function calls. The output files can then be processed with any C compiler tool chain.

ecpg will convert each input file given on the command line to the corresponding C output file. Input files preferably have the extension `.pgc`, in which case the extension will be replaced by `.c` to determine the output file name. If the extension of the input file is not `.pgc`, then the output file name is computed by appending `.c` to the full file name. The output file name can also be overridden using the `-o` option.

This reference page does not describe the embedded SQL language. See Chapter 29 for more information on that topic.

Options

ecpg accepts the following command-line arguments:

`-c`

Automatically generate certain C code from SQL code. Currently, this works for `EXEC SQL TYPE`.

`-C mode`

Set a compatibility mode. *mode* may be `INFORMIX` or `INFORMIX_SE`.

`-D symbol`

Define a C preprocessor symbol.

`-i`

Parse system include files as well.

`-I directory`

Specify an additional include path, used to find files included via `EXEC SQL INCLUDE`. Defaults are `.` (current directory), `/usr/local/include`, the PostgreSQL include directory which is defined at compile time (default: `/usr/local/pgsql/include`), and `/usr/include`, in that order.

`-o filename`

Specifies that ecpg should write all its output to the given *filename*.

`-r option`

Selects a run-time behavior. Currently, *option* can only be `no_indicator`.

`-t`

Turn on autocommit of transactions. In this mode, each SQL command is automatically committed unless it is inside an explicit transaction block. In the default mode, commands are committed only when `EXEC SQL COMMIT` is issued.

`-v`

Print additional information including the version and the include path.

`--help`

Show a brief summary of the command usage, then exit.

`--version`

Output version information, then exit.

Notes

When compiling the preprocessed C code files, the compiler needs to be able to find the ECPG header files in the PostgreSQL include directory. Therefore, one might have to use the `-I` option when invoking the compiler (e.g., `-I/usr/local/pgsql/include`).

Programs using C code with embedded SQL have to be linked against the `libecpg` library, for example using the linker options `-L/usr/local/pgsql/lib -lecpg`.

The value of either of these directories that is appropriate for the installation can be found out using `pg_config`.

Examples

If you have an embedded SQL C source file named `prog1.pgc`, you can create an executable program using the following sequence of commands:

```
ecpg prog1.pgc
cc -I/usr/local/pgsql/include -c prog1.c
cc -o prog1 prog1.o -L/usr/local/pgsql/lib -lecpg
```

pg_config

Name

`pg_config` — retrieve information about the installed version of PostgreSQL

Synopsis

```
pg_config {--bindir | --includedir | --includedir-server | --libdir | --pkglibdir | --pgxs | --configure | --version...}
```

Description

The `pg_config` utility prints configuration parameters of the currently installed version of PostgreSQL. It is intended, for example, to be used by software packages that want to interface to PostgreSQL to facilitate finding the required header files and libraries.

Options

To use `pg_config`, supply one or more of the following options:

`--bindir`

Print the location of user executables. Use this, for example, to find the `psql` program. This is normally also the location where the `pg_config` program resides.

`--includedir`

Print the location of C header files of the client interfaces.

`--includedir-server`

Print the location of C header files for server programming.

`--libdir`

Print the location of object code libraries.

`--pkglibdir`

Print the location of dynamically loadable modules, or where the server would search for them. (Other architecture-dependent data files may also be installed in this directory.)

`--pgxs`

Print the location of extension makefiles.

`--configure`

Print the options that were given to the `configure` script when PostgreSQL was configured for building. This can be used to reproduce the identical configuration, or to find out with what options a binary package was built. (Note however that binary packages often contain vendor-specific custom patches.)

`--version`

Print the version of PostgreSQL and exit.

If more than one option (except for `--version`) is given, the information is printed in that order, one item per line.

Notes

The option `--includedir-server` was new in PostgreSQL 7.2. In prior releases, the server include files were installed in the same location as the client headers, which could be queried with the option `--includedir`. To make your package handle both cases, try the newer option first and test the exit status to see whether it succeeded.

In releases prior to PostgreSQL 7.1, before `pg_config` came to be, a method for finding the equivalent configuration information did not exist.

History

The `pg_config` utility first appeared in PostgreSQL 7.1.

pg_dump

Name

`pg_dump` — extract a PostgreSQL database into a script file or other archive file

Synopsis

```
pg_dump [option...] [dbname]
```

Description

`pg_dump` is a utility for backing up a PostgreSQL database. It makes consistent backups even if the database is being used concurrently. `pg_dump` does not block other users accessing the database (readers or writers).

Dumps can be output in script or archive file formats. Script dumps are plain-text files containing the SQL commands required to reconstruct the database to the state it was in at the time it was saved. To restore from such a script, feed it to `psql`. Script files can be used to reconstruct the database even on other machines and other architectures; with some modifications even on other SQL database products.

The alternative archive file formats must be used with `pg_restore` to rebuild the database. They allow `pg_restore` to be selective about what is restored, or even to reorder the items prior to being restored. The archive formats also allow saving and restoring “large objects”, which is not possible in a script dump. The archive files are also designed to be portable across architectures.

When used with one of the archive file formats and combined with `pg_restore`, `pg_dump` provides a flexible archival and transfer mechanism. `pg_dump` can be used to backup an entire database, then `pg_restore` can be used to examine the archive and/or select which parts of the database are to be restored. The most flexible output file format is the “custom” format (`-Fc`). It allows for selection and reordering of all archived items, and is compressed by default. The tar format (`-Ft`) is not compressed and it is not possible to reorder data when loading, but it is otherwise quite flexible; moreover, it can be manipulated with standard Unix tools such as `tar`.

While running `pg_dump`, one should examine the output for any warnings (printed on standard error), especially in light of the limitations listed below.

Options

The following command-line options control the content and format of the output.

dbname

Specifies the name of the database to be dumped. If this is not specified, the environment variable `PGDATABASE` is used. If that is not set, the user name specified for the connection is used.

-a

--data-only

Dump only the data, not the schema (data definitions).

This option is only meaningful for the plain-text format. For the archive formats, you may specify the option when you call `pg_restore`.

-b

--blobs

Include large objects in the dump. A non-text output format must be selected.

-c

--clean

Output commands to clean (drop) database objects prior to (the commands for) creating them.

This option is only meaningful for the plain-text format. For the archive formats, you may specify the option when you call `pg_restore`.

-C

--create

Begin the output with a command to create the database itself and reconnect to the created database. (With a script of this form, it doesn't matter which database you connect to before running the script.)

This option is only meaningful for the plain-text format. For the archive formats, you may specify the option when you call `pg_restore`.

-d

--inserts

Dump data as `INSERT` commands (rather than `COPY`). This will make restoration very slow; it is mainly useful for making dumps that can be loaded into non-PostgreSQL databases. Note that the restore may fail altogether if you have rearranged column order. The `-D` option is safer, though even slower.

-D

--column-inserts

--attribute-inserts

Dump data as `INSERT` commands with explicit column names (`INSERT INTO table (column, ...) VALUES ...`). This will make restoration very slow; it is mainly useful for making dumps that can be loaded into non-PostgreSQL databases.

-f *file*

--file=*file*

Send output to the specified file. If this is omitted, the standard output is used.

-F *format*

--format=*format*

Selects the format of the output. *format* can be one of the following:

p

Output a plain-text SQL script file (default)

t

Output a `tar` archive suitable for input into `pg_restore`. Using this archive format allows re-ordering and/or exclusion of database objects at the time the database is restored. It is also possible to limit which data is reloaded at restore time.

c

Output a custom archive suitable for input into `pg_restore`. This is the most flexible format in that it allows reordering of loading data as well as object definitions. This format is also compressed by default.

-i

--ignore-version

Ignore version mismatch between `pg_dump` and the database server.

`pg_dump` can handle databases from previous releases of PostgreSQL, but very old versions are not supported anymore (currently prior to 7.0). Use this option if you need to override the version check (and if `pg_dump` then fails, don't say you weren't warned).

-n *schema*--schema=*schema*

Dump the contents of *schema* only. If this option is not specified, all non-system schemas in the target database will be dumped.

Note: In this mode, `pg_dump` makes no attempt to dump any other database objects that objects in the selected schema may depend upon. Therefore, there is no guarantee that the results of a single-schema dump can be successfully restored by themselves into a clean database.

-o

--oids

Dump object identifiers (OIDs) as part of the data for every table. Use this option if your application references the OID columns in some way (e.g., in a foreign key constraint). Otherwise, this option should not be used.

-O

--no-owner

Do not output commands to set ownership of objects to match the original database. By default, `pg_dump` issues `ALTER OWNER` or `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION` statements to set ownership of created database objects. These statements will fail when the script is run unless it is started by a superuser (or the same user that owns all of the objects in the script). To make a script that can be restored by any user, but will give that user ownership of all the objects, specify `-O`.

This option is only meaningful for the plain-text format. For the archive formats, you may specify the option when you call `pg_restore`.

-R

--no-reconnect

This option is obsolete but still accepted for backwards compatibility.

-s

--schema-only

Dump only the object definitions (schema), not data.

-S *username*

--superuser=*username*

Specify the superuser user name to use when disabling triggers. This is only relevant if --disable-triggers is used. (Usually, it's better to leave this out, and instead start the resulting script as superuser.)

-t *table*

--table=*table*

Dump data for *table* only. It is possible for there to be multiple tables with the same name in different schemas; if that is the case, all matching tables will be dumped. Specify both --schema and --table to select just one table.

Note: In this mode, pg_dump makes no attempt to dump any other database objects that the selected table may depend upon. Therefore, there is no guarantee that the results of a single-table dump can be successfully restored by themselves into a clean database.

-v

--verbose

Specifies verbose mode. This will cause pg_dump to output detailed object comments and start/stop times to the dump file, and progress messages to standard error.

-x

--no-privileges

--no-acl

Prevent dumping of access privileges (grant/revoke commands).

-X *disable-dollar-quoting*

--disable-dollar-quoting

This option disables the use of dollar quoting for function bodies, and forces them to be quoted using SQL standard string syntax.

-X *disable-triggers*

--disable-triggers

This option is only relevant when creating a data-only dump. It instructs pg_dump to include commands to temporarily disable triggers on the target tables while the data is reloaded. Use this if you have referential integrity checks or other triggers on the tables that you do not want to invoke during data reload.

Presently, the commands emitted for `--disable-triggers` must be done as superuser. So, you should also specify a superuser name with `-s`, or preferably be careful to start the resulting script as a superuser.

This option is only meaningful for the plain-text format. For the archive formats, you may specify the option when you call `pg_restore`.

```
-X use-set-session-authorization
--use-set-session-authorization
```

Output SQL standard SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION commands instead of OWNER TO commands. This makes the dump more standards compatible, but depending on the history of the objects in the dump, may not restore properly.

```
-Z 0..9
--compress=0..9
```

Specify the compression level to use in archive formats that support compression. (Currently only the custom archive format supports compression.)

The following command-line options control the database connection parameters.

```
-h host
--host=host
```

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket. The default is taken from the `PGHOST` environment variable, if set, else a Unix domain socket connection is attempted.

```
-p port
--port=port
```

Specifies the TCP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections. Defaults to the `PGPORT` environment variable, if set, or a compiled-in default.

```
-U username
```

Connect as the given user

```
-W
```

Force a password prompt. This should happen automatically if the server requires password authentication.

Environment

PGDATABASE
PGHOST
PGPORT
PGUSER

Default connection parameters.

Diagnostics

pg_dump internally executes `SELECT` statements. If you have problems running pg_dump, make sure you are able to select information from the database using, for example, `psql`.

Notes

If your database cluster has any local additions to the `template1` database, be careful to restore the output of pg_dump into a truly empty database; otherwise you are likely to get errors due to duplicate definitions of the added objects. To make an empty database without any local additions, copy from `template0` not `template1`, for example:

```
CREATE DATABASE foo WITH TEMPLATE template0;
```

pg_dump has a few limitations:

- When dumping a single table or as plain text, pg_dump does not handle large objects. Large objects must be dumped with the entire database using one of the non-text archive formats.
- When a data-only dump is chosen and the option `--disable-triggers` is used, pg_dump emits commands to disable triggers on user tables before inserting the data and commands to re-enable them after the data has been inserted. If the restore is stopped in the middle, the system catalogs may be left in the wrong state.

Members of tar archives are limited to a size less than 8 GB. (This is an inherent limitation of the tar file format.) Therefore this format cannot be used if the textual representation of any one table exceeds that size. The total size of a tar archive and any of the other output formats is not limited, except possibly by the operating system.

The dump file produced by pg_dump does not contain the statistics used by the optimizer to make query planning decisions. Therefore, it is wise to run `ANALYZE` after restoring from a dump file to ensure good performance.

Examples

To dump a database:

```
$ pg_dump mydb > db.out
```

To reload this database:

```
$ psql -d database -f db.out
```

To dump a database called `mydb` that contains large objects to a `tar` file:

```
$ pg_dump -Ft -b mydb > db.tar
```

To reload this database (with large objects) to an existing database called `newdb`:

```
$ pg_restore -d newdb db.tar
```

History

The `pg_dump` utility first appeared in Postgres95 release 0.02. The non-plain-text output formats were introduced in PostgreSQL release 7.1.

See Also

`pg_dumpall`, `pg_restore`, `psql`

pg_dumpall

Name

`pg_dumpall` — extract a PostgreSQL database cluster into a script file

Synopsis

```
pg_dumpall [option...]
```

Description

`pg_dumpall` is a utility for writing out (“dumping”) all PostgreSQL databases of a cluster into one script file. The script file contains SQL commands that can be used as input to `psql` to restore the databases. It does this by calling `pg_dump` for each database in a cluster. `pg_dumpall` also dumps global objects that are common to all databases. (`pg_dump` does not save these objects.) This currently includes information about database users and groups, and access permissions that apply to databases as a whole.

Thus, `pg_dumpall` is an integrated solution for backing up your databases. But note a limitation: it cannot dump “large objects”, since `pg_dump` cannot dump such objects into text files. If you have databases containing large objects, they should be dumped using one of `pg_dump`’s non-text output modes.

Since `pg_dumpall` reads tables from all databases you will most likely have to connect as a database superuser in order to produce a complete dump. Also you will need superuser privileges to execute the saved script in order to be allowed to add users and groups, and to create databases.

The SQL script will be written to the standard output. Shell operators should be used to redirect it into a file.

`pg_dumpall` needs to connect several times to the PostgreSQL server (once per database). If you use password authentication it is likely to ask for a password each time. It is convenient to have a `~/ .pgpass` file in such cases. See Section 27.12 for more information.

Options

The following command-line options control the content and format of the output.

`-a`

`--data-only`

Dump only the data, not the schema (data definitions).

`-c`

`--clean`

Include SQL commands to clean (drop) the databases before recreating them.

-d

--inserts

Dump data as `INSERT` commands (rather than `COPY`). This will make restoration very slow; it is mainly useful for making dumps that can be loaded into non-PostgreSQL databases. Note that the restore may fail altogether if you have rearranged column order. The `-D` option is safer, though even slower.

-D

--column-inserts

--attribute-inserts

Dump data as `INSERT` commands with explicit column names (`INSERT INTO table (column, ...) VALUES ...`). This will make restoration very slow; it is mainly useful for making dumps that can be loaded into non-PostgreSQL databases.

-g

--globals-only

Dump only global objects (users and groups), no databases.

-i

--ignore-version

Ignore version mismatch between `pg_dumpall` and the database server.

`pg_dumpall` can handle databases from previous releases of PostgreSQL, but very old versions are not supported anymore (currently prior to 7.0). Use this option if you need to override the version check (and if `pg_dumpall` then fails, don't say you weren't warned).

-o

--oids

Dump object identifiers (OIDs) as part of the data for every table. Use this option if your application references the OID columns in some way (e.g., in a foreign key constraint). Otherwise, this option should not be used.

-O

--no-owner

Do not output commands to set ownership of objects to match the original database. By default, `pg_dumpall` issues `ALTER OWNER` or `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION` statements to set ownership of created schema elements. These statements will fail when the script is run unless it is started by a superuser (or the same user that owns all of the objects in the script). To make a script that can be restored by any user, but will give that user ownership of all the objects, specify `-O`.

-s

--schema-only

Dump only the object definitions (schema), not data.

-S *username*

--superuser=*username*

Specify the superuser user name to use when disabling triggers. This is only relevant if `--disable-triggers` is used. (Usually, it's better to leave this out, and instead start the resulting script as superuser.)

-v

--verbose

Specifies verbose mode. This will cause pg_dumpall to output start/stop times to the dump file, and progress messages to standard error. It will also enable verbose output in pg_dump.

-x

--no-privileges

--no-acl

Prevent dumping of access privileges (grant/revoke commands).

-X disable-dollar-quoting

--disable-dollar-quoting

This option disables the use of dollar quoting for function bodies, and forces them to be quoted using SQL standard string syntax.

-X disable-triggers

--disable-triggers

This option is only relevant when creating a data-only dump. It instructs pg_dumpall to include commands to temporarily disable triggers on the target tables while the data is reloaded. Use this if you have referential integrity checks or other triggers on the tables that you do not want to invoke during data reload.

Presently, the commands emitted for --disable-triggers must be done as superuser. So, you should also specify a superuser name with -s, or preferably be careful to start the resulting script as a superuser.

-X use-set-session-authorization

--use-set-session-authorization

Output SQL standard SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION commands instead of OWNER TO commands. This makes the dump more standards compatible, but depending on the history of the objects in the dump, may not restore properly.

The following command-line options control the database connection parameters.

-h *host*

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the database server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket. The default is taken from the PGHOST environment variable, if set, else a Unix domain socket connection is attempted.

-p *port*

Specifies the TCP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections. Defaults to the PGPORT environment variable, if set, or a compiled-in default.

-U *username*

Connect as the given user.

-W

Force a password prompt. This should happen automatically if the server requires password authentication.

Environment

PGHOST
PGPORT
PGUSER

Default connection parameters

Notes

Since `pg_dumpall` calls `pg_dump` internally, some diagnostic messages will refer to `pg_dump`.

Once restored, it is wise to run `ANALYZE` on each database so the optimizer has useful statistics. You can also run `vacuumdb -a -z` to analyze all databases.

Examples

To dump all databases:

```
$ pg_dumpall > db.out
```

To reload this database use, for example:

```
$ psql -f db.out template1
```

(It is not important to which database you connect here since the script file created by `pg_dumpall` will contain the appropriate commands to create and connect to the saved databases.)

See Also

`pg_dump`. Check there for details on possible error conditions.

pg_restore

Name

`pg_restore` — restore a PostgreSQL database from an archive file created by `pg_dump`

Synopsis

```
pg_restore [option...] [filename]
```

Description

`pg_restore` is a utility for restoring a PostgreSQL database from an archive created by `pg_dump` in one of the non-plain-text formats. It will issue the commands necessary to reconstruct the database to the state it was in at the time it was saved. The archive files also allow `pg_restore` to be selective about what is restored, or even to reorder the items prior to being restored. The archive files are designed to be portable across architectures.

`pg_restore` can operate in two modes: If a database name is specified, the archive is restored directly into the database. (Large objects can only be restored by using such a direct database connection.) Otherwise, a script containing the SQL commands necessary to rebuild the database is created (and written to a file or standard output), similar to the ones created by the `pg_dump` plain text format. Some of the options controlling the script output are therefore analogous to `pg_dump` options.

Obviously, `pg_restore` cannot restore information that is not present in the archive file. For instance, if the archive was made using the “dump data as `INSERT` commands” option, `pg_restore` will not be able to load the data using `COPY` statements.

Options

`pg_restore` accepts the following command line arguments.

filename

Specifies the location of the archive file to be restored. If not specified, the standard input is used.

`-a`

`--data-only`

Restore only the data, not the schema (data definitions).

`-c`

`--clean`

Clean (drop) database objects before recreating them.

-C

--create

Create the database before restoring into it. (When this option is used, the database named with `-d` is used only to issue the initial `CREATE DATABASE` command. All data is restored into the database name that appears in the archive.)

-d *dbname*

--dbname=*dbname*

Connect to database *dbname* and restore directly into the database.

-e

--exit-on-error

Exit if an error is encountered while sending SQL commands to the database. The default is to continue and to display a count of errors at the end of the restoration.

-f *filename*

--file=*filename*

Specify output file for generated script, or for the listing when used with `-l`. Default is the standard output.

-F *format*

--format=*format*

Specify format of the archive. It is not necessary to specify the format, since `pg_restore` will determine the format automatically. If specified, it can be one of the following:

t

The archive is a `tar` archive. Using this archive format allows reordering and/or exclusion of schema elements at the time the database is restored. It is also possible to limit which data is reloaded at restore time.

c

The archive is in the custom format of `pg_dump`. This is the most flexible format in that it allows reordering of data load as well as schema elements. This format is also compressed by default.

-i

--ignore-version

Ignore database version checks.

-I *index*

--index=*index*

Restore definition of named index only.

-l

--list

List the contents of the archive. The output of this operation can be used with the `-L` option to restrict and reorder the items that are restored.

`-L list-file`

`--use-list=list-file`

Restore elements in *list-file* only, and in the order they appear in the file. Lines can be moved and may also be commented out by placing a `;` at the start of the line. (See below for examples.)

`-O`

`--no-owner`

Do not output commands to set ownership of objects to match the original database. By default, `pg_restore` issues `ALTER OWNER` or `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION` statements to set ownership of created schema elements. These statements will fail unless the initial connection to the database is made by a superuser (or the same user that owns all of the objects in the script). With `-O`, any user name can be used for the initial connection, and this user will own all the created objects.

`-P function-name(argtype [, ...])`

`--function=function-name(argtype [, ...])`

Restore the named function only. Be careful to spell the function name and arguments exactly as they appear in the dump file's table of contents.

`-R`

`--no-reconnect`

This option is obsolete but still accepted for backwards compatibility.

`-s`

`--schema-only`

Restore only the schema (data definitions), not the data. Sequence values will be reset.

`-S username`

`--superuser=username`

Specify the superuser user name to use when disabling triggers. This is only relevant if `--disable-triggers` is used.

`-t table`

`--table=table`

Restore definition and/or data of named table only.

`-T trigger`

`--trigger=trigger`

Restore named trigger only.

`-v`

`--verbose`

Specifies verbose mode.

`-x`

`--no-privileges`

`--no-acl`

Prevent restoration of access privileges (`grant/revoke` commands).

`-X use-set-session-authorization`
`--use-set-session-authorization`

Output SQL standard SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION commands instead of OWNER TO commands. This makes the dump more standards compatible, but depending on the history of the objects in the dump, may not restore properly.

`-X disable-triggers`
`--disable-triggers`

This option is only relevant when performing a data-only restore. It instructs pg_restore to execute commands to temporarily disable triggers on the target tables while the data is reloaded. Use this if you have referential integrity checks or other triggers on the tables that you do not want to invoke during data reload.

Presently, the commands emitted for `--disable-triggers` must be done as superuser. So, you should also specify a superuser name with `-s`, or preferably run pg_restore as a PostgreSQL superuser.

pg_restore also accepts the following command line arguments for connection parameters:

`-h host`
`--host=host`

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket. The default is taken from the PGHOST environment variable, if set, else a Unix domain socket connection is attempted.

`-p port`
`--port=port`

Specifies the TCP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections. Defaults to the PGPORT environment variable, if set, or a compiled-in default.

`-U username`

Connect as the given user

`-W`

Force a password prompt. This should happen automatically if the server requires password authentication.

Environment

PGHOST
PGPORT
PGUSER

Default connection parameters

Diagnostics

When a direct database connection is specified using the `-d` option, `pg_restore` internally executes SQL statements. If you have problems running `pg_restore`, make sure you are able to select information from the database using, for example, `psql`.

Notes

If your installation has any local additions to the `template1` database, be careful to load the output of `pg_restore` into a truly empty database; otherwise you are likely to get errors due to duplicate definitions of the added objects. To make an empty database without any local additions, copy from `template0` not `template1`, for example:

```
CREATE DATABASE foo WITH TEMPLATE template0;
```

The limitations of `pg_restore` are detailed below.

- When restoring data to a pre-existing table and the option `--disable-triggers` is used, `pg_restore` emits commands to disable triggers on user tables before inserting the data then emits commands to re-enable them after the data has been inserted. If the restore is stopped in the middle, the system catalogs may be left in the wrong state.
- `pg_restore` will not restore large objects for a single table. If an archive contains large objects, then all large objects will be restored.

See also the `pg_dump` documentation for details on limitations of `pg_dump`.

Once restored, it is wise to run `ANALYZE` on each restored table so the optimizer has useful statistics.

Examples

To dump a database called `mydb` that contains large objects to a `tar` file:

```
$ pg_dump -Ft -b mydb > db.tar
```

To reload this database (with large objects) to an existing database called `newdb`:

```
$ pg_restore -d newdb db.tar
```

To reorder database items, it is first necessary to dump the table of contents of the archive:

```
$ pg_restore -l archive.file > archive.list
```

The listing file consists of a header and one line for each item, e.g.,

```
;
; Archive created at Fri Jul 28 22:28:36 2000
;   dbname: birds
;   TOC Entries: 74
;   Compression: 0
;   Dump Version: 1.4-0
;   Format: CUSTOM
;
;
; Selected TOC Entries:
;
2; 145344 TABLE species postgres
3; 145344 ACL species
4; 145359 TABLE nt_header postgres
5; 145359 ACL nt_header
6; 145402 TABLE species_records postgres
7; 145402 ACL species_records
8; 145416 TABLE ss_old postgres
9; 145416 ACL ss_old
10; 145433 TABLE map_resolutions postgres
11; 145433 ACL map_resolutions
12; 145443 TABLE hs_old postgres
13; 145443 ACL hs_old
```

Semicolons start a comment, and the numbers at the start of lines refer to the internal archive ID assigned to each item.

Lines in the file can be commented out, deleted, and reordered. For example,

```
10; 145433 TABLE map_resolutions postgres
;2; 145344 TABLE species postgres
;4; 145359 TABLE nt_header postgres
6; 145402 TABLE species_records postgres
;8; 145416 TABLE ss_old postgres
```

could be used as input to `pg_restore` and would only restore items 10 and 6, in that order:

```
$ pg_restore -L archive.list archive.file
```

History

The `pg_restore` utility first appeared in PostgreSQL 7.1.

See Also

`pg_dump`, `pg_dumpall`, `psql`

psql

Name

psql — PostgreSQL interactive terminal

Synopsis

```
psql [option...] [dbname [username]]
```

Description

psql is a terminal-based front-end to PostgreSQL. It enables you to type in queries interactively, issue them to PostgreSQL, and see the query results. Alternatively, input can be from a file. In addition, it provides a number of meta-commands and various shell-like features to facilitate writing scripts and automating a wide variety of tasks.

Options

-a

--echo-all

Print all input lines to standard output as they are read. This is more useful for script processing rather than interactive mode. This is equivalent to setting the variable `ECHO` to `all`.

-A

--no-align

Switches to unaligned output mode. (The default output mode is otherwise aligned.)

-c *command*

--command *command*

Specifies that psql is to execute one command string, *command*, and then exit. This is useful in shell scripts.

command must be either a command string that is completely parsable by the server (i.e., it contains no psql specific features), or a single backslash command. Thus you cannot mix SQL and psql meta-commands. To achieve that, you could pipe the string into psql, like this: `echo "\x \ select * from foo;" | psql.`

If the command string contains multiple SQL commands, they are processed in a single transaction, unless there are explicit `BEGIN/COMMIT` commands included in the string to divide it into multiple transactions. This is different from the behavior when the same string is fed to psql's standard input.

-d *dbname*

--dbname *dbname*

Specifies the name of the database to connect to. This is equivalent to specifying *dbname* as the first non-option argument on the command line.

-e

--echo-queries

Copy all SQL commands sent to the server to standard output as well. This is equivalent to setting the variable `ECHO` to `queries`.

-E

--echo-hidden

Echo the actual queries generated by `\d` and other backslash commands. You can use this to study psql's internal operations. This is equivalent to setting the variable `ECHO_HIDDEN` from within psql.

-f *filename*

--file *filename*

Use the file *filename* as the source of commands instead of reading commands interactively. After the file is processed, psql terminates. This is in many ways equivalent to the internal command `\i`.

If *filename* is `-` (hyphen), then standard input is read.

Using this option is subtly different from writing `psql < filename`. In general, both will do what you expect, but using `-f` enables some nice features such as error messages with line numbers. There is also a slight chance that using this option will reduce the start-up overhead. On the other hand, the variant using the shell's input redirection is (in theory) guaranteed to yield exactly the same output that you would have gotten had you entered everything by hand.

-F *separator*

--field-separator *separator*

Use *separator* as the field separator. This is equivalent to `\pset fieldsep or \f`.

-h *hostname*

--host *hostname*

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix-domain socket.

-H

--html

Turn on HTML tabular output. This is equivalent to `\pset format html` or the `\H` command.

-l

--list

List all available databases, then exit. Other non-connection options are ignored. This is similar to the internal command `\list`.

-o *filename*

--output *filename*

Put all query output into file *filename*. This is equivalent to the command `\o`.

-p *port*

--port *port*

Specifies the TCP port or the local Unix-domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections. Defaults to the value of the `PGPORT` environment variable or, if not set, to the port specified at compile time, usually 5432.

`-P assignment`

`--pset assignment`

Allows you to specify printing options in the style of `\pset` on the command line. Note that here you have to separate name and value with an equal sign instead of a space. Thus to set the output format to LaTeX, you could write `-P format=latex`.

`-q`

`--quiet`

Specifies that psql should do its work quietly. By default, it prints welcome messages and various informational output. If this option is used, none of this happens. This is useful with the `-c` option. Within psql you can also set the `QUIET` variable to achieve the same effect.

`-R separator`

`--record-separator separator`

Use *separator* as the record separator. This is equivalent to the `\pset recordsep` command.

`-s`

`--single-step`

Run in single-step mode. That means the user is prompted before each command is sent to the server, with the option to cancel execution as well. Use this to debug scripts.

`-S`

`--single-line`

Runs in single-line mode where a newline terminates an SQL command, as a semicolon does.

Note: This mode is provided for those who insist on it, but you are not necessarily encouraged to use it. In particular, if you mix SQL and meta-commands on a line the order of execution might not always be clear to the inexperienced user.

`-t`

`--tuples-only`

Turn off printing of column names and result row count footers, etc. This is equivalent to the `\t` command.

`-T table_options`

`--table-attr table_options`

Allows you to specify options to be placed within the HTML `table` tag. See `\pset` for details.

`-u`

Makes psql prompt for the user name and password before connecting to the database.

This option is deprecated, as it is conceptually flawed. (Prompting for a non-default user name and prompting for a password because the server requires it are really two different things.) You are encouraged to look at the `-U` and `-w` options instead.

`-U username`

`--username username`

Connect to the database as the user *username* instead of the default. (You must have permission to do so, of course.)

`-v assignment`

`--set assignment`

`--variable assignment`

Perform a variable assignment, like the `\set` internal command. Note that you must separate name and value, if any, by an equal sign on the command line. To unset a variable, leave off the equal sign. To just set a variable without a value, use the equal sign but leave off the value. These assignments are done during a very early stage of start-up, so variables reserved for internal purposes might get overwritten later.

`-V`

`--version`

Print the psql version and exit.

`-W`

`--password`

Cause psql to prompt for a password before connecting to a database. This will remain set for the entire session, even if you change the database connection with the meta-command `\connect`.

In the current version, psql automatically issues a password prompt whenever the server requests password authentication. Because this is currently based on a hack, the automatic recognition might mysteriously fail, hence this option to force a prompt. If no password prompt is issued and the server requires password authentication, the connection attempt will fail.

`-x`

`--expanded`

Turn on the extended table formatting mode. This is equivalent to the command `\x`.

`-X,`

`--no-psqlrc`

Do not read the start-up file (neither the system-wide `psqlrc` file nor the user's `~/psqlrc` file).

`-?`

`--help`

Show help about psql command line arguments, and exit.

Exit Status

psql returns 0 to the shell if it finished normally, 1 if a fatal error of its own (out of memory, file not found) occurs, 2 if the connection to the server went bad and the session was not interactive, and 3 if an error occurred in a script and the variable `ON_ERROR_STOP` was set.

Usage

Connecting To A Database

psql is a regular PostgreSQL client application. In order to connect to a database you need to know the name of your target database, the host name and port number of the server and what user name you want to connect as. psql can be told about those parameters via command line options, namely `-d`, `-h`, `-p`, and `-U` respectively. If an argument is found that does not belong to any option it will be interpreted as the database name (or the user name, if the database name is already given). Not all these options are required; there are useful defaults. If you omit the host name, psql will connect via a Unix-domain socket to a server on the local host, or via TCP/IP to `localhost` on machines that don't have Unix-domain sockets. The default port number is determined at compile time. Since the database server uses the same default, you will not have to specify the port in most cases. The default user name is your Unix user name, as is the default database name. Note that you can't just connect to any database under any user name. Your database administrator should have informed you about your access rights.

When the defaults aren't quite right, you can save yourself some typing by setting the environment variables `PGDATABASE`, `PGHOST`, `PGPORT` and/or `PGUSER` to appropriate values.

If the connection could not be made for any reason (e.g., insufficient privileges, server is not running on the targeted host, etc.), psql will return an error and terminate.

Entering SQL Commands

In normal operation, psql provides a prompt with the name of the database to which psql is currently connected, followed by the string `=>`. For example,

```
$ psql testdb
Welcome to psql 8.0.0, the PostgreSQL interactive terminal.

Type:  \copyright for distribution terms
       \h for help with SQL commands
       \? for help with psql commands
       \g or terminate with semicolon to execute query
       \q to quit

testdb=>
```

At the prompt, the user may type in SQL commands. Ordinarily, input lines are sent to the server when a command-terminating semicolon is reached. An end of line does not terminate a command. Thus commands can be spread over several lines for clarity. If the command was sent and executed without error, the results of the command are displayed on the screen.

Whenever a command is executed, psql also polls for asynchronous notification events generated by *LISTEN* and *NOTIFY*.

Meta-Commands

Anything you enter in psql that begins with an unquoted backslash is a psql meta-command that is processed by psql itself. These commands help make psql more useful for administration or scripting. Meta-commands are more commonly called slash or backslash commands.

The format of a psql command is the backslash, followed immediately by a command verb, then any arguments. The arguments are separated from the command verb and each other by any number of whitespace characters.

To include whitespace into an argument you may quote it with a single quote. To include a single quote into such an argument, precede it by a backslash. Anything contained in single quotes is furthermore subject to C-like substitutions for `\n` (new line), `\t` (tab), `\digits`, `\odigits`, and `\0xdigits` (the character with the given decimal, octal, or hexadecimal code).

If an unquoted argument begins with a colon (:), it is taken as a psql variable and the value of the variable is used as the argument instead.

Arguments that are enclosed in backquotes (`) are taken as a command line that is passed to the shell. The output of the command (with any trailing newline removed) is taken as the argument value. The above escape sequences also apply in backquotes.

Some commands take an SQL identifier (such as a table name) as argument. These arguments follow the syntax rules of SQL: Unquoted letters are forced to lowercase, while double quotes (") protect letters from case conversion and allow incorporation of whitespace into the identifier. Within double quotes, paired double quotes reduce to a single double quote in the resulting name. For example, `FOO"BAR"BAZ` is interpreted as `fooBARbaz`, and `"A weird" name"` becomes `A weird name`.

Parsing for arguments stops when another unquoted backslash occurs. This is taken as the beginning of a new meta-command. The special sequence `\\` (two backslashes) marks the end of arguments and continues parsing SQL commands, if any. That way SQL and psql commands can be freely mixed on a line. But in any case, the arguments of a meta-command cannot continue beyond the end of the line.

The following meta-commands are defined:

`\a`

If the current table output format is unaligned, it is switched to aligned. If it is not unaligned, it is set to unaligned. This command is kept for backwards compatibility. See `\pset` for a more general solution.

`\cd [directory]`

Changes the current working directory to *directory*. Without argument, changes to the current user's home directory.

Tip: To print your current working directory, use `!\pwd`.

`\C [title]`

Sets the title of any tables being printed as the result of a query or unset any such title. This command is equivalent to `\pset title title`. (The name of this command derives from "caption", as it was previously only used to set the caption in an HTML table.)

```
\connect (or \c) [ dbname [ username ] ]
```

Establishes a connection to a new database and/or under a user name. The previous connection is closed. If *dbname* is - the current database name is assumed.

If *username* is omitted the current user name is assumed.

As a special rule, `\connect` without any arguments will connect to the default database as the default user (as you would have gotten by starting `psql` without any arguments).

If the connection attempt failed (wrong user name, access denied, etc.), the previous connection will be kept if and only if `psql` is in interactive mode. When executing a non-interactive script, processing will immediately stop with an error. This distinction was chosen as a user convenience against typos on the one hand, and a safety mechanism that scripts are not accidentally acting on the wrong database on the other hand.

```
\copy table [ ( column_list ) ] { from | to } { filename | stdin | stdout
| pstdin | pstdout } [ with ] [ oids ] [ delimiter [ as ] 'character' ] [
null [ as ] 'string' ] [ csv [ quote [ as ] 'character' ] [ escape [ as ]
'character' ] [ force quote column_list ] [ force not null column_list ] ]
```

Performs a frontend (client) copy. This is an operation that runs an SQL *COPY* command, but instead of the server reading or writing the specified file, `psql` reads or writes the file and routes the data between the server and the local file system. This means that file accessibility and privileges are those of the local user, not the server, and no SQL superuser privileges are required.

The syntax of the command is similar to that of the SQL *COPY* command. Note that, because of this, special parsing rules apply to the `\copy` command. In particular, the variable substitution rules and backslash escapes do not apply.

`\copy table from stdin / stdout` reads/writes based on the command input and output respectively. All rows are read from the same source that issued the command, continuing until `\.` is read or the stream reaches EOF. Output is sent to the same place as command output. To read/write from `psql`'s standard input or output, use `pstdin` or `pstdout`. This option is useful for populating tables in-line within a SQL script file.

Tip: This operation is not as efficient as the SQL *COPY* command because all data must pass through the client/server connection. For large amounts of data the SQL command may be preferable.

```
\copyright
```

Shows the copyright and distribution terms of PostgreSQL.

```
\d [ pattern ]
```

```
\d+ [ pattern ]
```

For each relation (table, view, index, or sequence) matching the *pattern*, show all columns, their types, the tablespace (if not the default) and any special attributes such as `NOT NULL` or defaults, if any. Associated indexes, constraints, rules, and triggers are also shown, as is the view definition if the relation is a view. (“Matching the pattern” is defined below.)

The command form `\d+` is identical, except that more information is displayed: any comments associated with the columns of the table are shown, as is the presence of OIDs in the table.

Note: If `\d` is used without a *pattern* argument, it is equivalent to `\dtvs` which will show a list of all tables, views, and sequences. This is purely a convenience measure.

`\da [pattern]`

Lists all available aggregate functions, together with the data type they operate on. If *pattern* is specified, only aggregates whose names match the pattern are shown.

`\db [pattern]`

`\db+ [pattern]`

Lists all available tablespaces. If *pattern* is specified, only tablespaces whose names match the pattern are shown. If `+` is appended to the command name, each object is listed with its associated permissions.

`\dc [pattern]`

Lists all available conversions between character-set encodings. If *pattern* is specified, only conversions whose names match the pattern are listed.

`\dc`

Lists all available type casts.

`\dd [pattern]`

Shows the descriptions of objects matching the *pattern*, or of all visible objects if no argument is given. But in either case, only objects that have a description are listed. (“Object” covers aggregates, functions, operators, types, relations (tables, views, indexes, sequences, large objects), rules, and triggers.) For example:

```
=> \dd version
                Object descriptions
 Schema | Name | Object | Description
-----+-----+-----+-----
 pg_catalog | version | function | PostgreSQL version string
(1 row)
```

Descriptions for objects can be created with the *COMMENT SQL* command.

`\dD [pattern]`

Lists all available domains. If *pattern* is specified, only matching domains are shown.

`\df [pattern]`

`\df+ [pattern]`

Lists available functions, together with their argument and return types. If *pattern* is specified, only functions whose names match the pattern are shown. If the form `\df+` is used, additional information about each function, including language and description, is shown.

Note: To look up functions taking argument or returning values of a specific type, use your pager’s search capability to scroll through the `\df` output.

To reduce clutter, `\df` does not show data type I/O functions. This is implemented by ignoring functions that accept or return type `cstring`.

`\dg [pattern]`

Lists all database groups. If *pattern* is specified, only those groups whose names match the pattern are listed.

`\distvs [pattern]`

This is not the actual command name: the letters *i*, *s*, *t*, *v*, *S* stand for index, sequence, table, view, and system table, respectively. You can specify any or all of these letters, in any order, to obtain a listing of all the matching objects. The letter *S* restricts the listing to system objects; without *s*, only non-system objects are shown. If *+* is appended to the command name, each object is listed with its associated description, if any.

If *pattern* is specified, only objects whose names match the pattern are listed.

`\dl`

This is an alias for `\lo_list`, which shows a list of large objects.

`\dn [pattern]`

`\dn+ [pattern]`

Lists all available schemas (namespaces). If *pattern* (a regular expression) is specified, only schemas whose names match the pattern are listed. Non-local temporary schemas are suppressed. If *+* is appended to the command name, each object is listed with its associated permissions and description, if any.

`\do [pattern]`

Lists available operators with their operand and return types. If *pattern* is specified, only operators whose names match the pattern are listed.

`\dp [pattern]`

Produces a list of all available tables, views and sequences with their associated access privileges. If *pattern* is specified, only tables, views and sequences whose names match the pattern are listed.

The commands GRANT and REVOKE are used to set access privileges. See GRANT for more information.

`\dT [pattern]`

`\dT+ [pattern]`

Lists all data types or only those that match *pattern*. The command form `\dT+` shows extra information.

`\du [pattern]`

Lists all database users or only those that match *pattern*.

`\edit (or \e) [filename]`

If *filename* is specified, the file is edited; after the editor exits, its content is copied back to the query buffer. If no argument is given, the current query buffer is copied to a temporary file which is then edited in the same fashion.

The new query buffer is then re-parsed according to the normal rules of psql, where the whole buffer is treated as a single line. (Thus you cannot make scripts this way. Use `\i` for that.) This means also

that if the query ends with (or rather contains) a semicolon, it is immediately executed. In other cases it will merely wait in the query buffer.

Tip: psql searches the environment variables `PSQL_EDITOR`, `EDITOR`, and `VISUAL` (in that order) for an editor to use. If all of them are unset, `vi` is used on Unix systems, `notepad.exe` on Windows systems.

`\echo text [...]`

Prints the arguments to the standard output, separated by one space and followed by a newline. This can be useful to intersperse information in the output of scripts. For example:

```
=> \echo `date`
Tue Oct 26 21:40:57 CEST 1999
```

If the first argument is an unquoted `-n` the trailing newline is not written.

Tip: If you use the `\o` command to redirect your query output you may wish to use `\qecho` instead of this command.

`\encoding [encoding]`

Sets the client character set encoding. Without an argument, this command shows the current encoding.

`\f [string]`

Sets the field separator for unaligned query output. The default is the vertical bar (`|`). See also `\pset` for a generic way of setting output options.

`\g [{ filename | command }]`

Sends the current query input buffer to the server and optionally stores the query's output in *filename* or pipes the output into a separate Unix shell executing *command*. A bare `\g` is virtually equivalent to a semicolon. A `\g` with argument is a “one-shot” alternative to the `\o` command.

`\help (or \h) [command]`

Gives syntax help on the specified SQL command. If *command* is not specified, then psql will list all the commands for which syntax help is available. If *command* is an asterisk (`*`), then syntax help on all SQL commands is shown.

Note: To simplify typing, commands that consists of several words do not have to be quoted. Thus it is fine to type `\help alter table`.

`\H`

Turns on HTML query output format. If the HTML format is already on, it is switched back to the default aligned text format. This command is for compatibility and convenience, but see `\pset` about setting other output options.

`\i filename`

Reads input from the file *filename* and executes it as though it had been typed on the keyboard.

Note: If you want to see the lines on the screen as they are read you must set the variable `ECHO` to `all`.

`\l (or \list)`

`\l+ (or \list+)`

List the names, owners, and character set encodings of all the databases in the server. If `+` is appended to the command name, database descriptions are also displayed.

`\lo_export oid filename`

Reads the large object with OID *oid* from the database and writes it to *filename*. Note that this is subtly different from the server function `lo_export`, which acts with the permissions of the user that the database server runs as and on the server's file system.

Tip: Use `\lo_list` to find out the large object's OID.

`\lo_import filename [comment]`

Stores the file into a PostgreSQL large object. Optionally, it associates the given comment with the object. Example:

```
foo=> \lo_import '/home/peter/pictures/photo.xcf' 'a picture of me'
lo_import 152801
```

The response indicates that the large object received object ID 152801 which one ought to remember if one wants to access the object ever again. For that reason it is recommended to always associate a human-readable comment with every object. Those can then be seen with the `\lo_list` command.

Note that this command is subtly different from the server-side `lo_import` because it acts as the local user on the local file system, rather than the server's user and file system.

`\lo_list`

Shows a list of all PostgreSQL large objects currently stored in the database, along with any comments provided for them.

`\lo_unlink oid`

Deletes the large object with OID *oid* from the database.

Tip: Use `\lo_list` to find out the large object's OID.

`\o [{filename} | {command}]`

Saves future query results to the file *filename* or pipes future results into a separate Unix shell to execute *command*. If no arguments are specified, the query output will be reset to the standard output.

“Query results” includes all tables, command responses, and notices obtained from the database server, as well as output of various backslash commands that query the database (such as `\d`), but not error messages.

Tip: To intersperse text output in between query results, use `\qecho`.

`\p`

Print the current query buffer to the standard output.

`\pset parameter [value]`

This command sets options affecting the output of query result tables. *parameter* describes which option is to be set. The semantics of *value* depend thereon.

Adjustable printing options are:

`format`

Sets the output format to one of `unaligned`, `aligned`, `html`, or `latex`. Unique abbreviations are allowed. (That would mean one letter is enough.)

“Unaligned” writes all columns of a row on a line, separated by the currently active field separator. This is intended to create output that might be intended to be read in by other programs (tab-separated, comma-separated). “Aligned” mode is the standard, human-readable, nicely formatted text output that is default. The “HTML” and “LaTeX” modes put out tables that are intended to be included in documents using the respective mark-up language. They are not complete documents! (This might not be so dramatic in HTML, but in LaTeX you must have a complete document wrapper.)

`border`

The second argument must be a number. In general, the higher the number the more borders and lines the tables will have, but this depends on the particular format. In HTML mode, this will translate directly into the `border=...` attribute, in the others only values 0 (no border), 1 (internal dividing lines), and 2 (table frame) make sense.

`expanded (or x)`

Toggles between regular and expanded format. When expanded format is enabled, all output has two columns with the column name on the left and the data on the right. This mode is useful if the data wouldn’t fit on the screen in the normal “horizontal” mode.

Expanded mode is supported by all four output formats.

`null`

The second argument is a string that should be printed whenever a column is null. The default is not to print anything, which can easily be mistaken for, say, an empty string. Thus, one might choose to write `\pset null '(null)'`.

`fieldsep`

Specifies the field separator to be used in unaligned output mode. That way one can create, for example, tab- or comma-separated output, which other programs might prefer. To set a tab

as field separator, type `\pset fieldsep '\t'`. The default field separator is `'|'` (a vertical bar).

`footer`

Toggles the display of the default footer (`x rows`).

`recordsep`

Specifies the record (line) separator to use in unaligned output mode. The default is a newline character.

`tuples_only` (or `t`)

Toggles between tuples only and full display. Full display may show extra information such as column headers, titles, and various footers. In tuples only mode, only actual table data is shown.

`title [text]`

Sets the table title for any subsequently printed tables. This can be used to give your output descriptive tags. If no argument is given, the title is unset.

`tableattr` (or `T`) [`text`]

Allows you to specify any attributes to be placed inside the HTML `table` tag. This could for example be `cellpadding` or `bgcolor`. Note that you probably don't want to specify `border` here, as that is already taken care of by `\pset border`.

`pager`

Controls use of a pager for query and psql help output. If the environment variable `PAGER` is set, the output is piped to the specified program. Otherwise a platform-dependent default (such as `more`) is used.

When the pager is off, the pager is not used. When the pager is on, the pager is used only when appropriate, i.e. the output is to a terminal and will not fit on the screen. (psql does not do a perfect job of estimating when to use the pager.) `\pset pager` turns the pager on and off. Pager can also be set to `always`, which causes the pager to be always used.

Illustrations on how these different formats look can be seen in the *Examples* section.

Tip: There are various shortcut commands for `\pset`. See `\a`, `\C`, `\H`, `\t`, `\T`, and `\x`.

Note: It is an error to call `\pset` without arguments. In the future this call might show the current status of all printing options.

`\q`

Quits the psql program.

`\qecho text [...]`

This command is identical to `\echo` except that the output will be written to the query output channel, as set by `\o`.

`\r`

Resets (clears) the query buffer.

`\s [filename]`

Print or save the command line history to *filename*. If *filename* is omitted, the history is written to the standard output. This option is only available if psql is configured to use the GNU Readline library.

Note: In the current version, it is no longer necessary to save the command history, since that will be done automatically on program termination. The history is also loaded automatically every time psql starts up.

`\set [name [value [...]]]`

Sets the internal variable *name* to *value* or, if more than one value is given, to the concatenation of all of them. If no second argument is given, the variable is just set with no value. To unset a variable, use the `\unset` command.

Valid variable names can contain characters, digits, and underscores. See the section *Variables* below for details. Variable names are case-sensitive.

Although you are welcome to set any variable to anything you want, psql treats several variables as special. They are documented in the section about variables.

Note: This command is totally separate from the SQL command *SET*.

`\t`

Toggles the display of output column name headings and row count footer. This command is equivalent to `\pset tuples_only` and is provided for convenience.

`\T table_options`

Allows you to specify attributes to be placed within the `table` tag in HTML tabular output mode. This command is equivalent to `\pset tableattr table_options`.

`\timing`

Toggles a display of how long each SQL statement takes, in milliseconds.

`\w {filename | /command}`

Outputs the current query buffer to the file *filename* or pipes it to the Unix command *command*.

`\x`

Toggles extended table formatting mode. As such it is equivalent to `\pset expanded`.

`\z [pattern]`

Produces a list of all available tables, views and sequences with their associated access privileges. If a *pattern* is specified, only tables, views and sequences whose names match the pattern are listed.

The commands GRANT and REVOKE are used to set access privileges. See GRANT for more information.

This is an alias for `\dp` (“display privileges”).

`\! [command]`

Escapes to a separate Unix shell or executes the Unix command *command*. The arguments are not further interpreted, the shell will see them as is.

`\?`

Shows help information about the backslash commands.

The various `\d` commands accept a *pattern* parameter to specify the object name(s) to be displayed. `*` means “any sequence of characters” and `?` means “any single character”. (This notation is comparable to Unix shell file name patterns.) Advanced users can also use regular-expression notations such as character classes, for example `[0-9]` to match “any digit”. To make any of these pattern-matching characters be interpreted literally, surround it with double quotes.

A pattern that contains an (unquoted) dot is interpreted as a schema name pattern followed by an object name pattern. For example, `\dt foo*.bar*` displays all tables in schemas whose name starts with `foo` and whose table name starts with `bar`. If no dot appears, then the pattern matches only objects that are visible in the current schema search path.

Whenever the *pattern* parameter is omitted completely, the `\d` commands display all objects that are visible in the current schema search path. To see all objects in the database, use the pattern `*.*`.

Advanced features

Variables

psql provides variable substitution features similar to common Unix command shells. Variables are simply name/value pairs, where the value can be any string of any length. To set variables, use the psql meta-command `\set`:

```
testdb=> \set foo bar
```

sets the variable `foo` to the value `bar`. To retrieve the content of the variable, precede the name with a colon and use it as the argument of any slash command:

```
testdb=> \echo :foo
bar
```

Note: The arguments of `\set` are subject to the same substitution rules as with other commands. Thus you can construct interesting references such as `\set :foo 'something'` and get “soft links” or “variable variables” of Perl or PHP fame, respectively. Unfortunately (or fortunately?), there is no way to do anything useful with these constructs. On the other hand, `\set bar :foo` is a perfectly valid way to copy a variable.

If you call `\set` without a second argument, the variable is set, with an empty string as value. To unset (or delete) a variable, use the command `\unset`.

psql’s internal variable names can consist of letters, numbers, and underscores in any order and any number of them. A number of these variables are treated specially by psql. They indicate certain option settings that can be changed at run time by altering the value of the variable or represent some state of the application. Although you can use these variables for any other purpose, this is not recommended, as the program behavior might grow really strange really quickly. By convention, all specially treated variables consist of all upper-case letters (and possibly numbers and underscores). To ensure maximum compatibility in the future, avoid using such variable names for your own purposes. A list of all specially treated variables follows.

AUTOCOMMIT

When `on` (the default), each SQL command is automatically committed upon successful completion. To postpone commit in this mode, you must enter a `BEGIN` or `START TRANSACTION SQL` command. When `off` or `unset`, SQL commands are not committed until you explicitly issue `COMMIT` or `END`. The autocommit-off mode works by issuing an implicit `BEGIN` for you, just before any command that is not already in a transaction block and is not itself a `BEGIN` or other transaction-control command, nor a command that cannot be executed inside a transaction block (such as `VACUUM`).

Note: In autocommit-off mode, you must explicitly abandon any failed transaction by entering `ABORT` or `ROLLBACK`. Also keep in mind that if you exit the session without committing, your work will be lost.

Note: The autocommit-on mode is PostgreSQL’s traditional behavior, but autocommit-off is closer to the SQL spec. If you prefer autocommit-off, you may wish to set it in the system-wide `psqlrc` file or your `~/.psqlrc` file.

DBNAME

The name of the database you are currently connected to. This is set every time you connect to a database (including program start-up), but can be unset.

ECHO

If set to `all`, all lines entered from the keyboard or from a script are written to the standard output before they are parsed or executed. To select this behavior on program start-up, use the switch `-a`. If set to `queries`, psql merely prints all queries as they are sent to the server. The switch for this is `-e`.

ECHO_HIDDEN

When this variable is set and a backslash command queries the database, the query is first shown. This way you can study the PostgreSQL internals and provide similar functionality in your own programs. (To select this behavior on program start-up, use the switch `-E`.) If you set the variable to the value `noexec`, the queries are just shown but are not actually sent to the server and executed.

ENCODING

The current client character set encoding.

HISTCONTROL

If this variable is set to `ignorespace`, lines which begin with a space are not entered into the history list. If set to a value of `ignoredups`, lines matching the previous history line are not entered. A value of `ignoreboth` combines the two options. If unset, or if set to any other value than those above, all lines read in interactive mode are saved on the history list.

Note: This feature was shamelessly plagiarized from Bash.

HISTSIZE

The number of commands to store in the command history. The default value is 500.

Note: This feature was shamelessly plagiarized from Bash.

HOST

The database server host you are currently connected to. This is set every time you connect to a database (including program start-up), but can be unset.

IGNOREEOF

If unset, sending an EOF character (usually **Control+D**) to an interactive session of psql will terminate the application. If set to a numeric value, that many EOF characters are ignored before the application terminates. If the variable is set but has no numeric value, the default is 10.

Note: This feature was shamelessly plagiarized from Bash.

LASTOID

The value of the last affected OID, as returned from an `INSERT` or `lo_insert` command. This variable is only guaranteed to be valid until after the result of the next SQL command has been displayed.

ON_ERROR_STOP

By default, if non-interactive scripts encounter an error, such as a malformed SQL command or internal meta-command, processing continues. This has been the traditional behavior of psql but it is sometimes not desirable. If this variable is set, script processing will immediately terminate. If the script was called from another script it will terminate in the same fashion. If the outermost script was

not called from an interactive psql session but rather using the `-f` option, psql will return error code 3, to distinguish this case from fatal error conditions (error code 1).

PORT

The database server port to which you are currently connected. This is set every time you connect to a database (including program start-up), but can be unset.

PROMPT1

PROMPT2

PROMPT3

These specify what the prompts psql issues should look like. See *Prompting* below.

QUIET

This variable is equivalent to the command line option `-q`. It is probably not too useful in interactive mode.

SINGLELINE

This variable is equivalent to the command line option `-s`.

SINGLESTEP

This variable is equivalent to the command line option `-s`.

USER

The database user you are currently connected as. This is set every time you connect to a database (including program start-up), but can be unset.

VERBOSITY

This variable can be set to the values `default`, `verbose`, or `terse` to control the verbosity of error reports.

SQL Interpolation

An additional useful feature of psql variables is that you can substitute (“interpolate”) them into regular SQL statements. The syntax for this is again to prepend the variable name with a colon (:).

```
testdb=> \set foo 'my_table'
testdb=> SELECT * FROM :foo;
```

would then query the table `my_table`. The value of the variable is copied literally, so it can even contain unbalanced quotes or backslash commands. You must make sure that it makes sense where you put it. Variable interpolation will not be performed into quoted SQL entities.

A popular application of this facility is to refer to the last inserted OID in subsequent statements to build a foreign key scenario. Another possible use of this mechanism is to copy the contents of a file into a table column. First load the file into a variable and then proceed as above.

```
testdb=> \set content \" `cat my_file.txt` \"
testdb=> INSERT INTO my_table VALUES (:content);
```

One possible problem with this approach is that `my_file.txt` might contain single quotes. These need to be escaped so that they don't cause a syntax error when the second line is processed. This could be done with the program `sed`:

```
testdb=> \set content '\` `sed -e "s//\\\'/g" < my_file.txt` `\'`
```

Observe the correct number of backslashes (6)! It works this way: After `psql` has parsed this line, it passes `sed -e "s//\\\'/g" < my_file.txt` to the shell. The shell will do its own thing inside the double quotes and execute `sed` with the arguments `-e` and `s//\\\'/g`. When `sed` parses this it will replace the two backslashes with a single one and then do the substitution. Perhaps at one point you thought it was great that all Unix commands use the same escape character. And this is ignoring the fact that you might have to escape all backslashes as well because SQL text constants are also subject to certain interpretations. In that case you might be better off preparing the file externally.

Since colons may legally appear in SQL commands, the following rule applies: the character sequence “:name” is not changed unless “name” is the name of a variable that is currently set. In any case you can escape a colon with a backslash to protect it from substitution. (The colon syntax for variables is standard SQL for embedded query languages, such as ECPG. The colon syntax for array slices and type casts are PostgreSQL extensions, hence the conflict.)

Prompting

The prompts `psql` issues can be customized to your preference. The three variables `PROMPT1`, `PROMPT2`, and `PROMPT3` contain strings and special escape sequences that describe the appearance of the prompt. Prompt 1 is the normal prompt that is issued when `psql` requests a new command. Prompt 2 is issued when more input is expected during command input because the command was not terminated with a semicolon or a quote was not closed. Prompt 3 is issued when you run an SQL `COPY` command and you are expected to type in the row values on the terminal.

The value of the selected prompt variable is printed literally, except where a percent sign (%) is encountered. Depending on the next character, certain other text is substituted instead. Defined substitutions are:

`%M`

The full host name (with domain name) of the database server, or `[local]` if the connection is over a Unix domain socket, or `[local:/dir/name]`, if the Unix domain socket is not at the compiled in default location.

`%m`

The host name of the database server, truncated at the first dot, or `[local]` if the connection is over a Unix domain socket.

`%>`

The port number at which the database server is listening.

`%n`

The database session user name. (The expansion of this value might change during a database session as the result of the command `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION`.)

`%/`

The name of the current database.

`%~`

Like `%/`, but the output is `~` (tilde) if the database is your default database.

`%#`

If the session user is a database superuser, then a `#`, otherwise a `>`. (The expansion of this value might change during a database session as the result of the command `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION`.)

`%R`

In prompt 1 normally `=`, but `^` if in single-line mode, and `!` if the session is disconnected from the database (which can happen if `\connect` fails). In prompt 2 the sequence is replaced by `-`, `*`, a single quote, a double quote, or a dollar sign, depending on whether psql expects more input because the command wasn't terminated yet, because you are inside a `/* . . . */` comment, or because you are inside a quoted or dollar-escaped string. In prompt 3 the sequence doesn't produce anything.

`%x`

Transaction status: an empty string when not in a transaction block, or `*` when in a transaction block, or `!` when in a failed transaction block, or `?` when the transaction state is indeterminate (for example, because there is no connection).

`%digits`

The character with the indicated numeric code is substituted. If `digits` starts with `0x` the rest of the characters are interpreted as hexadecimal; otherwise if the first digit is `0` the digits are interpreted as octal; otherwise the digits are read as a decimal number.

`%:name:`

The value of the psql variable `name`. See the section *Variables* for details.

`%`command``

The output of `command`, similar to ordinary “back-tick” substitution.

`%[... %]`

Prompts may contain terminal control characters which, for example, change the color, background, or style of the prompt text, or change the title of the terminal window. In order for the line editing features of Readline to work properly, these non-printing control characters must be designated as invisible by surrounding them with `%[` and `%]`. Multiple pairs of these may occur within the prompt. For example,

```
testdb=> \set PROMPT1 '%[ %033[1;33;40m%]%n@%/%R%[%033[0m%##%] '
```

results in a boldfaced (1;) yellow-on-black (33;40) prompt on VT100-compatible, color-capable terminals.

To insert a percent sign into your prompt, write `%%`. The default prompts are `'%/%R%#'` for prompts 1 and 2, and `'>>'` for prompt 3.

Note: This feature was shamelessly plagiarized from `tcsh`.

Command-Line Editing

psql supports the Readline library for convenient line editing and retrieval. The command history is automatically saved when psql exits and is reloaded when psql starts up. Tab-completion is also supported, although the completion logic makes no claim to be an SQL parser. If for some reason you do not like the tab completion, you can turn it off by putting this in a file named `.inputrc` in your home directory:

```
$if psql
set disable-completion on
$endif
```

(This is not a psql but a Readline feature. Read its documentation for further details.)

Environment

PAGER

If the query results do not fit on the screen, they are piped through this command. Typical values are `more` or `less`. The default is platform-dependent. The use of the pager can be disabled by using the `\pset` command.

PGDATABASE

Default database to connect to

PGHOST

PGPORT

PGUSER

Default connection parameters

PSQL_EDITOR

EDITOR

VISUAL

Editor used by the `\e` command. The variables are examined in the order listed; the first that is set is used.

SHELL

Command executed by the `\!` command.

TMPDIR

Directory for storing temporary files. The default is `/tmp`.

Files

- Before starting up, psql attempts to read and execute commands from the system-wide `psqlrc` file and the user's `~/.psqlrc` file. (On Windows, the user's startup file is named `%APPDATA%\postgresql\psqlrc.conf`.) See `PREFIX/share/psqlrc.sample` for information on setting up the system-wide file. It could be used to set up the client or the server to taste (using the `\set` and `SET` commands).
- Both the system-wide `psqlrc` file and the user's `~/.psqlrc` file can be made version-specific by appending a dash and the PostgreSQL release number, for example `~/.psqlrc-8.0.0`. A matching version-specific file will be read in preference to a non-version-specific file.
- The command-line history is stored in the file `~/.psql_history`, or `%APPDATA%\postgresql\psql_history` on Windows.

Notes

- In an earlier life psql allowed the first argument of a single-letter backslash command to start directly after the command, without intervening whitespace. For compatibility this is still supported to some extent, but we are not going to explain the details here as this use is discouraged. If you get strange messages, keep this in mind. For example

```
testdb=> \foo
Field separator is "oo".
```

which is perhaps not what one would expect.

- psql only works smoothly with servers of the same version. That does not mean other combinations will fail outright, but subtle and not-so-subtle problems might come up. Backslash commands are particularly likely to fail if the server is of a different version.

Notes for Windows users

psql is built as a “console application”. Since the Windows console windows use a different encoding than the rest of the system, you must take special care when using 8-bit characters within psql. If psql detects a problematic console code page, it will warn you at startup. To change the console code page, two things are necessary:

- Set the code page by entering `cmd.exe /c chcp 1252`. (1252 is a code page that is appropriate for German; replace it with your value.) If you are using Cygwin, you can put this command in `/etc/profile`.
- Set the console font to “Lucida Console”, because the raster font does not work with the ANSI code page.

Examples

The first example shows how to spread a command over several lines of input. Notice the changing prompt:

```
testdb=> CREATE TABLE my_table (
testdb(> first integer not null default 0,
testdb(> second text)
testdb-> ;
CREATE TABLE
```

Now look at the table definition again:

```
testdb=> \d my_table
          Table "my_table"
Attribute | Type   | Modifier
-----+-----+-----
first    | integer | not null default 0
second   | text   |
```

Now we change the prompt to something more interesting:

```
testdb=> \set PROMPT1 '%n@m %~%R%# '
peter@localhost testdb=>
```

Let's assume you have filled the table with data and want to take a look at it:

```
peter@localhost testdb=> SELECT * FROM my_table;
 first | second
-----+-----
      1 | one
      2 | two
      3 | three
      4 | four
(4 rows)
```

You can display tables in different ways by using the `\pset` command:

```
peter@localhost testdb=> \pset border 2
Border style is 2.
peter@localhost testdb=> SELECT * FROM my_table;
+-----+-----+
| first | second |
+-----+-----+
|      1 | one    |
|      2 | two    |
|      3 | three  |
|      4 | four   |
+-----+-----+
(4 rows)

peter@localhost testdb=> \pset border 0
Border style is 0.
```

```

peter@localhost testdb=> SELECT * FROM my_table;
first second
-----
1 one
2 two
3 three
4 four
(4 rows)

peter@localhost testdb=> \pset border 1
Border style is 1.
peter@localhost testdb=> \pset format unaligned
Output format is unaligned.
peter@localhost testdb=> \pset fieldsep ","
Field separator is ",".
peter@localhost testdb=> \pset tuples_only
Showing only tuples.
peter@localhost testdb=> SELECT second, first FROM my_table;
one,1
two,2
three,3
four,4

```

Alternatively, use the short commands:

```

peter@localhost testdb=> \a \t \x
Output format is aligned.
Tuples only is off.
Expanded display is on.
peter@localhost testdb=> SELECT * FROM my_table;
-[ RECORD 1 ]-
first | 1
second | one
-[ RECORD 2 ]-
first | 2
second | two
-[ RECORD 3 ]-
first | 3
second | three
-[ RECORD 4 ]-
first | 4
second | four

```

vacuumdb

Name

vacuumdb — garbage-collect and analyze a PostgreSQL database

Synopsis

```
vacuumdb [connection-option...] [--full | -f] [--verbose | -v] [--analyze | -z] [--table | -t table [(column [,...] )]] [dbname]
```

```
vacuumdb [connection-options...] [--all | -a] [--full | -f] [--verbose | -v] [--analyze | -z]
```

Description

vacuumdb is a utility for cleaning a PostgreSQL database. vacuumdb will also generate internal statistics used by the PostgreSQL query optimizer.

vacuumdb is a wrapper around the SQL command *VACUUM*. There is no effective difference between vacuuming databases via this utility and via other methods for accessing the server.

Options

vacuumdb accepts the following command-line arguments:

-a

--all

Vacuum all databases.

[-d] *dbname*

[--dbname] *dbname*

Specifies the name of the database to be cleaned or analyzed. If this is not specified and -a (or --all) is not used, the database name is read from the environment variable *PGDATABASE*. If that is not set, the user name specified for the connection is used.

-e

--echo

Echo the commands that vacuumdb generates and sends to the server.

-f

--full

Perform “full” vacuuming.

-q

--quiet

Do not display a response.

```
-t table [ (column [...]) ]
--table table [ (column [...]) ]
```

Clean or analyze *table* only. Column names may be specified only in conjunction with the `--analyze` option.

Tip: If you specify columns, you probably have to escape the parentheses from the shell. (See examples below.)

```
-v
--verbose
```

Print detailed information during processing.

```
-z
--analyze
```

Calculate statistics for use by the optimizer.

vacuumdb also accepts the following command-line arguments for connection parameters:

```
-h host
--host host
```

Specifies the host name of the machine on which the server is running. If the value begins with a slash, it is used as the directory for the Unix domain socket.

```
-p port
--port port
```

Specifies the TCP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the server is listening for connections.

```
-U username
--username username
```

User name to connect as

```
-W
--password
```

Force password prompt.

Environment

PGDATABASE
PGHOST
PGPORT
PGUSER

Default connection parameters

Diagnostics

In case of difficulty, see *VACUUM* and `psql` for discussions of potential problems and error messages. The database server must be running at the targeted host. Also, any default connection settings and environment variables used by the `libpq` front-end library will apply.

Notes

`vacuumdb` might need to connect several times to the PostgreSQL server, asking for a password each time. It is convenient to have a `~/ .pgpass` file in such cases. See Section 27.12 for more information.

Examples

To clean the database `test`:

```
$ vacuumdb test
```

To clean and analyze for the optimizer a database named `bigdb`:

```
$ vacuumdb --analyze bigdb
```

To clean a single table `foo` in a database named `xyzyz`, and analyze a single column `bar` of the table for the optimizer:

```
$ vacuumdb --analyze --verbose --table 'foo(bar)' xyzyz
```

See Also

VACUUM

III. PostgreSQL Server Applications

This part contains reference information for PostgreSQL server applications and support utilities. These commands can only be run usefully on the host where the database server resides. Other utility programs are listed in Reference II, *PostgreSQL Client Applications*.

initdb

Name

`initdb` — create a new PostgreSQL database cluster

Synopsis

```
initdb [option...] --pgdata | -D directory
```

Description

`initdb` creates a new PostgreSQL database cluster. A database cluster is a collection of databases that are managed by a single server instance.

Creating a database cluster consists of creating the directories in which the database data will live, generating the shared catalog tables (tables that belong to the whole cluster rather than to any particular database), and creating the `template1` database. When you later create a new database, everything in the `template1` database is copied. It contains catalog tables filled in for things like the built-in types.

`initdb` initializes the database cluster's default locale and character set encoding. Some locale categories are fixed for the lifetime of the cluster. There is also a performance impact in using locales other than `C` or `POSIX`. Therefore it is important to make the right choice when running `initdb`. Other locale categories can be changed later when the server is started. `initdb` will write those locale settings into the `postgresql.conf` configuration file so they are the default, but they can be changed by editing that file. To set the locale that `initdb` uses, see the description of the `--locale` option. The character set encoding can be set separately for each database as it is created. `initdb` determines the encoding for the `template1` database, which will serve as the default for all other databases. To alter the default encoding use the `--encoding` option.

`initdb` must be run as the user that will own the server process, because the server needs to have access to the files and directories that `initdb` creates. Since the server may not be run as root, you must not run `initdb` as root either. (It will in fact refuse to do so.)

Although `initdb` will attempt to create the specified data directory, often it won't have permission to do so, since the parent of the desired data directory is often a root-owned directory. To set up an arrangement like this, create an empty data directory as root, then use `chown` to hand over ownership of that directory to the database user account, then `su` to become the database user, and finally run `initdb` as the database user.

Options

`-A authmethod`

`--auth=authmethod`

This option specifies the authentication method for local users used in `pg_hba.conf`. Do not use `trust` unless you trust all local users on your system. `Trust` is the default for ease of installation.

`-D directory`

`--pgdata=directory`

This option specifies the directory where the database cluster should be stored. This is the only information required by `initdb`, but you can avoid writing it by setting the `PGDATA` environment variable, which can be convenient since the database server (`postmaster`) can find the database directory later by the same variable.

`-E encoding`

`--encoding=encoding`

Selects the encoding of the template database. This will also be the default encoding of any database you create later, unless you override it there. The default is derived from the locale, or `SQL_ASCII` if that does not work. The character sets supported by the PostgreSQL server are described in Section 20.2.1.

`--locale=locale`

Sets the default locale for the database cluster. If this option is not specified, the locale is inherited from the environment that `initdb` runs in. Locale support is described in Section 20.1.

`--lc-collate=locale`

`--lc-ctype=locale`

`--lc-messages=locale`

`--lc-monetary=locale`

`--lc-numeric=locale`

`--lc-time=locale`

Like `--locale`, but only sets the locale in the specified category.

`-U username`

`--username=username`

Selects the user name of the database superuser. This defaults to the name of the effective user running `initdb`. It is really not important what the superuser's name is, but one might choose to keep the customary name `postgres`, even if the operating system user's name is different.

`-W`

`--pwprompt`

Makes `initdb` prompt for a password to give the database superuser. If you don't plan on using password authentication, this is not important. Otherwise you won't be able to use password authentication until you have a password set up.

`--pwfile=filename`

Makes `initdb` read the database superuser's password from a file. The first line of the file is taken as the password.

Other, less commonly used, parameters are also available:

`-d`

`--debug`

Print debugging output from the bootstrap backend and a few other messages of lesser interest for the general public. The bootstrap backend is the program `initdb` uses to create the catalog tables. This option generates a tremendous amount of extremely boring output.

`-L` *directory*

Specifies where `initdb` should find its input files to initialize the database cluster. This is normally not necessary. You will be told if you need to specify their location explicitly.

`-n`

`--noclean`

By default, when `initdb` determines that an error prevented it from completely creating the database cluster, it removes any files it may have created before discovering that it can't finish the job. This option inhibits tidying-up and is thus useful for debugging.

Environment

`PGDATA`

Specifies the directory where the database cluster is to be stored; may be overridden using the `-D` option.

See Also

`postgres`, `postmaster`

ipcclean

Name

`ipcclean` — remove shared memory and semaphores from a failed PostgreSQL server

Synopsis

```
ipcclean
```

Description

`ipcclean` removes all shared memory segments and semaphore sets owned by the current user. It is intended to be used for cleaning up after a crashed PostgreSQL server (`postmaster`). Note that immediately restarting the server will also clean up shared memory and semaphores, so this command is of little real utility.

Only the database administrator should execute this program as it can cause bizarre behavior (i.e., crashes) if run during multiuser execution. If this command is executed while a server is running, the shared memory and semaphores allocated by that server will be deleted, which would have rather severe consequences for that server.

Notes

This script is a hack, but in the many years since it was written, no one has come up with an equally effective and portable solution. Since the `postmaster` can now clean up by itself, it is unlikely that `ipcclean` will be improved upon in the future.

The script makes assumptions about the output format of the `ipcs` utility which may not be true across different operating systems. Therefore, it may not work on your particular OS. It's wise to look at the script before trying it.

pg_controldata

Name

`pg_controldata` — display control information of a PostgreSQL database cluster

Synopsis

```
pg_controldata [datadir]
```

Description

`pg_controldata` prints information initialized during `initdb`, such as the catalog version and server locale. It also shows information about write-ahead logging and checkpoint processing. This information is cluster-wide, and not specific to any one database.

This utility may only be run by the user who initialized the cluster because it requires read access to the data directory. You can specify the data directory on the command line, or use the environment variable `PGDATA`.

Environment

`PGDATA`

Default data directory location

pg_ctl

Name

`pg_ctl` — start, stop, or restart a PostgreSQL server

Synopsis

```
pg_ctl start [-w] [-s] [-D datadir] [-l filename] [-o options] [-p path]
pg_ctl stop [-W] [-s] [-D datadir] [-m s[mart] | f[ast] | i[mmediate] ]
pg_ctl restart [-w] [-s] [-D datadir] [-m s[mart] | f[ast] | i[mmediate] ] [-o options]
pg_ctl reload [-s] [-D datadir]
pg_ctl status [-D datadir]
pg_ctl kill [signal_name] [process_id]
```

Description

`pg_ctl` is a utility for starting, stopping, or restarting the PostgreSQL backend server (postmaster), or displaying the status of a running server. Although the server can be started manually, `pg_ctl` encapsulates tasks such as redirecting log output and properly detaching from the terminal and process group. It also provides convenient options for controlled shutdown.

In `start` mode, a new server is launched. The server is started in the background, and standard input is attached to `/dev/null`. The standard output and standard error are either appended to a log file (if the `-l` option is used), or redirected to `pg_ctl`'s standard output (not standard error). If no log file is chosen, the standard output of `pg_ctl` should be redirected to a file or piped to another process such as a log rotating program like `rotatelogs`; otherwise the `postmaster` will write its output to the controlling terminal (from the background) and will not leave the shell's process group.

In `stop` mode, the server that is running in the specified data directory is shut down. Three different shutdown methods can be selected with the `-m` option: "Smart" mode waits for all the clients to disconnect. This is the default. "Fast" mode does not wait for clients to disconnect. All active transactions are rolled back and clients are forcibly disconnected, then the server is shut down. "Immediate" mode will abort all server processes without a clean shutdown. This will lead to a recovery run on restart.

`restart` mode effectively executes a stop followed by a start. This allows changing the `postmaster` command-line options.

`reload` mode simply sends the `postmaster` process a `SIGHUP` signal, causing it to reread its configuration files (`postgresql.conf`, `pg_hba.conf`, etc.). This allows changing of configuration-file options that do not require a complete restart to take effect.

`status` mode checks whether a server is running in the specified data directory. If it is, the PID and the command line options that were used to invoke it are displayed.

`kill` mode allows you to send a signal to a specified process. This is particularly valuable for Microsoft Windows which does not have a kill command. Use `--help` to see a list of supported signal names.

Options

`-D datadir`

Specifies the file system location of the database files. If this is omitted, the environment variable `PGDATA` is used.

`-l filename`

Append the server log output to *filename*. If the file does not exist, it is created. The umask is set to 077, so access to the log file from other users is disallowed by default.

`-m mode`

Specifies the shutdown mode. *mode* may be `smart`, `fast`, or `immediate`, or the first letter of one of these three.

`-o options`

Specifies options to be passed directly to the `postmaster` command.

The options are usually surrounded by single or double quotes to ensure that they are passed through as a group.

`-p path`

Specifies the location of the `postmaster` executable. By default the `postmaster` executable is taken from the same directory as `pg_ctl`, or failing that, the hard-wired installation directory. It is not necessary to use this option unless you are doing something unusual and get errors that the `postmaster` executable was not found.

`-s`

Only print errors, no informational messages.

`-w`

Wait for the start or shutdown to complete. Times out after 60 seconds. This is the default for shutdowns. A successful shutdown is indicated by removal of the PID file. For starting up, a successful `psql -l` indicates success. `pg_ctl` will attempt to use the proper port for `psql`. If the environment variable `PGPORT` exists, that is used. Otherwise, it will see if a port has been set in the `postgresql.conf` file. If neither of those is used, it will use the default port that PostgreSQL was compiled with (5432 by default). When waiting, `pg_ctl` will return an accurate exit code based on the success of the startup or shutdown.

`-W`

Do not wait for start or shutdown to complete. This is the default for starts and restarts.

Environment

`PGDATA`

Default data directory location.

PGPORT

Default port for psql (used by the `-w` option).

For others, see `postmaster`.

Files

`postmaster.pid`

The existence of this file in the data directory is used to help `pg_ctl` determine if the server is currently running or not.

`postmaster.opts.default`

If this file exists in the data directory, `pg_ctl` (in `start` mode) will pass the contents of the file as options to the `postmaster` command, unless overridden by the `-o` option.

`postmaster.opts`

If this file exists in the data directory, `pg_ctl` (in `restart` mode) will pass the contents of the file as options to the `postmaster`, unless overridden by the `-o` option. The contents of this file are also displayed in `status` mode.

`postgresql.conf`

This file, located in the data directory, is parsed to find the proper port to use with `psql` when the `-w` is given in `start` mode.

Notes

Waiting for complete start is not a well-defined operation and may fail if access control is set up so that a local client cannot connect without manual interaction (e.g., password authentication).

Examples

Starting the Server

To start up a server:

```
$ pg_ctl start
```

An example of starting the server, blocking until the server has come up is:

```
$ pg_ctl -w start
```

For a server using port 5433, and running without `fsync`, use:

```
$ pg_ctl -o "-F -p 5433" start
```

Stopping the Server

```
$ pg_ctl stop
```

stops the server. Using the `-m` switch allows one to control *how* the backend shuts down.

Restarting the Server

Restarting the server is almost equivalent to stopping the server and starting it again except that `pg_ctl` saves and reuses the command line options that were passed to the previously running instance. To restart the server in the simplest form, use:

```
$ pg_ctl restart
```

To restart server, waiting for it to shut down and to come up:

```
$ pg_ctl -w restart
```

To restart using port 5433 and disabling `fsync` after restarting:

```
$ pg_ctl -o "-F -p 5433" restart
```

Showing the Server Status

Here is a sample status output from `pg_ctl`:

```
$ pg_ctl status
pg_ctl: postmaster is running (pid: 13718)
Command line was:
/usr/local/pgsql/bin/postmaster '-D' '/usr/local/pgsql/data' '-p' '5433' '-B' '128'
```

This is the command line that would be invoked in restart mode.

See Also

postmaster

pg_resetxlog

Name

`pg_resetxlog` — reset the write-ahead log and other control information of a PostgreSQL database cluster

Synopsis

```
pg_resetxlog [-f] [-n] [-o oid] [-x xid] [-l timelineid,fileid,seg] datadir
```

Description

`pg_resetxlog` clears the write-ahead log (WAL) and optionally resets some other control information (stored in the `pg_control` file). This function is sometimes needed if these files have become corrupted. It should be used only as a last resort, when the server will not start due to such corruption.

After running this command, it should be possible to start the server, but bear in mind that the database may contain inconsistent data due to partially-committed transactions. You should immediately dump your data, run `initdb`, and reload. After reload, check for inconsistencies and repair as needed.

This utility can only be run by the user who installed the server, because it requires read/write access to the data directory. For safety reasons, you must specify the data directory on the command line. `pg_resetxlog` does not use the environment variable `PGDATA`.

If `pg_resetxlog` complains that it cannot determine valid data for `pg_control`, you can force it to proceed anyway by specifying the `-f` (force) switch. In this case plausible values will be substituted for the missing data. Most of the fields can be expected to match, but manual assistance may be needed for the next OID, next transaction ID, WAL starting address, and database locale fields. The first three of these can be set using the switches discussed below. `pg_resetxlog`'s own environment is the source for its guess at the locale fields; take care that `LANG` and so forth match the environment that `initdb` was run in. If you are not able to determine correct values for all these fields, `-f` can still be used, but the recovered database must be treated with even more suspicion than usual: an immediate dump and reload is imperative. *Do not* execute any data-modifying operations in the database before you dump; as any such action is likely to make the corruption worse.

The `-o`, `-x`, and `-l` switches allow the next OID, next transaction ID, and WAL starting address values to be set manually. These are only needed when `pg_resetxlog` is unable to determine appropriate values by reading `pg_control`. A safe value for the next transaction ID may be determined by looking for the numerically largest file name in the directory `pg_clog` under the data directory, adding one, and then multiplying by 1048576. Note that the file names are in hexadecimal. It is usually easiest to specify the switch value in hexadecimal too. For example, if 0011 is the largest entry in `pg_clog`, `-x 0x120000` will work (five trailing zeroes provide the proper multiplier). The WAL starting address should be larger than any file name currently existing in the directory `pg_xlog` under the data directory. These names are also in hexadecimal and have three parts. The first part is the “timeline ID” and should usually be kept the same. Do not choose a value larger than 255 (0xFF) for the third part; instead increment the second part and reset the third part to 0. For example, if 00000001000000320000004A is the largest entry in `pg_xlog`, `-l 0x1,0x32,0x4B` will work; but if the largest entry is 000000010000003A000000FF,

choose `-1 0x1,0x3B,0x0` or more. There is no comparably easy way to determine a next OID that's beyond the largest one in the database, but fortunately it is not critical to get the next-OID setting right.

The `-n` (no operation) switch instructs `pg_resetxlog` to print the values reconstructed from `pg_control` and then exit without modifying anything. This is mainly a debugging tool, but may be useful as a sanity check before allowing `pg_resetxlog` to proceed for real.

Notes

This command must not be used when the server is running. `pg_resetxlog` will refuse to start up if it finds a server lock file in the data directory. If the server crashed then a lock file may have been left behind; in that case you can remove the lock file to allow `pg_resetxlog` to run. But before you do so, make doubly certain that there is no `postmaster` nor any backend server process still alive.

postgres

Name

`postgres` — run a PostgreSQL server in single-user mode

Synopsis

```
postgres [-A 0|1] [-B nbuffers] [-c name=value] [-d debug-level] [--describe-config] [-D datadir] [-e] [-E] [-f s | i | t | n | m | h] [-F] [-N] [-o filename] [-O] [-P] [-s | -t pa | pl | ex] [-S work-mem] [-W seconds] [--name=value] database  
postgres [-A 0|1] [-B nbuffers] [-c name=value] [-d debug-level] [-D datadir] [-e] [-f s | i | t | n | m | h] [-F] [-o filename] [-O] [-p database] [-P] [-s | -t pa | pl | ex] [-S work-mem] [-v protocol] [-W seconds] [--name=value]
```

Description

The `postgres` executable is the actual PostgreSQL server process that processes queries. It is normally not called directly; instead a postmaster multiuser server is started.

The second form above is how `postgres` is invoked by the postmaster (only conceptually, since both `postmaster` and `postgres` are in fact the same program); it should not be invoked directly this way. The first form invokes the server directly in interactive single-user mode. The primary use for this mode is during bootstrapping by `initdb`. Sometimes it is used for debugging or disaster recovery.

When invoked in interactive mode from the shell, the user can enter queries and the results will be printed to the screen, but in a form that is more useful for developers than end users. But note that running a single-user server is not truly suitable for debugging the server since no realistic interprocess communication and locking will happen.

When running a stand-alone server, the session user will be set to the user with ID 1. This user does not actually have to exist, so a stand-alone server can be used to manually recover from certain kinds of accidental damage to the system catalogs. Implicit superuser powers are granted to the user with ID 1 in stand-alone mode.

Options

When `postgres` is started by a postmaster then it inherits all options set by the latter. Additionally, `postgres`-specific options can be passed from the `postmaster` with the `-o` switch.

You can avoid having to type these options by setting up a configuration file. See Section 16.4 for details. Some (safe) options can also be set from the connecting client in an application-dependent way. For example, if the environment variable `PGOPTIONS` is set, then libpq-based clients will pass that string to the server, which will interpret it as `postgres` command-line options.

General Purpose

The options `-A`, `-B`, `-C`, `-d`, `-D`, `-F`, and `--name` have the same meanings as the `postmaster` except that `-d 0` prevents the server log level of the `postmaster` from being propagated to `postgres`.

`-e`

Sets the default date style to “European”, that is `DMY` ordering of input date fields. This also causes the day to be printed before the month in certain date output formats. See Section 8.5 for more information.

`-o filename`

Send all server log output to `filename`. If `postgres` is running under the `postmaster`, this option is ignored, and the `stderr` inherited from the `postmaster` is used.

`-P`

Ignore system indexes when reading system tables (but still update the indexes when modifying the tables). This is useful when recovering from damaged system indexes.

`-s`

Print time information and other statistics at the end of each command. This is useful for benchmarking or for use in tuning the number of buffers.

`-S work-mem`

Specifies the amount of memory to be used by internal sorts and hashes before resorting to temporary disk files. See the description of the `work_mem` configuration parameter in Section 16.4.3.1.

Options for stand-alone mode

`database`

Specifies the name of the database to be accessed. If it is omitted it defaults to the user name.

`-E`

Echo all commands.

`-N`

Disables use of newline as a statement delimiter.

Semi-internal Options

There are several other options that may be specified, used mainly for debugging purposes. These are listed here only for the use by PostgreSQL system developers. *Use of any of these options is highly discouraged.* Furthermore, any of these options may disappear or change in a future release without notice.

`-f { s | i | m | n | h }`

Forbids the use of particular scan and join methods: `s` and `i` disable sequential and index scans respectively, while `n`, `m`, and `h` disable nested-loop, merge and hash joins respectively.

Note: Neither sequential scans nor nested-loop joins can be disabled completely; the `-fs` and `-fn` options simply discourage the optimizer from using those plan types if it has any other alternative.

`-O`

Allows the structure of system tables to be modified. This is used by `initdb`.

`-p database`

Indicates that this process has been started by a `postmaster` and specifies the database to use. etc.

`-t pa[rser] | pl[anner] | e[xecutor]`

Print timing statistics for each query relating to each of the major system modules. This option cannot be used together with the `-s` option.

`-v protocol`

Specifies the version number of the frontend/backend protocol to be used for this particular session.

`-W seconds`

As soon as this option is encountered, the process sleeps for the specified amount of seconds. This gives developers time to attach a debugger to the server process.

`--describe-config`

This option dumps out the server's internal configuration variables, descriptions, and defaults in tab-delimited COPY format. It is designed primarily for use by administration tools.

Environment

PGDATA

Default data directory location

For others, which have little influence during single-user mode, see `postmaster`.

Notes

To cancel a running query, send the `SIGINT` signal to the `postgres` process running that command.

To tell `postgres` to reload the configuration files, send a `SIGHUP` signal. Normally it's best to `SIGHUP` the `postmaster` instead; the `postmaster` will in turn `SIGHUP` each of its children. But in some cases it might be desirable to have only one `postgres` process reload the configuration files.

The `postmaster` uses `SIGTERM` to tell a `postgres` process to quit normally and `SIGQUIT` to terminate without the normal cleanup. These signals *should not* be used by users. It is also unwise to send `SIGKILL` to a `postgres` process — the `postmaster` will interpret this as a crash in `postgres`, and will force all the sibling `postgres` processes to quit as part of its standard crash-recovery procedure.

Usage

Start a stand-alone server with a command like

```
postgres -D /usr/local/pgsql/data other-options my_database
```

Provide the correct path to the database directory with `-D`, or make sure that the environment variable `PGDATA` is set. Also specify the name of the particular database you want to work in.

Normally, the stand-alone server treats newline as the command entry terminator; there is no intelligence about semicolons, as there is in `psql`. To continue a command across multiple lines, you must type backslash just before each newline except the last one.

But if you use the `-N` command line switch, then newline does not terminate command entry. In this case, the server will read the standard input until the end-of-file (EOF) marker, then process the input as a single command string. Backslash-newline is not treated specially in this case.

To quit the session, type EOF (**Control+D**, usually). If you've used `-N`, two consecutive EOFs are needed to exit.

Note that the stand-alone server does not provide sophisticated line-editing features (no command history, for example).

See Also

`initdb`, `ipcclean`, `postmaster`

postmaster

Name

`postmaster` — PostgreSQL multiuser database server

Synopsis

```
postmaster [-A 0 | 1 ] [-B nbuffers] [-c name=value] [-d debug-level] [-D datadir] [-F] [-h hostname] [-i] [-k directory] [-l] [-N max-connections] [-o extra-options] [-p port] [-S] [--name=value] [-n | -s]
```

Description

`postmaster` is the PostgreSQL multiuser database server. In order for a client application to access a database it connects (over a network or locally) to a running `postmaster`. The `postmaster` then starts a separate server process (“`postgres`”) to handle the connection. The `postmaster` also manages the communication among server processes.

By default the `postmaster` starts in the foreground and prints log messages to the standard error stream. In practical applications the `postmaster` should be started as a background process, perhaps at boot time.

One `postmaster` always manages the data from exactly one database cluster. A database cluster is a collection of databases that is stored at a common file system location (the “data area”). More than one `postmaster` process can run on a system at one time, so long as they use different data areas and different communication ports (see below). A data area is created with `initdb`.

When the `postmaster` starts it needs to know the location of the data area. The location must be specified by the `-D` option or the `PGDATA` environment variable; there is no default. Typically, `-D` or `PGDATA` points directly to the data area directory created by `initdb`. Other possible file layouts are discussed in Section 16.4.1.

Options

`postmaster` accepts the following command line arguments. For a detailed discussion of the options consult Section 16.4. You can also save typing most of these options by setting up a configuration file.

`-A 0 | 1`

Enables run-time assertion checks, which is a debugging aid to detect programming mistakes. This option is only available if assertions were enabled when PostgreSQL was compiled. If so, the default is on.

`-B nbuffers`

Sets the number of shared buffers for use by the server processes. The default value of this parameter is chosen automatically by `initdb`; refer to Section 16.4.3.1 for more information.

`-c name=value`

Sets a named run-time parameter. The configuration parameters supported by PostgreSQL are described in Section 16.4. Most of the other command line options are in fact short forms of such a parameter assignment. `-c` can appear multiple times to set multiple parameters.

`-d debug-level`

Sets the debug level. The higher this value is set, the more debugging output is written to the server log. Values are from 1 to 5.

`-D datadir`

Specifies the file system location of the data directory or configuration file(s). See Section 16.4.1 for details.

`-F`

Disables `fsync` calls for improved performance, at the risk of data corruption in the event of a system crash. Specifying this option is equivalent to disabling the `fsync` configuration parameter. Read the detailed documentation before using this!

`--fsync=true` has the opposite effect of this option.

`-h hostname`

Specifies the IP host name or address on which the `postmaster` is to listen for TCP/IP connections from client applications. The value can also be a space-separated list of addresses, or `*` to specify listening on all available interfaces. An empty value specifies not listening on any IP addresses, in which case only Unix-domain sockets can be used to connect to the `postmaster`. Defaults to listening only on localhost. Specifying this option is equivalent to setting the `listen_addresses` configuration parameter.

`-i`

Allows remote clients to connect via TCP/IP (Internet domain) connections. Without this option, only local connections are accepted. This option is equivalent to setting `listen_addresses` to `*` in `postgresql.conf` or via `-h`.

This option is deprecated since it does not allow access to the full functionality of `listen_addresses`. It's usually better to set `listen_addresses` directly.

`-k directory`

Specifies the directory of the Unix-domain socket on which the `postmaster` is to listen for connections from client applications. The default is normally `/tmp`, but can be changed at build time.

`-l`

Enables secure connections using SSL. PostgreSQL must have been compiled with support for SSL for this option to be available. For more information on using SSL, refer to Section 16.7.

`-N max-connections`

Sets the maximum number of client connections that this `postmaster` will accept. By default, this value is 32, but it can be set as high as your system will support. (Note that `-B` is required to be at least twice `-N`. See Section 16.5 for a discussion of system resource requirements for large numbers of client connections.) Specifying this option is equivalent to setting the `max_connections` configuration parameter.

`-o extra-options`

The command line-style options specified in *extra-options* are passed to all server processes started by this `postmaster`. See `postgres` for possibilities. If the option string contains any spaces, the entire string must be quoted.

`-p port`

Specifies the TCP/IP port or local Unix domain socket file extension on which the `postmaster` is to listen for connections from client applications. Defaults to the value of the `PGPORT` environment variable, or if `PGPORT` is not set, then defaults to the value established during compilation (normally 5432). If you specify a port other than the default port, then all client applications must specify the same port using either command-line options or `PGPORT`.

`-S`

Specifies that the `postmaster` process should start up in silent mode. That is, it will disassociate from the user's (controlling) terminal, start its own process group, and redirect its standard output and standard error to `/dev/null`.

Using this switch discards all logging output, which is probably not what you want, since it makes it very difficult to troubleshoot problems. See below for a better way to start the `postmaster` in the background.

`--silent-mode=false` has the opposite effect of this option.

`--name=value`

Sets a named run-time parameter; a shorter form of `-c`.

Two additional command line options are available for debugging problems that cause a server process to die abnormally. The ordinary strategy in this situation is to notify all other server processes that they must terminate and then reinitialize the shared memory and semaphores. This is because an errant server process could have corrupted some shared state before terminating. These options select alternative behaviors of the `postmaster` in this situation. *Neither option is intended for use in ordinary operation.*

These special-case options are:

`-n`

`postmaster` will not reinitialize shared data structures. A knowledgeable system programmer can then use a debugger to examine shared memory and semaphore state.

`-s`

`postmaster` will stop all other server processes by sending the signal `SIGSTOP`, but will not cause them to terminate. This permits system programmers to collect core dumps from all server processes by hand.

Environment

PGCLIENTENCODING

Default character encoding used by clients. (The clients may override this individually.) This value can also be set in the configuration file.

PGDATA

Default data directory location

PGDATESTYLE

Default value of the `DateStyle` run-time parameter. (The use of this environment variable is deprecated.)

PGPORT

Default port (preferably set in the configuration file)

TZ

Server time zone

Diagnostics

A failure message mentioning `semget` or `shmget` probably indicates you need to configure your kernel to provide adequate shared memory and semaphores. For more discussion see Section 16.5.

Tip: You may be able to postpone reconfiguring your kernel by decreasing `shared_buffers` to reduce the shared memory consumption of PostgreSQL, and/or by reducing `max_connections` to reduce the semaphore consumption.

A failure message suggesting that another postmaster is already running should be checked carefully, for example by using the command

```
$ ps ax | grep postmaster
```

or

```
$ ps -ef | grep postmaster
```

depending on your system. If you are certain that no conflicting postmaster is running, you may remove the lock file mentioned in the message and try again.

A failure message indicating inability to bind to a port may indicate that that port is already in use by some non-PostgreSQL process. You may also get this error if you terminate the `postmaster` and immediately restart it using the same port; in this case, you must simply wait a few seconds until the operating system closes the port before trying again. Finally, you may get this error if you specify a port number that your operating system considers to be reserved. For example, many versions of Unix consider port numbers under 1024 to be “trusted” and only permit the Unix superuser to access them.

Notes

If at all possible, *do not* use SIGKILL to kill the `postmaster`. Doing so will prevent `postmaster` from freeing the system resources (e.g., shared memory and semaphores) that it holds before terminating. This may cause problems for starting a fresh `postmaster` run.

To terminate the `postmaster` normally, the signals SIGTERM, SIGINT, or SIGQUIT can be used. The first will wait for all clients to terminate before quitting, the second will forcefully disconnect all clients, and the third will quit immediately without proper shutdown, resulting in a recovery run during restart. The SIGHUP signal will reload the server configuration files.

The utility command `pg_ctl` can be used to start and shut down the `postmaster` safely and comfortably.

The `--` options will not work on FreeBSD or OpenBSD. Use `-c` instead. This is a bug in the affected operating systems; a future release of PostgreSQL will provide a workaround if this is not fixed.

Examples

To start `postmaster` in the background using default values, type:

```
$ nohup postmaster >logfile 2>&1 </dev/null &
```

To start `postmaster` with a specific port:

```
$ postmaster -p 1234
```

This command will start up `postmaster` communicating through the port 1234. In order to connect to this `postmaster` using `psql`, you would need to run it as

```
$ psql -p 1234
```

or set the environment variable `PGPORT`:

```
$ export PGPORT=1234
$ psql
```

Named run-time parameters can be set in either of these styles:

```
$ postmaster -c work_mem=1234
$ postmaster --work-mem=1234
```

Either form overrides whatever setting might exist for `work_mem` in `postgresql.conf`. Notice that underscores in parameter names can be written as either underscore or dash on the command line.

Tip: Except for short-term experiments, it's probably better practice to edit the setting in `postgresql.conf` than to rely on a command-line switch to set a parameter.

See Also

initdb, pg_ctl

VII. Internals

This part contains assorted information that can be of use to PostgreSQL developers.

postmaster

Chapter 40. Overview of PostgreSQL Internals

Author: This chapter originated as part of *Enhancement of the ANSI SQL Implementation of PostgreSQL*, Stefan Simkovic's Master's Thesis prepared at Vienna University of Technology under the direction of O.Univ.Prof.Dr. Georg Gottlob and Univ.Ass. Mag. Katrin Seyr.

This chapter gives an overview of the internal structure of the backend of PostgreSQL. After having read the following sections you should have an idea of how a query is processed. This chapter does not aim to provide a detailed description of the internal operation of PostgreSQL, as such a document would be very extensive. Rather, this chapter is intended to help the reader understand the general sequence of operations that occur within the backend from the point at which a query is received, to the point at which the results are returned to the client.

40.1. The Path of a Query

Here we give a short overview of the stages a query has to pass in order to obtain a result.

1. A connection from an application program to the PostgreSQL server has to be established. The application program transmits a query to the server and waits to receive the results sent back by the server.
2. The *parser stage* checks the query transmitted by the application program for correct syntax and creates a *query tree*.
3. The *rewrite system* takes the query tree created by the parser stage and looks for any *rules* (stored in the *system catalogs*) to apply to the query tree. It performs the transformations given in the *rule bodies*.

One application of the rewrite system is in the realization of *views*. Whenever a query against a view (i.e. a *virtual table*) is made, the rewrite system rewrites the user's query to a query that accesses the *base tables* given in the *view definition* instead.

4. The *planner/optimizer* takes the (rewritten) query tree and creates a *query plan* that will be the input to the *executor*.

It does so by first creating all possible *paths* leading to the same result. For example if there is an index on a relation to be scanned, there are two paths for the scan. One possibility is a simple sequential scan and the other possibility is to use the index. Next the cost for the execution of each path is estimated and the cheapest path is chosen. The cheapest path is expanded into a complete plan that the executor can use.

5. The executor recursively steps through the *plan tree* and retrieves rows in the way represented by the plan. The executor makes use of the *storage system* while scanning relations, performs *sorts* and *joins*, evaluates *qualifications* and finally hands back the rows derived.

In the following sections we will cover each of the above listed items in more detail to give a better understanding of PostgreSQL's internal control and data structures.

40.2. How Connections are Established

PostgreSQL is implemented using a simple “process per user” client/server model. In this model there is one *client process* connected to exactly one *server process*. As we do not know ahead of time how many connections will be made, we have to use a *master process* that spawns a new server process every time a connection is requested. This master process is called `postmaster` and listens at a specified TCP/IP port for incoming connections. Whenever a request for a connection is detected the `postmaster` process spawns a new server process called `postgres`. The server tasks (`postgres` processes) communicate with each other using *semaphores* and *shared memory* to ensure data integrity throughout concurrent data access.

The client process can be any program that understands the PostgreSQL protocol described in Chapter 42. Many clients are based on the C-language library `libpq`, but several independent implementations of the protocol exist, such as the Java JDBC driver.

Once a connection is established the client process can send a query to the *backend* (server). The query is transmitted using plain text, i.e. there is no parsing done in the *frontend* (client). The server parses the query, creates an *execution plan*, executes the plan and returns the retrieved rows to the client by transmitting them over the established connection.

40.3. The Parser Stage

The *parser stage* consists of two parts:

- The *parser* defined in `gram.y` and `scan.l` is built using the Unix tools `yacc` and `lex`.
- The *transformation process* does modifications and augmentations to the data structures returned by the parser.

40.3.1. Parser

The parser has to check the query string (which arrives as plain ASCII text) for valid syntax. If the syntax is correct a *parse tree* is built up and handed back; otherwise an error is returned. The parser and lexer are implemented using the well-known Unix tools `yacc` and `lex`.

The *lexer* is defined in the file `scan.l` and is responsible for recognizing *identifiers*, the *SQL key words* etc. For every key word or identifier that is found, a *token* is generated and handed to the parser.

The parser is defined in the file `gram.y` and consists of a set of *grammar rules* and *actions* that are executed whenever a rule is fired. The code of the actions (which is actually C code) is used to build up the parse tree.

The file `scan.l` is transformed to the C source file `scan.c` using the program `lex` and `gram.y` is transformed to `gram.c` using `yacc`. After these transformations have taken place a normal C compiler can be used to create the parser. Never make any changes to the generated C files as they will be overwritten the next time `lex` or `yacc` is called.

Note: The mentioned transformations and compilations are normally done automatically using the *makefiles* shipped with the PostgreSQL source distribution.

A detailed description of yacc or the grammar rules given in `gram.y` would be beyond the scope of this paper. There are many books and documents dealing with lex and yacc. You should be familiar with yacc before you start to study the grammar given in `gram.y` otherwise you won't understand what happens there.

40.3.2. Transformation Process

The parser stage creates a parse tree using only fixed rules about the syntactic structure of SQL. It does not make any lookups in the system catalogs, so there is no possibility to understand the detailed semantics of the requested operations. After the parser completes, the *transformation process* takes the tree handed back by the parser as input and does the semantic interpretation needed to understand which tables, functions, and operators are referenced by the query. The data structure that is built to represent this information is called the *query tree*.

The reason for separating raw parsing from semantic analysis is that system catalog lookups can only be done within a transaction, and we do not wish to start a transaction immediately upon receiving a query string. The raw parsing stage is sufficient to identify the transaction control commands (`BEGIN`, `ROLLBACK`, etc), and these can then be correctly executed without any further analysis. Once we know that we are dealing with an actual query (such as `SELECT` or `UPDATE`), it is okay to start a transaction if we're not already in one. Only then can the transformation process be invoked.

The query tree created by the transformation process is structurally similar to the raw parse tree in most places, but it has many differences in detail. For example, a `FuncCall` node in the parse tree represents something that looks syntactically like a function call. This may be transformed to either a `FuncExpr` or `Aggref` node depending on whether the referenced name turns out to be an ordinary function or an aggregate function. Also, information about the actual data types of columns and expression results is added to the query tree.

40.4. The PostgreSQL Rule System

PostgreSQL supports a powerful *rule system* for the specification of *views* and ambiguous *view updates*. Originally the PostgreSQL rule system consisted of two implementations:

- The first one worked using *row level* processing and was implemented deep in the *executor*. The rule system was called whenever an individual row had been accessed. This implementation was removed in 1995 when the last official release of the Berkeley Postgres project was transformed into Postgres95.
- The second implementation of the rule system is a technique called *query rewriting*. The *rewrite system* is a module that exists between the *parser stage* and the *planner/optimizer*. This technique is still implemented.

The query rewriter is discussed in some detail in Chapter 33, so there is no need to cover it here. We will only point out that both the input and the output of the rewriter are query trees, that is, there is no change

in the representation or level of semantic detail in the trees. Rewriting can be thought of as a form of macro expansion.

40.5. Planner/Optimizer

The task of the *planner/optimizer* is to create an optimal execution plan. A given SQL query (and hence, a query tree) can be actually executed in a wide variety of different ways, each of which will produce the same set of results. If it is computationally feasible, the query optimizer will examine each of these possible execution plans, ultimately selecting the execution plan that is expected to run the fastest.

Note: In some situations, examining each possible way in which a query may be executed would take an excessive amount of time and memory space. In particular, this occurs when executing queries involving large numbers of join operations. In order to determine a reasonable (not optimal) query plan in a reasonable amount of time, PostgreSQL uses a *Genetic Query Optimizer*.

The planner's search procedure actually works with data structures called *paths*, which are simply cut-down representations of plans containing only as much information as the planner needs to make its decisions. After the cheapest path is determined, a full-fledged *plan tree* is built to pass to the executor. This represents the desired execution plan in sufficient detail for the executor to run it. In the rest of this section we'll ignore the distinction between paths and plans.

40.5.1. Generating Possible Plans

The planner/optimizer starts by generating plans for scanning each individual relation (table) used in the query. The possible plans are determined by the available indexes on each relation. There is always the possibility of performing a sequential scan on a relation, so a sequential scan plan is always created. Assume an index is defined on a relation (for example a B-tree index) and a query contains the restriction `relation.attribute OPR constant`. If `relation.attribute` happens to match the key of the B-tree index and `OPR` is one of the operators listed in the index's *operator class*, another plan is created using the B-tree index to scan the relation. If there are further indexes present and the restrictions in the query happen to match a key of an index further plans will be considered.

After all feasible plans have been found for scanning single relations, plans for joining relations are created. The planner/optimizer preferentially considers joins between any two relations for which there exist a corresponding join clause in the `WHERE` qualification (i.e. for which a restriction like `where rel1.attr1=rel2.attr2` exists). Join pairs with no join clause are considered only when there is no other choice, that is, a particular relation has no available join clauses to any other relation. All possible plans are generated for every join pair considered by the planner/optimizer. The three possible join strategies are:

- *nested loop join*: The right relation is scanned once for every row found in the left relation. This strategy is easy to implement but can be very time consuming. (However, if the right relation can be scanned with an index scan, this can be a good strategy. It is possible to use values from the current row of the left relation as keys for the index scan of the right.)
- *merge sort join*: Each relation is sorted on the join attributes before the join starts. Then the two relations are scanned in parallel, and matching rows are combined to form join rows. This kind of join is more

attractive because each relation has to be scanned only once. The required sorting may be achieved either by an explicit sort step, or by scanning the relation in the proper order using an index on the join key.

- *hash join*: the right relation is first scanned and loaded into a hash table, using its join attributes as hash keys. Next the left relation is scanned and the appropriate values of every row found are used as hash keys to locate the matching rows in the table.

When the query involves more than two relations, the final result must be built up by a tree of join steps, each with two inputs. The planner examines different possible join sequences to find the cheapest one.

The finished plan tree consists of sequential or index scans of the base relations, plus nested-loop, merge, or hash join nodes as needed, plus any auxiliary steps needed, such as sort nodes or aggregate-function calculation nodes. Most of these plan node types have the additional ability to do *selection* (discarding rows that do not meet a specified boolean condition) and *projection* (computation of a derived column set based on given column values, that is, evaluation of scalar expressions where needed). One of the responsibilities of the planner is to attach selection conditions from the `WHERE` clause and computation of required output expressions to the most appropriate nodes of the plan tree.

40.6. Executor

The *executor* takes the plan handed back by the planner/optimizer and recursively processes it to extract the required set of rows. This is essentially a demand-pull pipeline mechanism. Each time a plan node is called, it must deliver one more row, or report that it is done delivering rows.

To provide a concrete example, assume that the top node is a `MergeJoin` node. Before any merge can be done two rows have to be fetched (one from each subplan). So the executor recursively calls itself to process the subplans (it starts with the subplan attached to `lefttree`). The new top node (the top node of the left subplan) is, let's say, a `Sort` node and again recursion is needed to obtain an input row. The child node of the `Sort` might be a `SeqScan` node, representing actual reading of a table. Execution of this node causes the executor to fetch a row from the table and return it up to the calling node. The `Sort` node will repeatedly call its child to obtain all the rows to be sorted. When the input is exhausted (as indicated by the child node returning a `NULL` instead of a row), the `Sort` code performs the sort, and finally is able to return its first output row, namely the first one in sorted order. It keeps the remaining rows stored so that it can deliver them in sorted order in response to later demands.

The `MergeJoin` node similarly demands the first row from its right subplan. Then it compares the two rows to see if they can be joined; if so, it returns a join row to its caller. On the next call, or immediately if it cannot join the current pair of inputs, it advances to the next row of one table or the other (depending on how the comparison came out), and again checks for a match. Eventually, one subplan or the other is exhausted, and the `MergeJoin` node returns `NULL` to indicate that no more join rows can be formed.

Complex queries may involve many levels of plan nodes, but the general approach is the same: each node computes and returns its next output row each time it is called. Each node is also responsible for applying any selection or projection expressions that were assigned to it by the planner.

The executor mechanism is used to evaluate all four basic SQL query types: `SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE`. For `SELECT`, the top-level executor code only needs to send each row returned by the query plan tree off to the client. For `INSERT`, each returned row is inserted into the target table specified for

the `INSERT`. (A simple `INSERT . . . VALUES` command creates a trivial plan tree consisting of a single `Result` node, which computes just one result row. But `INSERT . . . SELECT` may demand the full power of the executor mechanism.) For `UPDATE`, the planner arranges that each computed row includes all the updated column values, plus the *TID* (tuple ID, or row ID) of the original target row; the executor top level uses this information to create a new updated row and mark the old row deleted. For `DELETE`, the only column that is actually returned by the plan is the `TID`, and the executor top level simply uses the `TID` to visit each target row and mark it deleted.

Chapter 41. System Catalogs

The system catalogs are the place where a relational database management system stores schema meta-data, such as information about tables and columns, and internal bookkeeping information. PostgreSQL's system catalogs are regular tables. You can drop and recreate the tables, add columns, insert and update values, and severely mess up your system that way. Normally, one should not change the system catalogs by hand, there are always SQL commands to do that. (For example, `CREATE DATABASE` inserts a row into the `pg_database` catalog — and actually creates the database on disk.) There are some exceptions for particularly esoteric operations, such as adding index access methods.

41.1. Overview

Table 41-1 lists the system catalogs. More detailed documentation of each catalog follows below.

Most system catalogs are copied from the template database during database creation and are thereafter database-specific. A few catalogs are physically shared across all databases in a cluster; these are noted in the descriptions of the individual catalogs.

Table 41-1. System Catalogs

Catalog Name	Purpose
<code>pg_aggregate</code>	aggregate functions
<code>pg_am</code>	index access methods
<code>pg_amop</code>	access method operators
<code>pg_amproc</code>	access method support procedures
<code>pg_attrdef</code>	column default values
<code>pg_attribute</code>	table columns (“attributes”)
<code>pg_cast</code>	casts (data type conversions)
<code>pg_class</code>	tables, indexes, sequences, views (“relations”)
<code>pg_constraint</code>	check constraints, unique constraints, primary key constraints, foreign key constraints
<code>pg_conversion</code>	encoding conversion information
<code>pg_database</code>	databases within this database cluster
<code>pg_depend</code>	dependencies between database objects
<code>pg_description</code>	descriptions or comments on database objects
<code>pg_group</code>	groups of database users
<code>pg_index</code>	additional index information
<code>pg_inherits</code>	table inheritance hierarchy
<code>pg_language</code>	languages for writing functions
<code>pg_largeobject</code>	large objects

Catalog Name	Purpose
pg_listener	asynchronous notification support
pg_namespace	schemas
pg_opclass	index access method operator classes
pg_operator	operators
pg_proc	functions and procedures
pg_rewrite	query rewrite rules
pg_shadow	database users
pg_statistic	planner statistics
pg_tablespace	tablespaces within this database cluster
pg_trigger	triggers
pg_type	data types

41.2. pg_aggregate

The catalog `pg_aggregate` stores information about aggregate functions. An aggregate function is a function that operates on a set of values (typically one column from each row that matches a query condition) and returns a single value computed from all these values. Typical aggregate functions are `sum`, `count`, and `max`. Each entry in `pg_aggregate` is an extension of an entry in `pg_proc`. The `pg_proc` entry carries the aggregate's name, input and output data types, and other information that is similar to ordinary functions.

Table 41-2. `pg_aggregate` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
aggfnoid	regproc	pg_proc.oid	pg_proc OID of the aggregate function
aggtransfn	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Transition function
aggfinalfn	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Final function (zero if none)
aggtranstype	oid	pg_type.oid	The type of the aggregate function's internal transition (state) data
agginitval	text		The initial value of the transition state. This is a text field containing the initial value in its external string representation. If the value is null, the transition state value starts out null.

New aggregate functions are registered with the `CREATE AGGREGATE` command. See Section 31.10 for

more information about writing aggregate functions and the meaning of the transition functions, etc.

41.3. pg_am

The catalog `pg_am` stores information about index access methods. There is one row for each index access method supported by the system.

Table 41-3. pg_am Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>amname</code>	<code>name</code>		Name of the access method
<code>amowner</code>	<code>int4</code>	<code>pg_shadow.usesysid</code>	User ID of the owner (currently not used)
<code>amstrategies</code>	<code>int2</code>		Number of operator strategies for this access method
<code>amsupport</code>	<code>int2</code>		Number of support routines for this access method
<code>amorderstrategy</code>	<code>int2</code>		Zero if the index offers no sort order, otherwise the strategy number of the strategy operator that describes the sort order
<code>amcanunique</code>	<code>bool</code>		Does the access method support unique indexes?
<code>amcanmulticol</code>	<code>bool</code>		Does the access method support multicolumn indexes?
<code>amindexnulls</code>	<code>bool</code>		Does the access method support null index entries?
<code>amconcurrent</code>	<code>bool</code>		Does the access method support concurrent updates?
<code>amgettuple</code>	<code>regproc</code>	<code>pg_proc.oid</code>	“Next valid tuple” function
<code>aminsert</code>	<code>regproc</code>	<code>pg_proc.oid</code>	“Insert this tuple” function
<code>ambeginscan</code>	<code>regproc</code>	<code>pg_proc.oid</code>	“Start new scan” function
<code>amrescan</code>	<code>regproc</code>	<code>pg_proc.oid</code>	“Restart this scan” function
<code>amendscan</code>	<code>regproc</code>	<code>pg_proc.oid</code>	“End this scan” function

Name	Type	References	Description
ammarkpos	regproc	pg_proc.oid	“Mark current scan position” function
amrestrpos	regproc	pg_proc.oid	“Restore marked scan position” function
ambuild	regproc	pg_proc.oid	“Build new index” function
ambulkdelete	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Bulk-delete function
amvacuumcleanup	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Post-VACUUM cleanup function
amcostestimate	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Function to estimate cost of an index scan

An index access method that supports multiple columns (has `amcanmulticol` true) *must* support indexing null values in columns after the first, because the planner will assume the index can be used for queries on just the first column(s). For example, consider an index on (a,b) and a query with `WHERE a = 4`. The system will assume the index can be used to scan for rows with `a = 4`, which is wrong if the index omits rows where `b` is null. It is, however, OK to omit rows where the first indexed column is null. (GiST currently does so.) `amindexnulls` should be set true only if the index access method indexes all rows, including arbitrary combinations of null values.

41.4. pg_amop

The catalog `pg_amop` stores information about operators associated with index access method operator classes. There is one row for each operator that is a member of an operator class.

Table 41-4. pg_amop Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
amopclaid	oid	pg_opclass.oid	The index operator class this entry is for
amopsubtype	oid	pg_type.oid	Subtype to distinguish multiple entries for one strategy; zero for default
amopstrategy	int2		Operator strategy number
amopreqcheck	bool		Index hit must be rechecked
amopopr	oid	pg_operator.oid	OID of the operator

41.5. pg_amproc

The catalog `pg_amproc` stores information about support procedures associated with index access method operator classes. There is one row for each support procedure belonging to an operator class.

Table 41-5. pg_amproc Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
amopclaid	oid	pg_opclass.oid	The index operator class this entry is for
amproctype	oid	pg_type.oid	Subtype, if cross-type routine, else zero
amprocnum	int2		Support procedure number
amproc	regproc	pg_proc.oid	OID of the procedure

41.6. pg_attrdef

The catalog `pg_attrdef` stores column default values. The main information about columns is stored in `pg_attribute` (see below). Only columns that explicitly specify a default value (when the table is created or the column is added) will have an entry here.

Table 41-6. pg_attrdef Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
adrelid	oid	pg_class.oid	The table this column belongs to
adnum	int2	pg_attribute.attnum	The number of the column
adbin	text		The internal representation of the column default value
adsrc	text		A human-readable representation of the default value

The `adsrc` field is historical, and is best not used, because it does not track outside changes that might affect the representation of the default value. Reverse-compiling the `adbin` field (with `pg_get_expr` for example) is a better way to display the default value.

41.7. pg_attribute

The catalog `pg_attribute` stores information about table columns. There will be exactly one `pg_attribute` row for every column in every table in the database. (There will also be attribute entries for indexes, and indeed all objects that have `pg_class` entries.)

The term attribute is equivalent to column and is used for historical reasons.

Table 41-7. pg_attribute Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
attrelid	oid	pg_class.oid	The table this column belongs to
attname	name		The column name
atttypid	oid	pg_type.oid	The data type of this column
attstattarget	int4		attstattarget controls the level of detail of statistics accumulated for this column by <i>ANALYZE</i> . A zero value indicates that no statistics should be collected. A negative value says to use the system default statistics target. The exact meaning of positive values is data type-dependent. For scalar data types, attstattarget is both the target number of “most common values” to collect, and the target number of histogram bins to create.
attlen	int2		A copy of pg_type.typelen of this column’s type
attnum	int2		The number of the column. Ordinary columns are numbered from 1 up. System columns, such as oid, have (arbitrary) negative numbers.
attdims	int4		Number of dimensions, if the column is an array type; otherwise 0. (Presently, the number of dimensions of an array is not enforced, so any nonzero value effectively means “it’s an array”.)

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>attcacheoff</code>	<code>int4</code>		Always -1 in storage, but when loaded into a row descriptor in memory this may be updated to cache the offset of the attribute within the row.
<code>atttypmod</code>	<code>int4</code>		<code>atttypmod</code> records type-specific data supplied at table creation time (for example, the maximum length of a <code>varchar</code> column). It is passed to type-specific input functions and length coercion functions. The value will generally be -1 for types that do not need <code>atttypmod</code> .
<code>attbyval</code>	<code>bool</code>		A copy of <code>pg_type.typbyval</code> of this column's type
<code>attstorage</code>	<code>char</code>		Normally a copy of <code>pg_type.typstorage</code> of this column's type. For TOAST-able data types, this can be altered after column creation to control storage policy.
<code>attalign</code>	<code>char</code>		A copy of <code>pg_type.typalign</code> of this column's type
<code>attnotnull</code>	<code>bool</code>		This represents a not-null constraint. It is possible to change this column to enable or disable the constraint.
<code>atthasdef</code>	<code>bool</code>		This column has a default value, in which case there will be a corresponding entry in the <code>pg_attrdef</code> catalog that actually defines the value.

Name	Type	References	Description
attisdropped	bool		This column has been dropped and is no longer valid. A dropped column is still physically present in the table, but is ignored by the parser and so cannot be accessed via SQL.
attislocal	bool		This column is defined locally in the relation. Note that a column may be locally defined and inherited simultaneously.
attinhcount	int4		The number of direct ancestors this column has. A column with a nonzero number of ancestors cannot be dropped nor renamed.

In a dropped column's `pg_attribute` entry, `atttypid` is reset to zero, but `attlen` and the other fields copied from `pg_type` are still valid. This arrangement is needed to cope with the situation where the dropped column's data type was later dropped, and so there is no `pg_type` row anymore. `attlen` and the other fields can be used to interpret the contents of a row of the table.

41.8. `pg_cast`

The catalog `pg_cast` stores data type conversion paths, both built-in paths and those defined with `CREATE CAST`.

Table 41-8. `pg_cast` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
castsource	oid	<code>pg_type.oid</code>	OID of the source data type
casttarget	oid	<code>pg_type.oid</code>	OID of the target data type

Name	Type	References	Description
castfunc	oid	pg_proc.oid	The OID of the function to use to perform this cast. Zero is stored if the data types are binary compatible (that is, no run-time operation is needed to perform the cast).
castcontext	char		Indicates what contexts the cast may be invoked in. e means only as an explicit cast (using CAST or :: syntax). a means implicitly in assignment to a target column, as well as explicitly. i means implicitly in expressions, as well as the other cases.

The cast functions listed in `pg_cast` must always take the cast source type as their first argument type, and return the cast destination type as their result type. A cast function can have up to three arguments. The second argument, if present, must be type `integer`; it receives the type modifier associated with the destination type, or `-1` if there is none. The third argument, if present, must be type `boolean`; it receives `true` if the cast is an explicit cast, `false` otherwise.

It is legitimate to create a `pg_cast` entry in which the source and target types are the same, if the associated function takes more than one argument. Such entries represent “length coercion functions” that coerce values of the type to be legal for a particular type modifier value. Note however that at present there is no support for associating non-default type modifiers with user-created data types, and so this facility is only of use for the small number of built-in types that have type modifier syntax built into the grammar.

When a `pg_cast` entry has different source and target types and a function that takes more than one argument, it represents converting from one type to another and applying a length coercion in a single step. When no such entry is available, coercion to a type that uses a type modifier involves two steps, one to convert between data types and a second to apply the modifier.

41.9. pg_class

The catalog `pg_class` catalogs tables and most everything else that has columns or is otherwise similar to a table. This includes indexes (but see also `pg_index`), sequences, views, composite types, and some kinds of special relation; see `relkind`. Below, when we mean all of these kinds of objects we speak of “relations”. Not all columns are meaningful for all relation types.

Table 41-9. pg_class Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
relname	name		Name of the table, index, view, etc.
relnamespace	oid	pg_namespace.oid	The OID of the namespace that contains this relation
reltype	oid	pg_type.oid	The OID of the data type that corresponds to this table's row type, if any (zero for indexes, which have no pg_type entry)
relowner	int4	pg_shadow.usesysid	Owner of the relation
relam	oid	pg_am.oid	If this is an index, the access method used (B-tree, hash, etc.)
relfilenode	oid		Name of the on-disk file of this relation; 0 if none
reltablespace	oid	pg_tablespace.oid	The tablespace in which this relation is stored. If zero, the database's default tablespace is implied. (Not meaningful if the relation has no on-disk file.)
relpages	int4		Size of the on-disk representation of this table in pages (of size BLCKSZ). This is only an estimate used by the planner. It is updated by VACUUM, ANALYZE, and a few DDL commands such as CREATE INDEX.
reltuples	float4		Number of rows in the table. This is only an estimate used by the planner. It is updated by VACUUM, ANALYZE, and a few DDL commands such as CREATE INDEX.

Name	Type	References	Description
reltoastrelid	oid	pg_class.oid	OID of the TOAST table associated with this table, 0 if none. The TOAST table stores large attributes “out of line” in a secondary table.
reltoastidxid	oid	pg_class.oid	For a TOAST table, the OID of its index. 0 if not a TOAST table.
relhasindex	bool		True if this is a table and it has (or recently had) any indexes. This is set by CREATE INDEX, but not cleared immediately by DROP INDEX. VACUUM clears relhasindex if it finds the table has no indexes.
relisshared	bool		True if this table is shared across all databases in the cluster. Only certain system catalogs (such as pg_database) are shared.
relkind	char		r = ordinary table, i = index, S = sequence, v = view, c = composite type, s = special, t = TOAST table
relnatts	int2		Number of user columns in the relation (system columns not counted). There must be this many corresponding entries in pg_attribute. See also pg_attribute.attnum.
relchecks	int2		Number of check constraints on the table; see pg_constraint catalog
reltriggers	int2		Number of triggers on the table; see pg_trigger catalog

Name	Type	References	Description
relukeys	int2		unused (<i>not</i> the number of unique keys)
relfkeys	int2		unused (<i>not</i> the number of foreign keys on the table)
relrefs	int2		unused
relhasoids	bool		True if we generate an OID for each row of the relation.
relhaspkey	bool		True if the table has (or once had) a primary key.
relhasrules	bool		True if table has rules; see <code>pg_rewrite</code> catalog.
relhassubclass	bool		True if table has (or once had) any inheritance children.
relacl	aclitem[]		Access privileges; see <i>GRANT</i> and <i>REVOKE</i> for details.

41.10. pg_constraint

The catalog `pg_constraint` stores check, primary key, unique, and foreign key constraints on tables. (Column constraints are not treated specially. Every column constraint is equivalent to some table constraint.) Not-null constraints are represented in the `pg_attribute` catalog.

Check constraints on domains are stored here, too.

Table 41-10. pg_constraint Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
conname	name		Constraint name (not necessarily unique!)
connamespace	oid	<code>pg_namespace.oid</code>	The OID of the namespace that contains this constraint
contype	char		<code>c</code> = check constraint, <code>f</code> = foreign key constraint, <code>p</code> = primary key constraint, <code>u</code> = unique constraint
condeferrable	bool		Is the constraint deferrable?
condeferred	bool		Is the constraint deferred by default?

Name	Type	References	Description
conrelid	oid	pg_class.oid	The table this constraint is on; 0 if not a table constraint
contypid	oid	pg_type.oid	The domain this constraint is on; 0 if not a domain constraint
confrelid	oid	pg_class.oid	If a foreign key, the referenced table; else 0
confupdtype	char		Foreign key update action code
confdeltype	char		Foreign key deletion action code
confmatchtype	char		Foreign key match type
conkey	int2[]	pg_attribute.attnum	If a table constraint, list of columns which the constraint constrains
confkey	int2[]	pg_attribute.attnum	If a foreign key, list of the referenced columns
conbin	text		If a check constraint, an internal representation of the expression
consrc	text		If a check constraint, a human-readable representation of the expression

Note: `consrc` is not updated when referenced objects change; for example, it won't track renaming of columns. Rather than relying on this field, it's best to use `pg_get_constraintdef()` to extract the definition of a check constraint.

Note: `pg_class.relchecks` needs to agree with the number of check-constraint entries found in this table for the given relation.

41.11. pg_conversion

The catalog `pg_conversion` describes the available encoding conversion procedures. See `CREATE CONVERSION` for more information.

Table 41-11. pg_conversion Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
conname	name		Conversion name (unique within a namespace)
connamespace	oid	pg_namespace.oid	The OID of the namespace that contains this conversion
conowner	int4	pg_shadow.usesysid	Owner of the conversion
conforencoding	int4		Source encoding ID
contoencoding	int4		Destination encoding ID
conproc	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Conversion procedure
condefault	bool		True if this is the default conversion

41.12. pg_database

The catalog `pg_database` stores information about the available databases. Databases are created with the `CREATE DATABASE` command. Consult Chapter 18 for details about the meaning of some of the parameters.

Unlike most system catalogs, `pg_database` is shared across all databases of a cluster: there is only one copy of `pg_database` per cluster, not one per database.

Table 41-12. pg_database Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
datname	name		Database name
datdba	int4	pg_shadow.usesysid	Owner of the database, usually the user who created it
encoding	int4		Character encoding for this database
datistemplate	bool		If true then this database can be used in the <code>TEMPLATE</code> clause of <code>CREATE DATABASE</code> to create a new database as a clone of this one.
dataallowconn	bool		If false then no one can connect to this database. This is used to protect the <code>template0</code> database from being altered.

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>datlastsysoid</code>	<code>oid</code>		Last system OID in the database; useful particularly to <code>pg_dump</code>
<code>datvacuumxid</code>	<code>xid</code>		All rows inserted or deleted by transaction IDs before this one have been marked as known committed or known aborted in this database. This is used to determine when commit-log space can be recycled.
<code>datfrozenxid</code>	<code>xid</code>		All rows inserted by transaction IDs before this one have been relabeled with a permanent (“frozen”) transaction ID in this database. This is useful to check whether a database must be vacuumed soon to avoid transaction ID wrap-around problems.
<code>dattablespace</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_tablespace.oid</code>	The default tablespace for the database. Within this database, all tables for which <code>pg_class.reltablespace</code> is zero will be stored in this tablespace; in particular, all the non-shared system catalogs will be there.
<code>datconfig</code>	<code>text[]</code>		Session defaults for run-time configuration variables
<code>datacl</code>	<code>aclitem[]</code>		Access privileges; see <i>GRANT</i> and <i>REVOKE</i> for details.

41.13. `pg_depend`

The catalog `pg_depend` records the dependency relationships between database objects. This information allows `DROP` commands to find which other objects must be dropped by `DROP CASCADE` or prevent

dropping in the `DROP RESTRICT` case.

Table 41-13. `pg_depend` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>classid</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_class.oid</code>	The OID of the system catalog the dependent object is in
<code>objid</code>	<code>oid</code>	any OID column	The OID of the specific dependent object
<code>objsubid</code>	<code>int4</code>		For a table column, this is the column number (the <code>objid</code> and <code>classid</code> refer to the table itself). For all other object types, this column is zero.
<code>refclassid</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_class.oid</code>	The OID of the system catalog the referenced object is in
<code>refobjid</code>	<code>oid</code>	any OID column	The OID of the specific referenced object
<code>refobjsubid</code>	<code>int4</code>		For a table column, this is the column number (the <code>refobjid</code> and <code>refclassid</code> refer to the table itself). For all other object types, this column is zero.
<code>deptype</code>	<code>char</code>		A code defining the specific semantics of this dependency relationship; see text.

In all cases, a `pg_depend` entry indicates that the referenced object may not be dropped without also dropping the dependent object. However, there are several subflavors identified by `deptype`:

DEPENDENCY_NORMAL (n)

A normal relationship between separately-created objects. The dependent object may be dropped without affecting the referenced object. The referenced object may only be dropped by specifying `CASCADE`, in which case the dependent object is dropped, too. Example: a table column has a normal dependency on its data type.

DEPENDENCY_AUTO (a)

The dependent object can be dropped separately from the referenced object, and should be automatically dropped (regardless of `RESTRICT` or `CASCADE` mode) if the referenced object is dropped. Example: a named constraint on a table is made autodependent on the table, so that it will go away

if the table is dropped.

DEPENDENCY_INTERNAL (i)

The dependent object was created as part of creation of the referenced object, and is really just a part of its internal implementation. A `DROP` of the dependent object will be disallowed outright (we'll tell the user to issue a `DROP` against the referenced object, instead). A `DROP` of the referenced object will be propagated through to drop the dependent object whether `CASCADE` is specified or not. Example: a trigger that's created to enforce a foreign-key constraint is made internally dependent on the constraint's `pg_constraint` entry.

DEPENDENCY_PIN (p)

There is no dependent object; this type of entry is a signal that the system itself depends on the referenced object, and so that object must never be deleted. Entries of this type are created only by `initdb`. The columns for the dependent object contain zeroes.

Other dependency flavors may be needed in future.

41.14. `pg_description`

The catalog `pg_description` stores optional descriptions (comments) for each database object. Descriptions can be manipulated with the `COMMENT` command and viewed with `psql`'s `\d` commands. Descriptions of many built-in system objects are provided in the initial contents of `pg_description`.

Table 41-14. `pg_description` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>objoid</code>	<code>oid</code>	any OID column	The OID of the object this description pertains to
<code>classoid</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_class.oid</code>	The OID of the system catalog this object appears in
<code>objsubid</code>	<code>int4</code>		For a comment on a table column, this is the column number (the <code>objoid</code> and <code>classoid</code> refer to the table itself). For all other object types, this column is zero.
<code>description</code>	<code>text</code>		Arbitrary text that serves as the description of this object.

41.15. pg_group

The catalog `pg_group` defines groups and stores what users belong to what groups. Groups are created with the `CREATE GROUP` command. Consult Chapter 17 for information about user privilege management.

Because user and group identities are cluster-wide, `pg_group` is shared across all databases of a cluster: there is only one copy of `pg_group` per cluster, not one per database.

Table 41-15. pg_group Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>groname</code>	<code>name</code>		Name of the group
<code>grosysid</code>	<code>int4</code>		An arbitrary number to identify this group
<code>grolist</code>	<code>int4[]</code>	<code>pg_shadow.usesysid</code>	An array containing the IDs of the users in this group

41.16. pg_index

The catalog `pg_index` contains part of the information about indexes. The rest is mostly in `pg_class`.

Table 41-16. pg_index Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>indexrelid</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_class.oid</code>	The OID of the <code>pg_class</code> entry for this index
<code>indrelid</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_class.oid</code>	The OID of the <code>pg_class</code> entry for the table this index is for

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>indkey</code>	<code>int2vector</code>	<code>pg_attribute.attnum</code>	This is an array of <code>indnatts</code> (up to <code>INDEX_MAX_KEYS</code>) values that indicate which table columns this index indexes. For example a value of 1 3 would mean that the first and the third table columns make up the index key. A zero in this array indicates that the corresponding index attribute is an expression over the table columns, rather than a simple column reference.
<code>indclass</code>	<code>oidvector</code>	<code>pg_opclass.oid</code>	For each column in the index key this contains the OID of the operator class to use. See <code>pg_opclass</code> for details.
<code>indnatts</code>	<code>int2</code>		The number of columns in the index (duplicates <code>pg_class.relnatts</code>)
<code>indisunique</code>	<code>bool</code>		If true, this is a unique index.
<code>indisprimary</code>	<code>bool</code>		If true, this index represents the primary key of the table. (<code>indisunique</code> should always be true when this is true.)
<code>indisclustered</code>	<code>bool</code>		If true, the table was last clustered on this index.
<code>indexprs</code>	<code>text</code>		Expression trees (in <code>nodeToString()</code> representation) for index attributes that are not simple column references. This is a list with one element for each zero entry in <code>indkey</code> . Null if all index attributes are simple references.

Name	Type	References	Description
indpred	text		Expression tree (in <code>nodeToString()</code> representation) for partial index predicate. Null if not a partial index.

41.17. `pg_inherits`

The catalog `pg_inherits` records information about table inheritance hierarchies. There is one entry for each direct child table in the database. (Indirect inheritance can be determined by following chains of entries.)

Table 41-17. `pg_inherits` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
inhrelid	oid	<code>pg_class.oid</code>	The OID of the child table.
inhparent	oid	<code>pg_class.oid</code>	The OID of the parent table.
inhseqno	int4		If there is more than one direct parent for a child table (multiple inheritance), this number tells the order in which the inherited columns are to be arranged. The count starts at 1.

41.18. `pg_language`

The catalog `pg_language` registers languages in which you can write functions or stored procedures. See *CREATE LANGUAGE* and Chapter 34 for more information about language handlers.

Table 41-18. `pg_language` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
lanname	name		Name of the language

Name	Type	References	Description
lanispl	bool		This is false for internal languages (such as SQL) and true for user-defined languages. Currently, pg_dump still uses this to determine which languages need to be dumped, but this may be replaced by a different mechanism sometime.
lanpltrusted	bool		This is a trusted language. If this is an internal language (lanispl is false) then this column is meaningless.
lanplcallfoid	oid	pg_proc.oid	For noninternal languages this references the language handler, which is a special function that is responsible for executing all functions that are written in the particular language.
lanvalidator	oid	pg_proc.oid	This references a language validator function that is responsible for checking the syntax and validity of new functions when they are created. Zero if no validator is provided.
lanacl	aclitem[]		Access privileges; see <i>GRANT</i> and <i>REVOKE</i> for details.

41.19. pg_largeobject

The catalog `pg_largeobject` holds the data making up “large objects”. A large object is identified by an OID assigned when it is created. Each large object is broken into segments or “pages” small enough to be conveniently stored as rows in `pg_largeobject`. The amount of data per page is defined to be `LOBLKSIZE` (which is currently `BLCKSZ/4`, or typically 2 kB).

Table 41-19. pg_largeobject Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
loid	oid		Identifier of the large object that includes this page
pageno	int4		Page number of this page within its large object (counting from zero)
data	bytea		Actual data stored in the large object. This will never be more than LOBLKSIZE bytes and may be less.

Each row of `pg_largeobject` holds data for one page of a large object, beginning at byte offset (`pageno * LOBLKSIZE`) within the object. The implementation allows sparse storage: pages may be missing, and may be shorter than `LOBLKSIZE` bytes even if they are not the last page of the object. Missing regions within a large object read as zeroes.

41.20. pg_listener

The catalog `pg_listener` supports the `LISTEN` and `NOTIFY` commands. A listener creates an entry in `pg_listener` for each notification name it is listening for. A notifier scans `pg_listener` and updates each matching entry to show that a notification has occurred. The notifier also sends a signal (using the PID recorded in the table) to awaken the listener from sleep.

Table 41-20. pg_listener Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
relname	name		Notify condition name. (The name need not match any actual relation in the database; the name <code>relname</code> is historical.)
listenerpid	int4		PID of the server process that created this entry.
notification	int4		Zero if no event is pending for this listener. If an event is pending, the PID of the server process that sent the notification.

41.21. pg_namespace

The catalog `pg_namespace` stores namespaces. A namespace is the structure underlying SQL schemas: each namespace can have a separate collection of relations, types, etc. without name conflicts.

Table 41-21. pg_namespace Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>nspname</code>	<code>name</code>		Name of the namespace
<code>nspowner</code>	<code>int4</code>	<code>pg_shadow.usesysid</code>	Owner of the namespace
<code>nspacl</code>	<code>aclitem[]</code>		Access privileges; see <i>GRANT</i> and <i>REVOKE</i> for details.

41.22. pg_opclass

The catalog `pg_opclass` defines index access method operator classes. Each operator class defines semantics for index columns of a particular data type and a particular index access method. Note that there can be multiple operator classes for a given data type/access method combination, thus supporting multiple behaviors.

Operator classes are described at length in Section 31.14.

Table 41-22. pg_opclass Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>opcamid</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_am.oid</code>	Index access method operator class is for
<code>opcname</code>	<code>name</code>		Name of this operator class
<code>opcnamespace</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_namespace.oid</code>	Namespace of this operator class
<code>opcowner</code>	<code>int4</code>	<code>pg_shadow.usesysid</code>	Operator class owner
<code>opcintype</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_type.oid</code>	Data type that the operator class indexes
<code>opcdefault</code>	<code>bool</code>		True if this operator class is the default for <code>opcintype</code>
<code>opckeytype</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_type.oid</code>	Type of data stored in index, or zero if same as <code>opcintype</code>

The majority of the information defining an operator class is actually not in its `pg_opclass` row, but in the associated rows in `pg_amop` and `pg_amproc`. Those rows are considered to be part of the operator class definition — this is not unlike the way that a relation is defined by a single `pg_class` row plus associated rows in `pg_attribute` and other tables.

41.23. pg_operator

The catalog `pg_operator` stores information about operators. See `CREATE OPERATOR` and Section 31.12 for more information.

Table 41-23. pg_operator Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>oprname</code>	<code>name</code>		Name of the operator
<code>oprnamespace</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_namespace.oid</code>	The OID of the namespace that contains this operator
<code>oprowner</code>	<code>int4</code>	<code>pg_shadow.usesysid</code>	Owner of the operator
<code>oprkind</code>	<code>char</code>		b = infix (“both”), l = prefix (“left”), r = postfix (“right”)
<code>oprcanhash</code>	<code>bool</code>		This operator supports hash joins
<code>oprleft</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_type.oid</code>	Type of the left operand
<code>oprright</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_type.oid</code>	Type of the right operand
<code>oprresult</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_type.oid</code>	Type of the result
<code>oprcom</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_operator.oid</code>	Commutator of this operator, if any
<code>oprnegate</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_operator.oid</code>	Negator of this operator, if any
<code>oprlsortop</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_operator.oid</code>	If this operator supports merge joins, the operator that sorts the type of the left-hand operand (L<L)
<code>oprrsortop</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_operator.oid</code>	If this operator supports merge joins, the operator that sorts the type of the right-hand operand (R<R)
<code>oprltcmpop</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_operator.oid</code>	If this operator supports merge joins, the less-than operator that compares the left and right operand types (L<R)
<code>oprgtcmpop</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_operator.oid</code>	If this operator supports merge joins, the greater-than operator that compares the left and right operand types (L>R)

Name	Type	References	Description
oprcode	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Function that implements this operator
oprrest	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Restriction selectivity estimation function for this operator
oprjoin	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Join selectivity estimation function for this operator

Unused column contain zeroes, for example `oprleft` is zero for a prefix operator.

41.24. pg_proc

The catalog `pg_proc` stores information about functions (or procedures). See *CREATE FUNCTION* and Section 31.3 for more information.

The table contains data for aggregate functions as well as plain functions. If `proisagg` is true, there should be a matching row in `pg_aggregate`.

Table 41-24. pg_proc Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
proname	name		Name of the function
pronamespace	oid	pg_namespace.oid	The OID of the namespace that contains this function
proowner	int4	pg_shadow.usesysid	Owner of the function
prolang	oid	pg_language.oid	Implementation language or call interface of this function
proisagg	bool		Function is an aggregate function
prosecdef	bool		Function is a security definer (i.e., a “setuid” function)
proisstrict	bool		Function returns null if any call argument is null. In that case the function won’t actually be called at all. Functions that are not “strict” must be prepared to handle null inputs.
proretset	bool		Function returns a set (i.e., multiple values of the specified data type)

Name	Type	References	Description
provolatile	char		provolatile tells whether the function's result depends only on its input arguments, or is affected by outside factors. It is <i>i</i> for “immutable” functions, which always deliver the same result for the same inputs. It is <i>s</i> for “stable” functions, whose results (for fixed inputs) do not change within a scan. It is <i>v</i> for “volatile” functions, whose results may change at any time. (Use <i>v</i> also for functions with side-effects, so that calls to them cannot get optimized away.)
pronargs	int2		Number of arguments
prorettype	oid	pg_type.oid	Data type of the return value
proargtypes	oidvector	pg_type.oid	An array with the data types of the function arguments
proargnames	text[]		An array with the names of the function arguments. Arguments without a name are set to empty strings in the array. If none of the arguments have a name, this field may be null.
prosrc	text		This tells the function handler how to invoke the function. It might be the actual source code of the function for interpreted languages, a link symbol, a file name, or just about anything else, depending on the implementation language/call convention.

Name	Type	References	Description
probin	bytea		Additional information about how to invoke the function. Again, the interpretation is language-specific.
proacl	aclitem[]		Access privileges; see <i>GRANT</i> and <i>REVOKE</i> for details.

For compiled functions, both built-in and dynamically loaded, `prosrc` contains the function's C-language name (link symbol). For all other currently-known language types, `prosrc` contains the function's source text. `probin` is unused except for dynamically-loaded C functions, for which it gives the name of the shared library file containing the function.

41.25. `pg_rewrite`

The catalog `pg_rewrite` stores rewrite rules for tables and views.

Table 41-25. `pg_rewrite` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>rulename</code>	name		Rule name
<code>ev_class</code>	oid	<code>pg_class.oid</code>	The table this rule is for
<code>ev_attr</code>	int2		The column this rule is for (currently, always zero to indicate the whole table)
<code>ev_type</code>	char		Event type that the rule is for: 1 = SELECT, 2 = UPDATE, 3 = INSERT, 4 = DELETE
<code>is_instead</code>	bool		True if the rule is an INSTEAD rule
<code>ev_qual</code>	text		Expression tree (in the form of a <code>nodeToString()</code> representation) for the rule's qualifying condition
<code>ev_action</code>	text		Query tree (in the form of a <code>nodeToString()</code> representation) for the rule's action

Note: `pg_class.relhasrules` must be true if a table has any rules in this catalog.

41.26. `pg_shadow`

The catalog `pg_shadow` contains information about database users. The name stems from the fact that this table should not be readable by the public since it contains passwords. `pg_user` is a publicly readable view on `pg_shadow` that blanks out the password field.

Chapter 17 contains detailed information about user and privilege management.

Because user identities are cluster-wide, `pg_shadow` is shared across all databases of a cluster: there is only one copy of `pg_shadow` per cluster, not one per database.

Table 41-26. `pg_shadow` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>username</code>	<code>name</code>		User name
<code>usesysid</code>	<code>int4</code>		User ID (arbitrary number used to reference this user)
<code>usecreatedb</code>	<code>bool</code>		User may create databases
<code>usesuper</code>	<code>bool</code>		User is a superuser
<code>usecatupd</code>	<code>bool</code>		User may update system catalogs. (Even a superuser may not do this unless this column is true.)
<code>passwd</code>	<code>text</code>		Password (possibly encrypted)
<code>valuntil</code>	<code>abstime</code>		Password expiry time (only used for password authentication)
<code>useconfig</code>	<code>text[]</code>		Session defaults for run-time configuration variables

41.27. `pg_statistic`

The catalog `pg_statistic` stores statistical data about the contents of the database. Entries are created by `ANALYZE` and subsequently used by the query planner. There is one entry for each table column that has been analyzed. Note that all the statistical data is inherently approximate, even assuming that it is up-to-date.

`pg_statistic` also stores statistical data about the values of index expressions. These are described as if they were actual data columns; in particular, `starelid` references the index. No entry is made for an ordinary non-expression index column, however, since it would be redundant with the entry for the underlying table column.

Since different kinds of statistics may be appropriate for different kinds of data, `pg_statistic` is designed not to assume very much about what sort of statistics it stores. Only extremely general statistics (such as nullness) are given dedicated columns in `pg_statistic`. Everything else is stored in “slots”, which are groups of associated columns whose content is identified by a code number in one of the slot’s columns. For more information see `src/include/catalog/pg_statistic.h`.

`pg_statistic` should not be readable by the public, since even statistical information about a table’s contents may be considered sensitive. (Example: minimum and maximum values of a salary column might be quite interesting.) `pg_stats` is a publicly readable view on `pg_statistic` that only exposes information about those tables that are readable by the current user.

Table 41-27. `pg_statistic` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>starelid</code>	<code>oid</code>	<code>pg_class.oid</code>	The table or index that the described column belongs to
<code>staattnum</code>	<code>int2</code>	<code>pg_attribute.attnum</code>	The number of the described column
<code>stanullfrac</code>	<code>float4</code>		The fraction of the column’s entries that are null
<code>stawidth</code>	<code>int4</code>		The average stored width, in bytes, of nonnull entries
<code>stadistinct</code>	<code>float4</code>		The number of distinct nonnull data values in the column. A value greater than zero is the actual number of distinct values. A value less than zero is the negative of a fraction of the number of rows in the table (for example, a column in which values appear about twice on the average could be represented by <code>stadistinct = -0.5</code>). A zero value means the number of distinct values is unknown.

Name	Type	References	Description
stakind N	int2		A code number indicating the kind of statistics stored in the N th “slot” of the <code>pg_statistic</code> row.
staop N	oid	<code>pg_operator.oid</code>	An operator used to derive the statistics stored in the N th “slot”. For example, a histogram slot would show the < operator that defines the sort order of the data.
stanumbers N	float4[]		Numerical statistics of the appropriate kind for the N th “slot”, or null if the slot kind does not involve numerical values.
stavalues N	anyarray		Column data values of the appropriate kind for the N th “slot”, or null if the slot kind does not store any data values. Each array’s element values are actually of the specific column’s data type, so there is no way to define these columns’ type more specifically than <code>anyarray</code> .

41.28. `pg_tablespace`

The catalog `pg_tablespace` stores information about the available tablespaces. Tables can be placed in particular tablespaces to aid administration of disk layout.

Unlike most system catalogs, `pg_tablespace` is shared across all databases of a cluster: there is only one copy of `pg_tablespace` per cluster, not one per database.

Table 41-28. `pg_tablespace` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>spcname</code>	name		Tablespace name

Name	Type	References	Description
spcowner	int4	pg_shadow.usersysid	Owner of the tablespace, usually the user who created it
spcllocation	text		Location (directory path) of the tablespace
spcacl	aclitem[]		Access privileges; see <i>GRANT</i> and <i>REVOKE</i> for details.

41.29. pg_trigger

The catalog `pg_trigger` stores triggers on tables. See *CREATE TRIGGER* for more information.

Table 41-29. pg_trigger Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
tgrelid	oid	pg_class.oid	The table this trigger is on
tgname	name		Trigger name (must be unique among triggers of same table)
tgfoid	oid	pg_proc.oid	The function to be called
tgtype	int2		Bit mask identifying trigger conditions
tgenabled	bool		True if trigger is enabled (not presently checked everywhere it should be, so disabling a trigger by setting this false does not work reliably)
tgisconstraint	bool		True if trigger implements a referential integrity constraint
tgconstrname	name		Referential integrity constraint name
tgconstrrelid	oid	pg_class.oid	The table referenced by an referential integrity constraint
tgdeferrable	bool		True if deferrable
tginitdeferred	bool		True if initially deferred

Name	Type	References	Description
tgnargs	int2		Number of argument strings passed to trigger function
tgattr	int2vector		Currently unused
tgargs	bytea		Argument strings to pass to trigger, each null-terminated

Note: `pg_class.reltriggers` needs to agree with the number of triggers found in this table for the given relation.

41.30. `pg_type`

The catalog `pg_type` stores information about data types. Base types (scalar types) are created with `CREATE TYPE`, and domains with `CREATE DOMAIN`. A composite type is automatically created for each table in the database, to represent the row structure of the table. It is also possible to create composite types with `CREATE TYPE AS`.

Table 41-30. `pg_type` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
typname	name		Data type name
typnamespace	oid	<code>pg_namespace.oid</code>	The OID of the namespace that contains this type
typowner	int4	<code>pg_shadow.usesysid</code>	Owner of the type
typlen	int2		For a fixed-size type, <code>typlen</code> is the number of bytes in the internal representation of the type. But for a variable-length type, <code>typlen</code> is negative. -1 indicates a “varlena” type (one that has a length word), -2 indicates a null-terminated C string.

Name	Type	References	Description
typbyval	bool		typbyval determines whether internal routines pass a value of this type by value or by reference. typbyval had better be false if typplen is not 1, 2, or 4 (or 8 on machines where Datum is 8 bytes). Variable-length types are always passed by reference. Note that typbyval can be false even if the length would allow pass-by-value; this is currently true for type float4, for example.
typtype	char		typtype is b for a base type, c for a composite type (e.g., a table's row type), d for a domain, or p for a pseudo-type. See also typrelid and typbasetype.
typisdefined	bool		True if the type is defined, false if this is a placeholder entry for a not-yet-defined type. When typisdefined is false, nothing except the type name, namespace, and OID can be relied on.
typdelim	char		Character that separates two values of this type when parsing array input. Note that the delimiter is associated with the array element data type, not the array data type.

Name	Type	References	Description
typrelid	oid	pg_class.oid	If this is a composite type (see <code>typtype</code>), then this column points to the <code>pg_class</code> entry that defines the corresponding table. (For a free-standing composite type, the <code>pg_class</code> entry doesn't really represent a table, but it is needed anyway for the type's <code>pg_attribute</code> entries to link to.) Zero for non-composite types.
typelem	oid	pg_type.oid	If <code>typelem</code> is not 0 then it identifies another row in <code>pg_type</code> . The current type can then be subscripted like an array yielding values of type <code>typelem</code> . A "true" array type is variable length (<code>typlen = -1</code>), but some fixed-length (<code>typlen > 0</code>) types also have nonzero <code>typelem</code> , for example <code>name</code> and <code>oidvector</code> . If a fixed-length type has a <code>typelem</code> then its internal representation must be some number of values of the <code>typelem</code> data type with no other data. Variable-length array types have a header defined by the array subroutines.
typinput	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Input conversion function (text format)
typoutput	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Output conversion function (text format)
typreceive	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Input conversion function (binary format), or 0 if none

Name	Type	References	Description
typsend	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Output conversion function (binary format), or 0 if none
typanalyze	regproc	pg_proc.oid	Custom ANALYZE function, or 0 to use the standard function

Name	Type	References	Description
typalign	char		<p>typalign is the alignment required when storing a value of this type. It applies to storage on disk as well as most representations of the value inside PostgreSQL. When multiple values are stored consecutively, such as in the representation of a complete row on disk, padding is inserted before a datum of this type so that it begins on the specified boundary. The alignment reference is the beginning of the first datum in the sequence.</p> <p>Possible values are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • c = char alignment, i.e., no alignment needed. • s = short alignment (2 bytes on most machines). • i = int alignment (4 bytes on most machines). • d = double alignment (8 bytes on many machines, but by no means all). <p>Note: For types used in system tables, it is critical that the size and alignment defined in <code>pg_type</code> agree with the way that the compiler will lay out the column in a structure representing a table row.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">1061</p>

Name	Type	References	Description
typstorage	char		<p>typstorage tells for varlena types (those with <code>typlen = -1</code>) if the type is prepared for toasting and what the default strategy for attributes of this type should be. Possible values are</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <code>p</code>: Value must always be stored plain. • <code>e</code>: Value can be stored in a “secondary” relation (if relation has one, see <code>pg_class.reltoastrelid</code>). • <code>m</code>: Value can be stored compressed in-line. • <code>x</code>: Value can be stored compressed in-line or stored in “secondary” storage. <p>Note that <code>m</code> columns can also be moved out to secondary storage, but only as a last resort (<code>e</code> and <code>x</code> columns are moved first).</p>
typnotnull	bool		<p>typnotnull represents a not-null constraint on a type. Used for domains only.</p>
typbasetype	oid	pg_type.oid	<p>If this is a domain (see <code>typtype</code>), then <code>typbasetype</code> identifies the type that this one is based on. Zero if not a domain.</p>

Name	Type	References	Description
tytypmod	int4		Domains use <code>tytypmod</code> to record the <code>typmod</code> to be applied to their base type (-1 if base type does not use a <code>typmod</code>). -1 if this type is not a domain.
typndims	int4		<code>typndims</code> is the number of array dimensions for a domain that is an array (that is, <code>typbasetype</code> is an array type; the domain's <code>typelem</code> will match the base type's <code>typelem</code>). Zero for types other than array domains.
typdefaultbin	text		If <code>typdefaultbin</code> is not null, it is the <code>nodeToString()</code> representation of a default expression for the type. This is only used for domains.
typdefault	text		<code>typdefault</code> is null if the type has no associated default value. If <code>typdefaultbin</code> is not null, <code>typdefault</code> must contain a human-readable version of the default expression represented by <code>typdefaultbin</code> . If <code>typdefaultbin</code> is null and <code>typdefault</code> is not, then <code>typdefault</code> is the external representation of the type's default value, which may be fed to the type's input converter to produce a constant.

41.31. System Views

In addition to the system catalogs, PostgreSQL provides a number of built-in views. Some system views provide convenient access to some commonly used queries on the system catalogs. Other views provide access to internal server state.

The information schema (Chapter 30) provides an alternative set of views which overlap the functionality of the system views. Since the information schema is SQL-standard whereas the views described here are PostgreSQL-specific, it's usually better to use the information schema if it provides all the information you need.

Table 41-31 lists the system views described here. More detailed documentation of each view follows below. There are some additional views that provide access to the results of the statistics collector; they are described in Table 23-1.

Except where noted, all the views described here are read-only.

Table 41-31. System Views

View Name	Purpose
<code>pg_indexes</code>	indexes
<code>pg_locks</code>	currently held locks
<code>pg_rules</code>	rules
<code>pg_settings</code>	parameter settings
<code>pg_stats</code>	planner statistics
<code>pg_tables</code>	tables
<code>pg_user</code>	database users
<code>pg_views</code>	views

41.32. `pg_indexes`

The view `pg_indexes` provides access to useful information about each index in the database.

Table 41-32. `pg_indexes` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>schemaname</code>	name	<code>pg_namespace.nspname</code>	name of schema containing table and index
<code>tablename</code>	name	<code>pg_class.relname</code>	name of table the index is for
<code>indexname</code>	name	<code>pg_class.relname</code>	name of index
<code>tablespace</code>	name	<code>pg_tablespace.spcname</code>	name of tablespace containing index (NULL if default for database)

Name	Type	References	Description
indexdef	text		index definition (a reconstructed creation command)

41.33. pg_locks

The view `pg_locks` provides access to information about the locks held by open transactions within the database server. See Chapter 12 for more discussion of locking.

`pg_locks` contains one row per active lockable object, requested lock mode, and relevant transaction. Thus, the same lockable object may appear many times, if multiple transactions are holding or waiting for locks on it. However, an object that currently has no locks on it will not appear at all. A lockable object is either a relation (e.g., a table) or a transaction ID.

Note that this view includes only table-level locks, not row-level ones. If a transaction is waiting for a row-level lock, it will appear in the view as waiting for the transaction ID of the current holder of that row lock.

Table 41-33. pg_locks Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
relation	oid	<code>pg_class.oid</code>	OID of the locked relation, or NULL if the lockable object is a transaction ID
database	oid	<code>pg_database.oid</code>	OID of the database in which the locked relation exists, or zero if the locked relation is a globally-shared table, or NULL if the lockable object is a transaction ID
transaction	xid		ID of a transaction, or NULL if the lockable object is a relation
pid	integer		process ID of a server process holding or awaiting this lock
mode	text		name of the lock mode held or desired by this process (see Section 12.3.1)
granted	boolean		true if lock is held, false if lock is awaited

granted is true in a row representing a lock held by the indicated session. False indicates that this session is currently waiting to acquire this lock, which implies that some other session is holding a conflicting lock mode on the same lockable object. The waiting session will sleep until the other lock is released (or a deadlock situation is detected). A single session can be waiting to acquire at most one lock at a time.

Every transaction holds an exclusive lock on its transaction ID for its entire duration. If one transaction finds it necessary to wait specifically for another transaction, it does so by attempting to acquire share lock on the other transaction ID. That will succeed only when the other transaction terminates and releases its locks.

When the `pg_locks` view is accessed, the internal lock manager data structures are momentarily locked, and a copy is made for the view to display. This ensures that the view produces a consistent set of results, while not blocking normal lock manager operations longer than necessary. Nonetheless there could be some impact on database performance if this view is read often.

`pg_locks` provides a global view of all locks in the database cluster, not only those relevant to the current database. Although its `relation` column can be joined against `pg_class.oid` to identify locked relations, this will only work correctly for relations in the current database (those for which the `database` column is either the current database's OID or zero).

If you have enabled the statistics collector, the `pid` column can be joined to the `procpid` column of the `pg_stat_activity` view to get more information on the session holding or waiting to hold the lock.

41.34. `pg_rules`

The view `pg_rules` provides access to useful information about query rewrite rules.

Table 41-34. `pg_rules` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>schemaname</code>	name	<code>pg_namespace.nspname</code>	name of schema containing table
<code>tablename</code>	name	<code>pg_class.relname</code>	name of table the rule is for
<code>rulename</code>	name	<code>pg_rewrite.rulename</code>	name of rule
<code>definition</code>	text		rule definition (a reconstructed creation command)

The `pg_rules` view excludes the ON SELECT rules of views; those can be seen in `pg_views`.

41.35. `pg_settings`

The view `pg_settings` provides access to run-time parameters of the server. It is essentially an alternative interface to the `SHOW` and `SET` commands. It also provides access to some facts about each parameter that are not directly available from `SHOW`, such as minimum and maximum values.

Table 41-35. pg_settings Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
name	text		run-time configuration parameter name
setting	text		current value of the parameter
category	text		logical group of the parameter
short_desc	text		a brief description of the parameter
extra_desc	text		additional, more detailed, information about the parameter
context	text		context required to set the parameter's value
vartype	text		parameter type (bool, integer, real, or string)
source	text		source of the current parameter value
min_val	text		minimum allowed value of the parameter (NULL for nonnumeric values)
max_val	text		maximum allowed value of the parameter (NULL for nonnumeric values)

The `pg_settings` view cannot be inserted into or deleted from, but it can be updated. An `UPDATE` applied to a row of `pg_settings` is equivalent to executing the `SET` command on that named parameter. The change only affects the value used by the current session. If an `UPDATE` is issued within a transaction that is later aborted, the effects of the `UPDATE` command disappear when the transaction is rolled back. Once the surrounding transaction is committed, the effects will persist until the end of the session, unless overridden by another `UPDATE` or `SET`.

41.36. pg_stats

The view `pg_stats` provides access to the information stored in the `pg_statistic` catalog. This view allows access only to rows of `pg_statistic` that correspond to tables the user has permission to read, and therefore it is safe to allow public read access to this view.

`pg_stats` is also designed to present the information in a more readable format than the underlying catalog — at the cost that its schema must be extended whenever new slot types are defined for `pg_statistic`.

Table 41-36. pg_stats Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
schemaname	name	pg_namespace.nspname	name of schema containing table
tablename	name	pg_class.relname	name of table
attname	name	pg_attribute.attname	name of the column described by this row
null_frac	real		fraction of column entries that are null
avg_width	integer		average width in bytes of column's entries
n_distinct	real		If greater than zero, the estimated number of distinct values in the column. If less than zero, the negative of the number of distinct values divided by the number of rows. (The negated form is used when ANALYZE believes that the number of distinct values is likely to increase as the table grows; the positive form is used when the column seems to have a fixed number of possible values.) For example, -1 indicates a unique column in which the number of distinct values is the same as the number of rows.
most_common_vals	anyarray		A list of the most common values in the column. (NULL if no values seem to be more common than any others.)

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>most_common_freqs</code>	<code>real[]</code>		A list of the frequencies of the most common values, i.e., number of occurrences of each divided by total number of rows. (NULL when <code>most_common_vals</code> is.)
<code>histogram_bounds</code>	<code>anyarray</code>		A list of values that divide the column's values into groups of approximately equal population. The values in <code>most_common_vals</code> , if present, are omitted from this histogram calculation. (This column is NULL if the column data type does not have a <code><</code> operator or if the <code>most_common_vals</code> list accounts for the entire population.)
<code>correlation</code>	<code>real</code>		Statistical correlation between physical row ordering and logical ordering of the column values. This ranges from -1 to +1. When the value is near -1 or +1, an index scan on the column will be estimated to be cheaper than when it is near zero, due to reduction of random access to the disk. (This column is NULL if the column data type does not have a <code><</code> operator.)

The maximum number of entries in the `most_common_vals` and `histogram_bounds` arrays can be set on a column-by-column basis using the `ALTER TABLE SET STATISTICS` command, or globally by setting the `default_statistics_target` runtime parameter.

41.37. pg_tables

The view `pg_tables` provides access to useful information about each table in the database.

Table 41-37. `pg_tables` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>schemaname</code>	name	<code>pg_namespace.nspname</code>	name of schema containing table
<code>tablename</code>	name	<code>pg_class.relname</code>	name of table
<code>tableowner</code>	name	<code>pg_shadow.username</code>	name of table's owner
<code>tablespace</code>	name	<code>pg_tablespace.spcname</code>	name of tablespace containing table (NULL if default for database)
<code>hasindexes</code>	boolean	<code>pg_class.relhasindex</code>	true if table has (or recently had) any indexes
<code>hasrules</code>	boolean	<code>pg_class.relhasrules</code>	true if table has rules
<code>hastriggers</code>	boolean	<code>pg_class.reltriggers</code>	true if table has triggers

41.38. pg_user

The view `pg_user` provides access to information about database users. This is simply a publicly readable view of `pg_shadow` that blanks out the password field.

Table 41-38. `pg_user` Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
<code>username</code>	name		User name
<code>usesysid</code>	int4		User ID (arbitrary number used to reference this user)
<code>usecreatedb</code>	bool		User may create databases
<code>usesuper</code>	bool		User is a superuser
<code>usecatupd</code>	bool		User may update system catalogs. (Even a superuser may not do this unless this column is true.)
<code>passwd</code>	text		Not the password (always reads as <code>*****</code>)

Name	Type	References	Description
valuntil	abstime		Password expiry time (only used for password authentication)
useconfig	text[]		Session defaults for run-time configuration variables

41.39. pg_views

The view `pg_views` provides access to useful information about each view in the database.

Table 41-39. pg_views Columns

Name	Type	References	Description
schemaname	name	<code>pg_namespace.nspname</code>	name of schema containing view
viewname	name	<code>pg_class.relname</code>	name of view
viewowner	name	<code>pg_shadow.username</code>	name of view's owner
definition	text		view definition (a reconstructed SELECT query)

Chapter 42. Frontend/Backend Protocol

PostgreSQL uses a message-based protocol for communication between frontends and backends (clients and servers). The protocol is supported over TCP/IP and also over Unix-domain sockets. Port number 5432 has been registered with IANA as the customary TCP port number for servers supporting this protocol, but in practice any non-privileged port number may be used.

This document describes version 3.0 of the protocol, implemented in PostgreSQL 7.4 and later. For descriptions of the earlier protocol versions, see previous releases of the PostgreSQL documentation. A single server can support multiple protocol versions. The initial startup-request message tells the server which protocol version the client is attempting to use, and then the server follows that protocol if it is able.

Higher level features built on this protocol (for example, how libpq passes certain environment variables when the connection is established) are covered elsewhere.

In order to serve multiple clients efficiently, the server launches a new “backend” process for each client. In the current implementation, a new child process is created immediately after an incoming connection is detected. This is transparent to the protocol, however. For purposes of the protocol, the terms “backend” and “server” are interchangeable; likewise “frontend” and “client” are interchangeable.

42.1. Overview

The protocol has separate phases for startup and normal operation. In the startup phase, the frontend opens a connection to the server and authenticates itself to the satisfaction of the server. (This might involve a single message, or multiple messages depending on the authentication method being used.) If all goes well, the server then sends status information to the frontend, and finally enters normal operation. Except for the initial startup-request message, this part of the protocol is driven by the server.

During normal operation, the frontend sends queries and other commands to the backend, and the backend sends back query results and other responses. There are a few cases (such as `NOTIFY`) wherein the backend will send unsolicited messages, but for the most part this portion of a session is driven by frontend requests.

Termination of the session is normally by frontend choice, but can be forced by the backend in certain cases. In any case, when the backend closes the connection, it will roll back any open (incomplete) transaction before exiting.

Within normal operation, SQL commands can be executed through either of two sub-protocols. In the “simple query” protocol, the frontend just sends a textual query string, which is parsed and immediately executed by the backend. In the “extended query” protocol, processing of queries is separated into multiple steps: parsing, binding of parameter values, and execution. This offers flexibility and performance benefits, at the cost of extra complexity.

Normal operation has additional sub-protocols for special operations such as `COPY`.

42.1.1. Messaging Overview

All communication is through a stream of messages. The first byte of a message identifies the message type, and the next four bytes specify the length of the rest of the message (this length count includes itself,

but not the message-type byte). The remaining contents of the message are determined by the message type. For historical reasons, the very first message sent by the client (the startup message) has no initial message-type byte.

To avoid losing synchronization with the message stream, both servers and clients typically read an entire message into a buffer (using the byte count) before attempting to process its contents. This allows easy recovery if an error is detected while processing the contents. In extreme situations (such as not having enough memory to buffer the message), the receiver may use the byte count to determine how much input to skip before it resumes reading messages.

Conversely, both servers and clients must take care never to send an incomplete message. This is commonly done by marshaling the entire message in a buffer before beginning to send it. If a communications failure occurs partway through sending or receiving a message, the only sensible response is to abandon the connection, since there is little hope of recovering message-boundary synchronization.

42.1.2. Extended Query Overview

In the extended-query protocol, execution of SQL commands is divided into multiple steps. The state retained between steps is represented by two types of objects: *prepared statements* and *portals*. A prepared statement represents the result of parsing, semantic analysis, and planning of a textual query string. A prepared statement is not necessarily ready to execute, because it may lack specific values for *parameters*. A portal represents a ready-to-execute or already-partially-executed statement, with any missing parameter values filled in. (For `SELECT` statements, a portal is equivalent to an open cursor, but we choose to use a different term since cursors don't handle non-`SELECT` statements.)

The overall execution cycle consists of a *parse* step, which creates a prepared statement from a textual query string; a *bind* step, which creates a portal given a prepared statement and values for any needed parameters; and an *execute* step that runs a portal's query. In the case of a query that returns rows (`SELECT`, `SHOW`, etc), the execute step can be told to fetch only a limited number of rows, so that multiple execute steps may be needed to complete the operation.

The backend can keep track of multiple prepared statements and portals (but note that these exist only within a session, and are never shared across sessions). Existing prepared statements and portals are referenced by names assigned when they were created. In addition, an "unnamed" prepared statement and portal exist. Although these behave largely the same as named objects, operations on them are optimized for the case of executing a query only once and then discarding it, whereas operations on named objects are optimized on the expectation of multiple uses.

42.1.3. Formats and Format Codes

Data of a particular data type might be transmitted in any of several different *formats*. As of PostgreSQL 7.4 the only supported formats are "text" and "binary", but the protocol makes provision for future extensions. The desired format for any value is specified by a *format code*. Clients may specify a format code for each transmitted parameter value and for each column of a query result. Text has format code zero, binary has format code one, and all other format codes are reserved for future definition.

The text representation of values is whatever strings are produced and accepted by the input/output conversion functions for the particular data type. In the transmitted representation, there is no trailing null character; the frontend must add one to received values if it wants to process them as C strings. (The text format does not allow embedded nulls, by the way.)

Binary representations for integers use network byte order (most significant byte first). For other data types consult the documentation or source code to learn about the binary representation. Keep in mind that binary representations for complex data types may change across server versions; the text format is usually the more portable choice.

42.2. Message Flow

This section describes the message flow and the semantics of each message type. (Details of the exact representation of each message appear in Section 42.4.) There are several different sub-protocols depending on the state of the connection: start-up, query, function call, `COPY`, and termination. There are also special provisions for asynchronous operations (including notification responses and command cancellation), which can occur at any time after the start-up phase.

42.2.1. Start-Up

To begin a session, a frontend opens a connection to the server and sends a startup message. This message includes the names of the user and of the database the user wants to connect to; it also identifies the particular protocol version to be used. (Optionally, the startup message can include additional settings for run-time parameters.) The server then uses this information and the contents of its configuration files (such as `pg_hba.conf`) to determine whether the connection is provisionally acceptable, and what additional authentication is required (if any).

The server then sends an appropriate authentication request message, to which the frontend must reply with an appropriate authentication response message (such as a password). In principle the authentication request/response cycle could require multiple iterations, but none of the present authentication methods use more than one request and response. In some methods, no response at all is needed from the frontend, and so no authentication request occurs.

The authentication cycle ends with the server either rejecting the connection attempt (`ErrorResponse`), or sending `AuthenticationOk`.

The possible messages from the server in this phase are:

`ErrorResponse`

The connection attempt has been rejected. The server then immediately closes the connection.

`AuthenticationOk`

The authentication exchange is successfully completed.

`AuthenticationKerberosV4`

The frontend must now take part in a Kerberos V4 authentication dialog (not described here, part of the Kerberos specification) with the server. If this is successful, the server responds with an `AuthenticationOk`, otherwise it responds with an `ErrorResponse`.

`AuthenticationKerberosV5`

The frontend must now take part in a Kerberos V5 authentication dialog (not described here, part of the Kerberos specification) with the server. If this is successful, the server responds with an `AuthenticationOk`, otherwise it responds with an `ErrorResponse`.

AuthenticationCleartextPassword

The frontend must now send a `PasswordMessage` containing the password in clear-text form. If this is the correct password, the server responds with an `AuthenticationOk`, otherwise it responds with an `ErrorResponse`.

AuthenticationCryptPassword

The frontend must now send a `PasswordMessage` containing the password encrypted via `crypt(3)`, using the 2-character salt specified in the `AuthenticationCryptPassword` message. If this is the correct password, the server responds with an `AuthenticationOk`, otherwise it responds with an `ErrorResponse`.

AuthenticationMD5Password

The frontend must now send a `PasswordMessage` containing the password encrypted via MD5, using the 4-character salt specified in the `AuthenticationMD5Password` message. If this is the correct password, the server responds with an `AuthenticationOk`, otherwise it responds with an `ErrorResponse`.

AuthenticationSCMCredential

This response is only possible for local Unix-domain connections on platforms that support SCM credential messages. The frontend must issue an SCM credential message and then send a single data byte. (The contents of the data byte are uninteresting; it's only used to ensure that the server waits long enough to receive the credential message.) If the credential is acceptable, the server responds with an `AuthenticationOk`, otherwise it responds with an `ErrorResponse`.

If the frontend does not support the authentication method requested by the server, then it should immediately close the connection.

After having received `AuthenticationOk`, the frontend must wait for further messages from the server. In this phase a backend process is being started, and the frontend is just an interested bystander. It is still possible for the startup attempt to fail (`ErrorResponse`), but in the normal case the backend will send some `ParameterStatus` messages, `BackendKeyData`, and finally `ReadyForQuery`.

During this phase the backend will attempt to apply any additional run-time parameter settings that were given in the startup message. If successful, these values become session defaults. An error causes `ErrorResponse` and exit.

The possible messages from the backend in this phase are:

BackendKeyData

This message provides secret-key data that the frontend must save if it wants to be able to issue cancel requests later. The frontend should not respond to this message, but should continue listening for a `ReadyForQuery` message.

ParameterStatus

This message informs the frontend about the current (initial) setting of backend parameters, such as `client_encoding` or `DateStyle`. The frontend may ignore this message, or record the settings for its future use; see Section 42.2.6 for more details. The frontend should not respond to this message, but should continue listening for a `ReadyForQuery` message.

ReadyForQuery

Start-up is completed. The frontend may now issue commands.

ErrorResponse

Start-up failed. The connection is closed after sending this message.

NoticeResponse

A warning message has been issued. The frontend should display the message but continue listening for ReadyForQuery or ErrorResponse.

The ReadyForQuery message is the same one that the backend will issue after each command cycle. Depending on the coding needs of the frontend, it is reasonable to consider ReadyForQuery as starting a command cycle, or to consider ReadyForQuery as ending the start-up phase and each subsequent command cycle.

42.2.2. Simple Query

A simple query cycle is initiated by the frontend sending a Query message to the backend. The message includes an SQL command (or commands) expressed as a text string. The backend then sends one or more response messages depending on the contents of the query command string, and finally a ReadyForQuery response message. ReadyForQuery informs the frontend that it may safely send a new command. (It is not actually necessary for the frontend to wait for ReadyForQuery before issuing another command, but the frontend must then take responsibility for figuring out what happens if the earlier command fails and already-issued later commands succeed.)

The possible response messages from the backend are:

CommandComplete

An SQL command completed normally.

CopyInResponse

The backend is ready to copy data from the frontend to a table; see Section 42.2.5.

CopyOutResponse

The backend is ready to copy data from a table to the frontend; see Section 42.2.5.

RowDescription

Indicates that rows are about to be returned in response to a SELECT, FETCH, etc query. The contents of this message describe the column layout of the rows. This will be followed by a DataRow message for each row being returned to the frontend.

DataRow

One of the set of rows returned by a SELECT, FETCH, etc query.

EmptyQueryResponse

An empty query string was recognized.

ErrorResponse

An error has occurred.

ReadyForQuery

Processing of the query string is complete. A separate message is sent to indicate this because the query string may contain multiple SQL commands. (CommandComplete marks the end of processing one SQL command, not the whole string.) ReadyForQuery will always be sent, whether processing terminates successfully or with an error.

NoticeResponse

A warning message has been issued in relation to the query. Notices are in addition to other responses, i.e., the backend will continue processing the command.

The response to a `SELECT` query (or other queries that return row sets, such as `EXPLAIN` or `SHOW`) normally consists of `RowDescription`, zero or more `DataRow` messages, and then `CommandComplete`. `COPY` to or from the frontend invokes special protocol as described in Section 42.2.5. All other query types normally produce only a `CommandComplete` message.

Since a query string could contain several queries (separated by semicolons), there might be several such response sequences before the backend finishes processing the query string. `ReadyForQuery` is issued when the entire string has been processed and the backend is ready to accept a new query string.

If a completely empty (no contents other than whitespace) query string is received, the response is `EmptyQueryResponse` followed by `ReadyForQuery`.

In the event of an error, `ErrorResponse` is issued followed by `ReadyForQuery`. All further processing of the query string is aborted by `ErrorResponse` (even if more queries remained in it). Note that this may occur partway through the sequence of messages generated by an individual query.

In simple Query mode, the format of retrieved values is always text, except when the given command is a `FETCH` from a cursor declared with the `BINARY` option. In that case, the retrieved values are in binary format. The format codes given in the `RowDescription` message tell which format is being used.

A frontend must be prepared to accept `ErrorResponse` and `NoticeResponse` messages whenever it is expecting any other type of message. See also Section 42.2.6 concerning messages that the backend may generate due to outside events.

Recommended practice is to code frontends in a state-machine style that will accept any message type at any time that it could make sense, rather than wiring in assumptions about the exact sequence of messages.

42.2.3. Extended Query

The extended query protocol breaks down the above-described simple query protocol into multiple steps. The results of preparatory steps can be re-used multiple times for improved efficiency. Furthermore, additional features are available, such as the possibility of supplying data values as separate parameters instead of having to insert them directly into a query string.

In the extended protocol, the frontend first sends a `Parse` message, which contains a textual query string, optionally some information about data types of parameter placeholders, and the name of a destination

prepared-statement object (an empty string selects the unnamed prepared statement). The response is either `ParseComplete` or `ErrorResponse`. Parameter data types may be specified by `OID`; if not given, the parser attempts to infer the data types in the same way as it would do for untyped literal string constants.

Note: The query string contained in a `Parse` message cannot include more than one SQL statement; else a syntax error is reported. This restriction does not exist in the simple-query protocol, but it does exist in the extended protocol, because allowing prepared statements or portals to contain multiple commands would complicate the protocol unduly.

If successfully created, a named prepared-statement object lasts till the end of the current session, unless explicitly destroyed. An unnamed prepared statement lasts only until the next `Parse` statement specifying the unnamed statement as destination is issued. (Note that a simple `Query` message also destroys the unnamed statement.) Named prepared statements must be explicitly closed before they can be redefined by a `Parse` message, but this is not required for the unnamed statement. Named prepared statements can also be created and accessed at the SQL command level, using `PREPARE` and `EXECUTE`.

Once a prepared statement exists, it can be readied for execution using a `Bind` message. The `Bind` message gives the name of the source prepared statement (empty string denotes the unnamed prepared statement), the name of the destination portal (empty string denotes the unnamed portal), and the values to use for any parameter placeholders present in the prepared statement. The supplied parameter set must match those needed by the prepared statement. `Bind` also specifies the format to use for any data returned by the query; the format can be specified overall, or per-column. The response is either `BindComplete` or `ErrorResponse`.

Note: The choice between text and binary output is determined by the format codes given in `Bind`, regardless of the SQL command involved. The `BINARY` attribute in cursor declarations is irrelevant when using extended query protocol.

Query planning for named prepared-statement objects occurs when the `Parse` message is received. If a query will be repeatedly executed with different parameters, it may be beneficial to send a single `Parse` message containing a parameterized query, followed by multiple `Bind` and `Execute` messages. This will avoid replanning the query on each execution.

The unnamed prepared statement is likewise planned during `Parse` processing if the `Parse` message defines no parameters. But if there are parameters, query planning is delayed until the first `Bind` message for the statement is received. The planner will consider the actual values of the parameters provided in the `Bind` message when planning the query.

Note: Query plans generated from a parameterized query may be less efficient than query plans generated from an equivalent query with actual parameter values substituted. The query planner cannot make decisions based on actual parameter values (for example, index selectivity) when planning a parameterized query assigned to a named prepared-statement object. This possible penalty is avoided when using the unnamed statement, since it is not planned until actual parameter values are available.

If a second or subsequent `Bind` referencing the unnamed prepared-statement object is received without an intervening `Parse`, the query is not replanned. The parameter values used in the first `Bind` message may produce a query plan that is only efficient for a subset of possible parameter values. To force replanning of the query for a fresh set of parameters, send another `Parse` message to replace the unnamed prepared-statement object.

If successfully created, a named portal object lasts till the end of the current transaction, unless explicitly destroyed. An unnamed portal is destroyed at the end of the transaction, or as soon as the next Bind statement specifying the unnamed portal as destination is issued. (Note that a simple Query message also destroys the unnamed portal.) Named portals must be explicitly closed before they can be redefined by a Bind message, but this is not required for the unnamed portal. Named portals can also be created and accessed at the SQL command level, using `DECLARE CURSOR` and `FETCH`.

Once a portal exists, it can be executed using an Execute message. The Execute message specifies the portal name (empty string denotes the unnamed portal) and a maximum result-row count (zero meaning “fetch all rows”). The result-row count is only meaningful for portals containing commands that return row sets; in other cases the command is always executed to completion, and the row count is ignored. The possible responses to Execute are the same as those described above for queries issued via simple query protocol, except that Execute doesn’t cause ReadyForQuery or RowDescription to be issued.

If Execute terminates before completing the execution of a portal (due to reaching a nonzero result-row count), it will send a PortalSuspended message; the appearance of this message tells the frontend that another Execute should be issued against the same portal to complete the operation. The CommandComplete message indicating completion of the source SQL command is not sent until the portal’s execution is completed. Therefore, an Execute phase is always terminated by the appearance of exactly one of these messages: CommandComplete, EmptyQueryResponse (if the portal was created from an empty query string), ErrorResponse, or PortalSuspended.

At completion of each series of extended-query messages, the frontend should issue a Sync message. This parameterless message causes the backend to close the current transaction if it’s not inside a BEGIN/COMMIT transaction block (“close” meaning to commit if no error, or roll back if error). Then a ReadyForQuery response is issued. The purpose of Sync is to provide a resynchronization point for error recovery. When an error is detected while processing any extended-query message, the backend issues ErrorResponse, then reads and discards messages until a Sync is reached, then issues ReadyForQuery and returns to normal message processing. (But note that no skipping occurs if an error is detected *while* processing Sync — this ensures that there is one and only one ReadyForQuery sent for each Sync.)

Note: Sync does not cause a transaction block opened with `BEGIN` to be closed. It is possible to detect this situation since the ReadyForQuery message includes transaction status information.

In addition to these fundamental, required operations, there are several optional operations that can be used with extended-query protocol.

The Describe message (portal variant) specifies the name of an existing portal (or an empty string for the unnamed portal). The response is a RowDescription message describing the rows that will be returned by executing the portal; or a NoData message if the portal does not contain a query that will return rows; or ErrorResponse if there is no such portal.

The Describe message (statement variant) specifies the name of an existing prepared statement (or an empty string for the unnamed prepared statement). The response is a ParameterDescription message describing the parameters needed by the statement, followed by a RowDescription message describing the rows that will be returned when the statement is eventually executed (or a NoData message if the statement will not return rows). ErrorResponse is issued if there is no such prepared statement. Note that since Bind

has not yet been issued, the formats to be used for returned columns are not yet known to the backend; the format code fields in the RowDescription message will be zeroes in this case.

Tip: In most scenarios the frontend should issue one or the other variant of Describe before issuing Execute, to ensure that it knows how to interpret the results it will get back.

The Close message closes an existing prepared statement or portal and releases resources. It is not an error to issue Close against a nonexistent statement or portal name. The response is normally CloseComplete, but could be ErrorResponse if some difficulty is encountered while releasing resources. Note that closing a prepared statement implicitly closes any open portals that were constructed from that statement.

The Flush message does not cause any specific output to be generated, but forces the backend to deliver any data pending in its output buffers. A Flush must be sent after any extended-query command except Sync, if the frontend wishes to examine the results of that command before issuing more commands. Without Flush, messages returned by the backend will be combined into the minimum possible number of packets to minimize network overhead.

Note: The simple Query message is approximately equivalent to the series Parse, Bind, portal Describe, Execute, Close, Sync, using the unnamed prepared statement and portal objects and no parameters. One difference is that it will accept multiple SQL statements in the query string, automatically performing the bind/describe/execute sequence for each one in succession. Another difference is that it will not return ParseComplete, BindComplete, CloseComplete, or NoData messages.

42.2.4. Function Call

The Function Call sub-protocol allows the client to request a direct call of any function that exists in the database's `pg_proc` system catalog. The client must have execute permission for the function.

Note: The Function Call sub-protocol is a legacy feature that is probably best avoided in new code. Similar results can be accomplished by setting up a prepared statement that does `SELECT function($1, ...)`. The Function Call cycle can then be replaced with Bind/Execute.

A Function Call cycle is initiated by the frontend sending a FunctionCall message to the backend. The backend then sends one or more response messages depending on the results of the function call, and finally a ReadyForQuery response message. ReadyForQuery informs the frontend that it may safely send a new query or function call.

The possible response messages from the backend are:

ErrorResponse

An error has occurred.

FunctionCallResponse

The function call was completed and returned the result given in the message. (Note that the Function Call protocol can only handle a single scalar result, not a row type or set of results.)

ReadyForQuery

Processing of the function call is complete. ReadyForQuery will always be sent, whether processing terminates successfully or with an error.

NoticeResponse

A warning message has been issued in relation to the function call. Notices are in addition to other responses, i.e., the backend will continue processing the command.

42.2.5. COPY Operations

The COPY command allows high-speed bulk data transfer to or from the server. Copy-in and copy-out operations each switch the connection into a distinct sub-protocol, which lasts until the operation is completed.

Copy-in mode (data transfer to the server) is initiated when the backend executes a COPY FROM STDIN SQL statement. The backend sends a CopyInResponse message to the frontend. The frontend should then send zero or more CopyData messages, forming a stream of input data. (The message boundaries are not required to have anything to do with row boundaries, although that is often a reasonable choice.) The frontend can terminate the copy-in mode by sending either a CopyDone message (allowing successful termination) or a CopyFail message (which will cause the COPY SQL statement to fail with an error). The backend then reverts to the command-processing mode it was in before the COPY started, which will be either simple or extended query protocol. It will next send either CommandComplete (if successful) or ErrorResponse (if not).

In the event of a backend-detected error during copy-in mode (including receipt of a CopyFail message), the backend will issue an ErrorResponse message. If the COPY command was issued via an extended-query message, the backend will now discard frontend messages until a Sync message is received, then it will issue ReadyForQuery and return to normal processing. If the COPY command was issued in a simple Query message, the rest of that message is discarded and ReadyForQuery is issued. In either case, any subsequent CopyData, CopyDone, or CopyFail messages issued by the frontend will simply be dropped.

The backend will ignore Flush and Sync messages received during copy-in mode. Receipt of any other non-copy message type constitutes an error that will abort the copy-in state as described above. (The exception for Flush and Sync is for the convenience of client libraries that always send Flush or Sync after an Execute message, without checking whether the command to be executed is a COPY FROM STDIN.)

Copy-out mode (data transfer from the server) is initiated when the backend executes a COPY TO STDOUT SQL statement. The backend sends a CopyOutResponse message to the frontend, followed by zero or more CopyData messages (always one per row), followed by CopyDone. The backend then reverts to the command-processing mode it was in before the COPY started, and sends CommandComplete. The frontend cannot abort the transfer (except by closing the connection or issuing a Cancel request), but it can discard unwanted CopyData and CopyDone messages.

In the event of a backend-detected error during copy-out mode, the backend will issue an ErrorResponse message and revert to normal processing. The frontend should treat receipt of ErrorResponse (or indeed any message type other than CopyData or CopyDone) as terminating the copy-out mode.

The `CopyInResponse` and `CopyOutResponse` messages include fields that inform the frontend of the number of columns per row and the format codes being used for each column. (As of the present implementation, all columns in a given `COPY` operation will use the same format, but the message design does not assume this.)

42.2.6. Asynchronous Operations

There are several cases in which the backend will send messages that are not specifically prompted by the frontend's command stream. Frontends must be prepared to deal with these messages at any time, even when not engaged in a query. At minimum, one should check for these cases before beginning to read a query response.

It is possible for `NoticeResponse` messages to be generated due to outside activity; for example, if the database administrator commands a “fast” database shutdown, the backend will send a `NoticeResponse` indicating this fact before closing the connection. Accordingly, frontends should always be prepared to accept and display `NoticeResponse` messages, even when the connection is nominally idle.

`ParameterStatus` messages will be generated whenever the active value changes for any of the parameters the backend believes the frontend should know about. Most commonly this occurs in response to a `SET SQL` command executed by the frontend, and this case is effectively synchronous — but it is also possible for parameter status changes to occur because the administrator changed a configuration file and then sent the `SIGHUP` signal to the postmaster. Also, if a `SET` command is rolled back, an appropriate `ParameterStatus` message will be generated to report the current effective value.

At present there is a hard-wired set of parameters for which `ParameterStatus` will be generated: they are `server_version`, `server_encoding`, `client_encoding`, `is_superuser`, `session_authorization`, `DateStyle`, `TimeZone`, and `integer_datetimes`. (`server_encoding`, `TimeZone`, and `integer_datetimes` were not reported by releases before 8.0.) Note that `server_version`, `server_encoding` and `integer_datetimes` are pseudo-parameters that cannot change after startup. This set might change in the future, or even become configurable. Accordingly, a frontend should simply ignore `ParameterStatus` for parameters that it does not understand or care about.

If a frontend issues a `LISTEN` command, then the backend will send a `NotificationResponse` message (not to be confused with `NoticeResponse`!) whenever a `NOTIFY` command is executed for the same notification name.

Note: At present, `NotificationResponse` can only be sent outside a transaction, and thus it will not occur in the middle of a command-response series, though it may occur just before `ReadyForQuery`. It is unwise to design frontend logic that assumes that, however. Good practice is to be able to accept `NotificationResponse` at any point in the protocol.

42.2.7. Cancelling Requests in Progress

During the processing of a query, the frontend may request cancellation of the query. The cancel request is not sent directly on the open connection to the backend for reasons of implementation efficiency: we don't want to have the backend constantly checking for new input from the frontend during query processing. Cancel requests should be relatively infrequent, so we make them slightly cumbersome in order to avoid a penalty in the normal case.

To issue a cancel request, the frontend opens a new connection to the server and sends a `CancelRequest` message, rather than the `StartupMessage` message that would ordinarily be sent across a new connection. The server will process this request and then close the connection. For security reasons, no direct reply is made to the cancel request message.

A `CancelRequest` message will be ignored unless it contains the same key data (PID and secret key) passed to the frontend during connection start-up. If the request matches the PID and secret key for a currently executing backend, the processing of the current query is aborted. (In the existing implementation, this is done by sending a special signal to the backend process that is processing the query.)

The cancellation signal may or may not have any effect — for example, if it arrives after the backend has finished processing the query, then it will have no effect. If the cancellation is effective, it results in the current command being terminated early with an error message.

The upshot of all this is that for reasons of both security and efficiency, the frontend has no direct way to tell whether a cancel request has succeeded. It must continue to wait for the backend to respond to the query. Issuing a cancel simply improves the odds that the current query will finish soon, and improves the odds that it will fail with an error message instead of succeeding.

Since the cancel request is sent across a new connection to the server and not across the regular frontend/backend communication link, it is possible for the cancel request to be issued by any process, not just the frontend whose query is to be canceled. This may have some benefits of flexibility in building multiple-process applications. It also introduces a security risk, in that unauthorized persons might try to cancel queries. The security risk is addressed by requiring a dynamically generated secret key to be supplied in cancel requests.

42.2.8. Termination

The normal, graceful termination procedure is that the frontend sends a `Terminate` message and immediately closes the connection. On receipt of this message, the backend closes the connection and terminates.

In rare cases (such as an administrator-commanded database shutdown) the backend may disconnect without any frontend request to do so. In such cases the backend will attempt to send an error or notice message giving the reason for the disconnection before it closes the connection.

Other termination scenarios arise from various failure cases, such as core dump at one end or the other, loss of the communications link, loss of message-boundary synchronization, etc. If either frontend or backend sees an unexpected closure of the connection, it should clean up and terminate. The frontend has the option of launching a new backend by recontacting the server if it doesn't want to terminate itself. Closing the connection is also advisable if an unrecognizable message type is received, since this probably indicates loss of message-boundary sync.

For either normal or abnormal termination, any open transaction is rolled back, not committed. One should note however that if a frontend disconnects while a non-`SELECT` query is being processed, the backend will probably finish the query before noticing the disconnection. If the query is outside any transaction block (`BEGIN ... COMMIT` sequence) then its results may be committed before the disconnection is recognized.

42.2.9. SSL Session Encryption

If PostgreSQL was built with SSL support, frontend/backend communications can be encrypted using SSL. This provides communication security in environments where attackers might be able to capture the

session traffic. For more information on encrypting PostgreSQL sessions with SSL, see Section 16.7.

To initiate an SSL-encrypted connection, the frontend initially sends an `SSLRequest` message rather than a `StartupMessage`. The server then responds with a single byte containing `S` or `N`, indicating that it is willing or unwilling to perform SSL, respectively. The frontend may close the connection at this point if it is dissatisfied with the response. To continue after `S`, perform an SSL startup handshake (not described here, part of the SSL specification) with the server. If this is successful, continue with sending the usual `StartupMessage`. In this case the `StartupMessage` and all subsequent data will be SSL-encrypted. To continue after `N`, send the usual `StartupMessage` and proceed without encryption.

The frontend should also be prepared to handle an `ErrorMessage` response to `SSLRequest` from the server. This would only occur if the server predates the addition of SSL support to PostgreSQL. In this case the connection must be closed, but the frontend may choose to open a fresh connection and proceed without requesting SSL.

An initial `SSLRequest` may also be used in a connection that is being opened to send a `CancelRequest` message.

While the protocol itself does not provide a way for the server to force SSL encryption, the administrator may configure the server to reject unencrypted sessions as a byproduct of authentication checking.

42.3. Message Data Types

This section describes the base data types used in messages.

`Intr(i)`

An n -bit integer in network byte order (most significant byte first). If i is specified it is the exact value that will appear, otherwise the value is variable. Eg. `Int16`, `Int32(42)`.

`Intr[k]`

An array of k n -bit integers, each in network byte order. The array length k is always determined by an earlier field in the message. Eg. `Int16[M]`.

`String(s)`

A null-terminated string (C-style string). There is no specific length limitation on strings. If s is specified it is the exact value that will appear, otherwise the value is variable. Eg. `String`, `String("user")`.

Note: *There is no predefined limit* on the length of a string that can be returned by the backend. Good coding strategy for a frontend is to use an expandable buffer so that anything that fits in memory can be accepted. If that's not feasible, read the full string and discard trailing characters that don't fit into your fixed-size buffer.

`Byten(c)`

Exactly n bytes. If the field width n is not a constant, it is always determinable from an earlier field in the message. If c is specified it is the exact value. Eg. `Byte2`, `Byte1('\n')`.

42.4. Message Formats

This section describes the detailed format of each message. Each is marked to indicate that it may be sent by a frontend (F), a backend (B), or both (F & B). Notice that although each message includes a byte count at the beginning, the message format is defined so that the message end can be found without reference to the byte count. This aids validity checking. (The CopyData message is an exception, because it forms part of a data stream; the contents of any individual CopyData message may not be interpretable on their own.)

AuthenticationOk (B)

Byte1('R')

Identifies the message as an authentication request.

Int32(8)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32(0)

Specifies that the authentication was successful.

AuthenticationKerberosV4 (B)

Byte1('R')

Identifies the message as an authentication request.

Int32(8)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32(1)

Specifies that Kerberos V4 authentication is required.

AuthenticationKerberosV5 (B)

Byte1('R')

Identifies the message as an authentication request.

Int32(8)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32(2)

Specifies that Kerberos V5 authentication is required.

AuthenticationCleartextPassword (B)

Byte1('R')

Identifies the message as an authentication request.

Int32(8)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32(3)

Specifies that a clear-text password is required.

AuthenticationCryptPassword (B)

Byte1('R')

Identifies the message as an authentication request.

Int32(10)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32(4)

Specifies that a crypt()-encrypted password is required.

Byte2

The salt to use when encrypting the password.

AuthenticationMD5Password (B)

Byte1('R')

Identifies the message as an authentication request.

Int32(12)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32(5)

Specifies that an MD5-encrypted password is required.

Byte4

The salt to use when encrypting the password.

AuthenticationSCMCredential (B)

Byte1('R')

Identifies the message as an authentication request.

Int32(8)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32(6)

Specifies that an SCM credentials message is required.

BackendKeyData (B)

Byte1('K')

Identifies the message as cancellation key data. The frontend must save these values if it wishes to be able to issue CancelRequest messages later.

Int32(12)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32

The process ID of this backend.

Int32

The secret key of this backend.

Bind (F)

Byte1('B')

Identifies the message as a Bind command.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

String

The name of the destination portal (an empty string selects the unnamed portal).

String

The name of the source prepared statement (an empty string selects the unnamed prepared statement).

Int16

The number of parameter format codes that follow (denoted C below). This can be zero to indicate that there are no parameters or that the parameters all use the default format (text); or one, in which case the specified format code is applied to all parameters; or it can equal the actual number of parameters.

Int16[C]

The parameter format codes. Each must presently be zero (text) or one (binary).

Int16

The number of parameter values that follow (possibly zero). This must match the number of parameters needed by the query.

Next, the following pair of fields appear for each parameter:

Int32

The length of the parameter value, in bytes (this count does not include itself). Can be zero. As a special case, -1 indicates a NULL parameter value. No value bytes follow in the NULL case.

Byte n

The value of the parameter, in the format indicated by the associated format code. n is the above length.

After the last parameter, the following fields appear:

Int16

The number of result-column format codes that follow (denoted R below). This can be zero to indicate that there are no result columns or that the result columns should all use the default format (text); or one, in which case the specified format code is applied to all result columns (if any); or it can equal the actual number of result columns of the query.

Int16[R]

The result-column format codes. Each must presently be zero (text) or one (binary).

BindComplete (B)**Byte1('2')**

Identifies the message as a Bind-complete indicator.

Int32(4)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

CancelRequest (F)

Int32(16)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32(80877102)

The cancel request code. The value is chosen to contain 1234 in the most significant 16 bits, and 5678 in the least 16 significant bits. (To avoid confusion, this code must not be the same as any protocol version number.)

Int32

The process ID of the target backend.

Int32

The secret key for the target backend.

Close (F)

Byte1('C')

Identifies the message as a Close command.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Byte1

'S' to close a prepared statement; or 'P' to close a portal.

String

The name of the prepared statement or portal to close (an empty string selects the unnamed prepared statement or portal).

CloseComplete (B)

Byte1('3')

Identifies the message as a Close-complete indicator.

Int32(4)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

CommandComplete (B)

Byte1('C')

Identifies the message as a command-completed response.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

String

The command tag. This is usually a single word that identifies which SQL command was completed.

For an `INSERT` command, the tag is `INSERT oid rows`, where `rows` is the number of rows inserted. `oid` is the object ID of the inserted row if `rows` is 1 and the target table has OIDs; otherwise `oid` is 0.

For a `DELETE` command, the tag is `DELETE rows` where `rows` is the number of rows deleted.

For an `UPDATE` command, the tag is `UPDATE rows` where `rows` is the number of rows updated.

For a `MOVE` command, the tag is `MOVE rows` where `rows` is the number of rows the cursor's position has been changed by.

For a `FETCH` command, the tag is `FETCH rows` where `rows` is the number of rows that have been retrieved from the cursor.

CopyData (F & B)

Byte1('d')

Identifies the message as `COPY` data.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Byten

Data that forms part of a `COPY` data stream. Messages sent from the backend will always correspond to single data rows, but messages sent by frontends may divide the data stream arbitrarily.

CopyDone (F & B)

Byte1('c')

Identifies the message as a `COPY`-complete indicator.

Int32(4)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

CopyFail (F)

Byte1('f')

Identifies the message as a COPY-failure indicator.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

String

An error message to report as the cause of failure.

CopyInResponse (B)

Byte1('G')

Identifies the message as a Start Copy In response. The frontend must now send copy-in data (if not prepared to do so, send a CopyFail message).

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int8

0 indicates the overall COPY format is textual (rows separated by newlines, columns separated by separator characters, etc). 1 indicates the overall copy format is binary (similar to DataRow format). See COPY for more information.

Int16

The number of columns in the data to be copied (denoted N below).Int16[N]

The format codes to be used for each column. Each must presently be zero (text) or one (binary). All must be zero if the overall copy format is textual.

CopyOutResponse (B)

Byte1('H')

Identifies the message as a Start Copy Out response. This message will be followed by copy-out data.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int8

0 indicates the overall COPY format is textual (rows separated by newlines, columns separated by separator characters, etc). 1 indicates the overall copy format is binary (similar to DataRow format). See *COPY* for more information.

Int16

The number of columns in the data to be copied (denoted *N* below).

Int16[*N*]

The format codes to be used for each column. Each must presently be zero (text) or one (binary). All must be zero if the overall copy format is textual.

DataRow (B)

Byte1('D')

Identifies the message as a data row.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int16

The number of column values that follow (possibly zero).

Next, the following pair of fields appear for each column:

Int32

The length of the column value, in bytes (this count does not include itself). Can be zero. As a special case, -1 indicates a NULL column value. No value bytes follow in the NULL case.

Byte n

The value of the column, in the format indicated by the associated format code. n is the above length.

Describe (F)

Byte1('D')

Identifies the message as a Describe command.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Byte1

'S' to describe a prepared statement; or 'P' to describe a portal.

String

The name of the prepared statement or portal to describe (an empty string selects the unnamed prepared statement or portal).

EmptyQueryResponse (B)

Byte1('I')

Identifies the message as a response to an empty query string. (This substitutes for Command-Complete.)

Int32(4)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

ErrorResponse (B)

Byte1('E')

Identifies the message as an error.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

The message body consists of one or more identified fields, followed by a zero byte as a terminator. Fields may appear in any order. For each field there is the following:

Byte1

A code identifying the field type; if zero, this is the message terminator and no string follows. The presently defined field types are listed in Section 42.5. Since more field types may be added in future, frontends should silently ignore fields of unrecognized type.

String

The field value.

Execute (F)

Byte1('E')

Identifies the message as an Execute command.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

String

The name of the portal to execute (an empty string selects the unnamed portal).

Int32

Maximum number of rows to return, if portal contains a query that returns rows (ignored otherwise). Zero denotes “no limit”.

Flush (F)

Byte1('H')

Identifies the message as a Flush command.

Int32(4)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

FunctionCall (F)

Byte1('F')

Identifies the message as a function call.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32

Specifies the object ID of the function to call.

Int16

The number of argument format codes that follow (denoted *C* below). This can be zero to indicate that there are no arguments or that the arguments all use the default format (text); or one, in which case the specified format code is applied to all arguments; or it can equal the actual number of arguments.

Int16[C]

The argument format codes. Each must presently be zero (text) or one (binary).

Int16

Specifies the number of arguments being supplied to the function.

Next, the following pair of fields appear for each argument:

Int32

The length of the argument value, in bytes (this count does not include itself). Can be zero. As a special case, -1 indicates a NULL argument value. No value bytes follow in the NULL case.

Byten

The value of the argument, in the format indicated by the associated format code. *n* is the above length.

After the last argument, the following field appears:

Int16

The format code for the function result. Must presently be zero (text) or one (binary).

FunctionCallResponse (B)

Byte1('V')

Identifies the message as a function call result.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32

The length of the function result value, in bytes (this count does not include itself). Can be zero. As a special case, -1 indicates a NULL function result. No value bytes follow in the NULL case.

Byten

The value of the function result, in the format indicated by the associated format code. *n* is the above length.

NoData (B)

Byte1('n')

Identifies the message as a no-data indicator.

Int32(4)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

NoticeResponse (B)

Byte1('N')

Identifies the message as a notice.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

The message body consists of one or more identified fields, followed by a zero byte as a terminator. Fields may appear in any order. For each field there is the following:

Byte1

A code identifying the field type; if zero, this is the message terminator and no string follows. The presently defined field types are listed in Section 42.5. Since more field types may be added in future, frontends should silently ignore fields of unrecognized type.

String

The field value.

NotificationResponse (B)

Byte1('A')

Identifies the message as a notification response.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32

The process ID of the notifying backend process.

String

The name of the condition that the notify has been raised on.

String

Additional information passed from the notifying process. (Currently, this feature is unimplemented so the field is always an empty string.)

ParameterDescription (B)

Byte1('t')

Identifies the message as a parameter description.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int16

The number of parameters used by the statement (may be zero).

Then, for each parameter, there is the following:

Int32

Specifies the object ID of the parameter data type.

ParameterStatus (B)

Byte1('S')

Identifies the message as a run-time parameter status report.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

String

The name of the run-time parameter being reported.

String

The current value of the parameter.

Parse (F)

Byte1('P')

Identifies the message as a Parse command.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

String

The name of the destination prepared statement (an empty string selects the unnamed prepared statement).

String

The query string to be parsed.

Int16

The number of parameter data types specified (may be zero). Note that this is not an indication of the number of parameters that might appear in the query string, only the number that the frontend wants to prespecify types for.

Then, for each parameter, there is the following:

Int32

Specifies the object ID of the parameter data type. Placing a zero here is equivalent to leaving the type unspecified.

ParseComplete (B)

Byte1('1')

Identifies the message as a Parse-complete indicator.

Int32(4)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

PasswordMessage (F)

Byte1('p')

Identifies the message as a password response.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

String

The password (encrypted, if requested).

PortalSuspended (B)

Byte1('s')

Identifies the message as a portal-suspended indicator. Note this only appears if an Execute message's row-count limit was reached.

Int32(4)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Query (F)

Byte1('Q')

Identifies the message as a simple query.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

String

The query string itself.

ReadyForQuery (B)

Byte1('Z')

Identifies the message type. ReadyForQuery is sent whenever the backend is ready for a new query cycle.

Int32(5)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Byte1

Current backend transaction status indicator. Possible values are 'I' if idle (not in a transaction block); 'T' if in a transaction block; or 'E' if in a failed transaction block (queries will be rejected until block is ended).

RowDescription (B)

Byte1('T')

Identifies the message as a row description.

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int16

Specifies the number of fields in a row (may be zero).

Then, for each field, there is the following:

String

The field name.

Int32

If the field can be identified as a column of a specific table, the object ID of the table; otherwise zero.

Int16

If the field can be identified as a column of a specific table, the attribute number of the column; otherwise zero.

Int32

The object ID of the field's data type.

Int16

The data type size (see `pg_type.typelen`). Note that negative values denote variable-width types.

Int32

The type modifier (see `pg_attribute.atttypmod`). The meaning of the modifier is type-specific.

Int16

The format code being used for the field. Currently will be zero (text) or one (binary). In a RowDescription returned from the statement variant of Describe, the format code is not yet known and will always be zero.

SSLRequest (F)

Int32(8)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32(80877103)

The SSL request code. The value is chosen to contain 1234 in the most significant 16 bits, and 5679 in the least 16 significant bits. (To avoid confusion, this code must not be the same as any protocol version number.)

StartupMessage (F)

Int32

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Int32(196608)

The protocol version number. The most significant 16 bits are the major version number (3 for the protocol described here). The least significant 16 bits are the minor version number (0 for the protocol described here).

The protocol version number is followed by one or more pairs of parameter name and value strings. A zero byte is required as a terminator after the last name/value pair. Parameters can appear in any order. `user` is required, others are optional. Each parameter is specified as:

String

The parameter name. Currently recognized names are:

`user`

The database user name to connect as. Required; there is no default.

database

The database to connect to. Defaults to the user name.

options

Command-line arguments for the backend. (This is deprecated in favor of setting individual run-time parameters.)

In addition to the above, any run-time parameter that can be set at backend start time may be listed. Such settings will be applied during backend start (after parsing the command-line options if any). The values will act as session defaults.

String

The parameter value.

Sync (F)

Byte1('S')

Identifies the message as a Sync command.

Int32(4)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

Terminate (F)

Byte1('X')

Identifies the message as a termination.

Int32(4)

Length of message contents in bytes, including self.

42.5. Error and Notice Message Fields

This section describes the fields that may appear in ErrorResponse and NoticeResponse messages. Each field type has a single-byte identification token. Note that any given field type should appear at most once per message.

S

Severity: the field contents are `ERROR`, `FATAL`, or `PANIC` (in an error message), or `WARNING`, `NOTICE`, `DEBUG`, `INFO`, or `LOG` (in a notice message), or a localized translation of one of these. Always present.

C

Code: the `SQLSTATE` code for the error (see Appendix A). Not localizable. Always present.

M

Message: the primary human-readable error message. This should be accurate but terse (typically one line). Always present.

D

Detail: an optional secondary error message carrying more detail about the problem. May run to multiple lines.

H

Hint: an optional suggestion what to do about the problem. This is intended to differ from Detail in that it offers advice (potentially inappropriate) rather than hard facts. May run to multiple lines.

P

Position: the field value is a decimal ASCII integer, indicating an error cursor position as an index into the original query string. The first character has index 1, and positions are measured in characters not bytes.

P

Internal position: this is defined the same as the `P` field, but it is used when the cursor position refers to an internally generated command rather than the one submitted by the client. The `q` field will always appear when this field appears.

q

Internal query: the text of a failed internally-generated command. This could be, for example, a SQL query issued by a PL/pgSQL function.

W

Where: an indication of the context in which the error occurred. Presently this includes a call stack traceback of active procedural language functions and internally-generated queries. The trace is one entry per line, most recent first.

F

File: the file name of the source-code location where the error was reported.

L

Line: the line number of the source-code location where the error was reported.

R

Routine: the name of the source-code routine reporting the error.

The client is responsible for formatting displayed information to meet its needs; in particular it should break long lines as needed. Newline characters appearing in the error message fields should be treated as paragraph breaks, not line breaks.

42.6. Summary of Changes since Protocol 2.0

This section provides a quick checklist of changes, for the benefit of developers trying to update existing client libraries to protocol 3.0.

The initial startup packet uses a flexible list-of-strings format instead of a fixed format. Notice that session default values for run-time parameters can now be specified directly in the startup packet. (Actually, you could do that before using the `options` field, but given the limited width of `options` and the lack of any way to quote whitespace in the values, it wasn't a very safe technique.)

All messages now have a length count immediately following the message type byte (except for startup packets, which have no type byte). Also note that `PasswordMessage` now has a type byte.

`ErrorResponse` and `NoticeResponse` ('E' and 'N') messages now contain multiple fields, from which the client code may assemble an error message of the desired level of verbosity. Note that individual fields will typically not end with a newline, whereas the single string sent in the older protocol always did.

The `ReadyForQuery` ('Z') message includes a transaction status indicator.

The distinction between `BinaryRow` and `DataRow` message types is gone; the single `DataRow` message type serves for returning data in all formats. Note that the layout of `DataRow` has changed to make it easier to parse. Also, the representation of binary values has changed: it is no longer directly tied to the server's internal representation.

There is a new "extended query" sub-protocol, which adds the frontend message types `Parse`, `Bind`, `Execute`, `Describe`, `Close`, `Flush`, and `Sync`, and the backend message types `ParseComplete`, `BindComplete`, `PortalSuspended`, `ParameterDescription`, `NoData`, and `CloseComplete`. Existing clients do not have to concern themselves with this sub-protocol, but making use of it may allow improvements in performance or functionality.

`COPY` data is now encapsulated into `CopyData` and `CopyDone` messages. There is a well-defined way to recover from errors during `COPY`. The special "\." last line is not needed anymore, and is not sent during `COPY OUT`. (It is still recognized as a terminator during `COPY IN`, but its use is deprecated and will eventually be removed.) Binary `COPY` is supported. The `CopyInResponse` and `CopyOutResponse` messages include fields indicating the number of columns and the format of each column.

The layout of `FunctionCall` and `FunctionCallResponse` messages has changed. `FunctionCall` can now support passing `NULL` arguments to functions. It also can handle passing parameters and retrieving results in either text or binary format. There is no longer any reason to consider `FunctionCall` a potential security hole, since it does not offer direct access to internal server data representations.

The backend sends `ParameterStatus` ('S') messages during connection startup for all parameters it considers interesting to the client library. Subsequently, a `ParameterStatus` message is sent whenever the active value changes for any of these parameters.

The `RowDescription` ('T') message carries new table OID and column number fields for each column of the described row. It also shows the format code for each column.

The `CursorResponse` ('P') message is no longer generated by the backend.

The NotificationResponse ('A') message has an additional string field, which is presently empty but may someday carry additional data passed from the NOTIFY event sender.

The EmptyQueryResponse ('I') message used to include an empty string parameter; this has been removed.

Chapter 43. PostgreSQL Coding Conventions

43.1. Formatting

Source code formatting uses 4 column tab spacing, with tabs preserved (i.e. tabs are not expanded to spaces). Each logical indentation level is one additional tab stop. Layout rules (brace positioning, etc) follow BSD conventions.

While submitted patches do not absolutely have to follow these formatting rules, it's a good idea to do so. Your code will get run through `pgindent`, so there's no point in making it look nice under some other set of formatting conventions.

For Emacs, add the following (or something similar) to your `~/.emacs` initialization file:

```
;; check for files with a path containing "postgres" or "pgsql"
(setq auto-mode-alist
      (cons '("\\(postgres\\|pgsql\\).*\\.\\(ch\\)" . pgsql-c-mode)
            auto-mode-alist))
(setq auto-mode-alist
      (cons '("\\(postgres\\|pgsql\\).*\\.cc\\)" . pgsql-c-mode)
            auto-mode-alist))

(defun pgsql-c-mode ()
  ;; sets up formatting for PostgreSQL C code
  (interactive)
  (c-mode)
  (setq-default tab-width 4)
  (c-set-style "bsd")           ; set c-basic-offset to 4, plus other stuff
  (c-set-offset 'case-label '+) ; tweak case indent to match PG custom
  (setq indent-tabs-mode t))   ; make sure we keep tabs when indenting
```

For vi, your `~/.vimrc` or equivalent file should contain the following:

```
set tabstop=4
```

or equivalently from within vi, try

```
:set ts=4
```

The text browsing tools `more` and `less` can be invoked as

```
more -x4
less -x4
```

to make them show tabs appropriately.

43.2. Reporting Errors Within the Server

Error, warning, and log messages generated within the server code should be created using `ereport`, or its older cousin `elog`. The use of this function is complex enough to require some explanation.

There are two required elements for every message: a severity level (ranging from `DEBUG` to `PANIC`) and a primary message text. In addition there are optional elements, the most common of which is an error identifier code that follows the SQL spec's `SQLSTATE` conventions. `ereport` itself is just a shell function, that exists mainly for the syntactic convenience of making message generation look like a function call in the C source code. The only parameter accepted directly by `ereport` is the severity level. The primary message text and any optional message elements are generated by calling auxiliary functions, such as `errmsg`, within the `ereport` call.

A typical call to `ereport` might look like this:

```
ereport(ERROR,
        (errmsg(ERRCODE_DIVISION_BY_ZERO),
         errmsg("division by zero")));
```

This specifies error severity level `ERROR` (a run-of-the-mill error). The `errmsg` call specifies the `SQLSTATE` error code using a macro defined in `src/include/utils/errcodes.h`. The `errmsg` call provides the primary message text. Notice the extra set of parentheses surrounding the auxiliary function calls — these are annoying but syntactically necessary.

Here is a more complex example:

```
ereport(ERROR,
        (errmsg(ERRCODE_AMBIGUOUS_FUNCTION),
         errmsg("function %s is not unique",
                func_signature_string(funcname, nargs,
                                     actual_arg_types)),
         errhint("Unable to choose a best candidate function. "
                 "You may need to add explicit typecasts.")));
```

This illustrates the use of format codes to embed run-time values into a message text. Also, an optional “hint” message is provided.

The available auxiliary routines for `ereport` are:

- `errmsg(sqlerrcode)` specifies the `SQLSTATE` error identifier code for the condition. If this routine is not called, the error identifier defaults to `ERRCODE_INTERNAL_ERROR` when the error severity level is `ERROR` or higher, `ERRCODE_WARNING` when the error level is `WARNING`, otherwise (for `NOTICE` and below) `ERRCODE_SUCCESSFUL_COMPLETION`. While these defaults are often convenient, always think whether they are appropriate before omitting the `errmsg()` call.
- `errmsg(const char *msg, ...)` specifies the primary error message text, and possibly run-time values to insert into it. Insertions are specified by `sprintf`-style format codes. In addition to the standard format codes accepted by `sprintf`, the format code `%m` can be used to insert the error message returned by `strerror` for the current value of `errno`.¹ `%m` does not require any corresponding entry in

1. That is, the value that was current when the `ereport` call was reached; changes of `errno` within the auxiliary reporting routines will not affect it. That would not be true if you were to write `strerror(errno)` explicitly in `errmsg`'s parameter list; accordingly, do not do so.

the parameter list for `errmsg`. Note that the message string will be run through `gettext` for possible localization before format codes are processed.

- `errmsg_internal(const char *msg, ...)` is the same as `errmsg`, except that the message string will not be included in the internationalization message dictionary. This should be used for “can’t happen” cases that are probably not worth expending translation effort on.
- `errdetail(const char *msg, ...)` supplies an optional “detail” message; this is to be used when there is additional information that seems inappropriate to put in the primary message. The message string is processed in just the same way as for `errmsg`.
- `errhint(const char *msg, ...)` supplies an optional “hint” message; this is to be used when offering suggestions about how to fix the problem, as opposed to factual details about what went wrong. The message string is processed in just the same way as for `errmsg`.
- `errcontext(const char *msg, ...)` is not normally called directly from an `ereport` message site; rather it is used in `error_context_stack` callback functions to provide information about the context in which an error occurred, such as the current location in a PL function. The message string is processed in just the same way as for `errmsg`. Unlike the other auxiliary functions, this can be called more than once per `ereport` call; the successive strings thus supplied are concatenated with separating newlines.
- `errposition(int cursorpos)` specifies the textual location of an error within a query string. Currently it is only useful for errors detected in the lexical and syntactic analysis phases of query processing.
- `errcode_for_file_access()` is a convenience function that selects an appropriate SQLSTATE error identifier for a failure in a file-access-related system call. It uses the saved `errno` to determine which error code to generate. Usually this should be used in combination with `%m` in the primary error message text.
- `errcode_for_socket_access()` is a convenience function that selects an appropriate SQLSTATE error identifier for a failure in a socket-related system call.

There is an older function `eelog` that is still heavily used. An `eelog` call

```
eelog(level, "format string", ...);
```

is exactly equivalent to

```
ereport(level, (errmsg_internal("format string", ...)));
```

Notice that the SQLSTATE `errcode` is always defaulted, and the message string is not included in the internationalization message dictionary. Therefore, `eelog` should be used only for internal errors and low-level debug logging. Any message that is likely to be of interest to ordinary users should go through `ereport`. Nonetheless, there are enough internal “can’t happen” error checks in the system that `eelog` is still widely used; it is preferred for those messages for its notational simplicity.

Advice about writing good error messages can be found in Section 43.3.

43.3. Error Message Style Guide

This style guide is offered in the hope of maintaining a consistent, user-friendly style throughout all the messages generated by PostgreSQL.

43.3.1. What goes where

The primary message should be short, factual, and avoid reference to implementation details such as specific function names. “Short” means “should fit on one line under normal conditions”. Use a detail message if needed to keep the primary message short, or if you feel a need to mention implementation details such as the particular system call that failed. Both primary and detail messages should be factual. Use a hint message for suggestions about what to do to fix the problem, especially if the suggestion might not always be applicable.

For example, instead of

```
IpMemoryCreate: shmget(key=%d, size=%u, 0%o) failed: %m
(plus a long addendum that is basically a hint)
```

write

```
Primary:    could not create shared memory segment: %m
Detail:    Failed syscall was shmget(key=%d, size=%u, 0%o).
Hint:      the addendum
```

Rationale: keeping the primary message short helps keep it to the point, and lets clients lay out screen space on the assumption that one line is enough for error messages. Detail and hint messages may be relegated to a verbose mode, or perhaps a pop-up error-details window. Also, details and hints would normally be suppressed from the server log to save space. Reference to implementation details is best avoided since users don’t know the details anyway.

43.3.2. Formatting

Don’t put any specific assumptions about formatting into the message texts. Expect clients and the server log to wrap lines to fit their own needs. In long messages, newline characters (`\n`) may be used to indicate suggested paragraph breaks. Don’t end a message with a newline. Don’t use tabs or other formatting characters. (In error context displays, newlines are automatically added to separate levels of context such as function calls.)

Rationale: Messages are not necessarily displayed on terminal-type displays. In GUI displays or browsers these formatting instructions are at best ignored.

43.3.3. Quotation marks

English text should use double quotes when quoting is appropriate. Text in other languages should consistently use one kind of quotes that is consistent with publishing customs and computer output of other programs.

Rationale: The choice of double quotes over single quotes is somewhat arbitrary, but tends to be the preferred use. Some have suggested choosing the kind of quotes depending on the type of object according to SQL conventions (namely, strings single quoted, identifiers double quoted). But this is a language-internal technical issue that many users aren't even familiar with, it won't scale to other kinds of quoted terms, it doesn't translate to other languages, and it's pretty pointless, too.

43.3.4. Use of quotes

Use quotes always to delimit file names, user-supplied identifiers, and other variables that might contain words. Do not use them to mark up variables that will not contain words (for example, operator names).

There are functions in the backend that will double-quote their own output at need (for example, `format_type_be()`). Do not put additional quotes around the output of such functions.

Rationale: Objects can have names that create ambiguity when embedded in a message. Be consistent about denoting where a plugged-in name starts and ends. But don't clutter messages with unnecessary or duplicate quote marks.

43.3.5. Grammar and punctuation

The rules are different for primary error messages and for detail/hint messages:

Primary error messages: Do not capitalize the first letter. Do not end a message with a period. Do not even think about ending a message with an exclamation point.

Detail and hint messages: Use complete sentences, and end each with a period. Capitalize the first word of sentences.

Rationale: Avoiding punctuation makes it easier for client applications to embed the message into a variety of grammatical contexts. Often, primary messages are not grammatically complete sentences anyway. (And if they're long enough to be more than one sentence, they should be split into primary and detail parts.) However, detail and hint messages are longer and may need to include multiple sentences. For consistency, they should follow complete-sentence style even when there's only one sentence.

43.3.6. Upper case vs. lower case

Use lower case for message wording, including the first letter of a primary error message. Use upper case for SQL commands and key words if they appear in the message.

Rationale: It's easier to make everything look more consistent this way, since some messages are complete sentences and some not.

43.3.7. Avoid passive voice

Use the active voice. Use complete sentences when there is an acting subject ("A could not do B"). Use telegram style without subject if the subject would be the program itself; do not use "I" for the program.

Rationale: The program is not human. Don't pretend otherwise.

43.3.8. Present vs past tense

Use past tense if an attempt to do something failed, but could perhaps succeed next time (perhaps after fixing some problem). Use present tense if the failure is certainly permanent.

There is a nontrivial semantic difference between sentences of the form

```
could not open file "%s": %m
```

and

```
cannot open file "%s"
```

The first one means that the attempt to open the file failed. The message should give a reason, such as “disk full” or “file doesn’t exist”. The past tense is appropriate because next time the disk might not be full anymore or the file in question may exist.

The second form indicates the the functionality of opening the named file does not exist at all in the program, or that it’s conceptually impossible. The present tense is appropriate because the condition will persist indefinitely.

Rationale: Granted, the average user will not be able to draw great conclusions merely from the tense of the message, but since the language provides us with a grammar we should use it correctly.

43.3.9. Type of the object

When citing the name of an object, state what kind of object it is.

Rationale: Otherwise no one will know what “foo.bar.baz” refers to.

43.3.10. Brackets

Square brackets are only to be used (1) in command synopses to denote optional arguments, or (2) to denote an array subscript.

Rationale: Anything else does not correspond to widely-known customary usage and will confuse people.

43.3.11. Assembling error messages

When a message includes text that is generated elsewhere, embed it in this style:

```
could not open file %s: %m
```

Rationale: It would be difficult to account for all possible error codes to paste this into a single smooth sentence, so some sort of punctuation is needed. Putting the embedded text in parentheses has also been suggested, but it’s unnatural if the embedded text is likely to be the most important part of the message, as is often the case.

43.3.12. Reasons for errors

Messages should always state the reason why an error occurred. For example:

```
BAD:    could not open file %s
BETTER: could not open file %s (I/O failure)
```

If no reason is known you better fix the code.

43.3.13. Function names

Don't include the name of the reporting routine in the error text. We have other mechanisms for finding that out when needed, and for most users it's not helpful information. If the error text doesn't make as much sense without the function name, reword it.

```
BAD:    pg_atoi: error in "z": can't parse "z"
BETTER: invalid input syntax for integer: "z"
```

Avoid mentioning called function names, either; instead say what the code was trying to do:

```
BAD:    open() failed: %m
BETTER: could not open file %s: %m
```

If it really seems necessary, mention the system call in the detail message. (In some cases, providing the actual values passed to the system call might be appropriate information for the detail message.)

Rationale: Users don't know what all those functions do.

43.3.14. Tricky words to avoid

Unable. “Unable” is nearly the passive voice. Better use “cannot” or “could not”, as appropriate.

Bad. Error messages like “bad result” are really hard to interpret intelligently. It's better to write why the result is “bad”, e.g., “invalid format”.

Illegal. “Illegal” stands for a violation of the law, the rest is “invalid”. Better yet, say why it's invalid.

Unknown. Try to avoid “unknown”. Consider “error: unknown response”. If you don't know what the response is, how do you know it's erroneous? “Unrecognized” is often a better choice. Also, be sure to include the value being complained of.

```
BAD:    unknown node type
BETTER: unrecognized node type: 42
```

Find vs. Exists. If the program uses a nontrivial algorithm to locate a resource (e.g., a path search) and that algorithm fails, it is fair to say that the program couldn't “find” the resource. If, on the other hand, the expected location of the resource is known but the program cannot access it there then say that the resource doesn't “exist”. Using “find” in this case sounds weak and confuses the issue.

43.3.15. Proper spelling

Spell out words in full. For instance, avoid:

- spec
- stats
- parens
- auth
- xact

Rationale: This will improve consistency.

43.3.16. Localization

Keep in mind that error message texts need to be translated into other languages. Follow the guidelines in Section 44.2.2 to avoid making life difficult for translators.

Chapter 44. Native Language Support

Peter Eisentraut

44.1. For the Translator

PostgreSQL programs (server and client) can issue their messages in your favorite language — if the messages have been translated. Creating and maintaining translated message sets needs the help of people who speak their own language well and want to contribute to the PostgreSQL effort. You do not have to be a programmer at all to do this. This section explains how to help.

44.1.1. Requirements

We won't judge your language skills — this section is about software tools. Theoretically, you only need a text editor. But this is only in the unlikely event that you do not want to try out your translated messages. When you configure your source tree, be sure to use the `--enable-nls` option. This will also check for the `libintl` library and the `msgfmt` program, which all end users will need anyway. To try out your work, follow the applicable portions of the installation instructions.

If you want to start a new translation effort or want to do a message catalog merge (described later), you will need the programs `xgettext` and `msgmerge`, respectively, in a GNU-compatible implementation. Later, we will try to arrange it so that if you use a packaged source distribution, you won't need `xgettext`. (From CVS, you will still need it.) GNU Gettext 0.10.36 or later is currently recommended.

Your local `gettext` implementation should come with its own documentation. Some of that is probably duplicated in what follows, but for additional details you should look there.

44.1.2. Concepts

The pairs of original (English) messages and their (possibly) translated equivalents are kept in *message catalogs*, one for each program (although related programs can share a message catalog) and for each target language. There are two file formats for message catalogs: The first is the “PO” file (for Portable Object), which is a plain text file with special syntax that translators edit. The second is the “MO” file (for Machine Object), which is a binary file generated from the respective PO file and is used while the internationalized program is run. Translators do not deal with MO files; in fact hardly anyone does.

The extension of the message catalog file is to no surprise either `.po` or `.mo`. The base name is either the name of the program it accompanies, or the language the file is for, depending on the situation. This is a bit confusing. Examples are `psql.po` (PO file for `psql`) or `fr.mo` (MO file in French).

The file format of the PO files is illustrated here:

```
# comment

msgid "original string"
msgstr "translated string"
```

```
msgid "more original"
msgstr "another translated"
"string can be broken up like this"

...
```

The `msgid`'s are extracted from the program source. (They need not be, but this is the most common way.) The `msgstr` lines are initially empty and are filled in with useful strings by the translator. The strings can contain C-style escape characters and can be continued across lines as illustrated. (The next line must start at the beginning of the line.)

The `#` character introduces a comment. If whitespace immediately follows the `#` character, then this is a comment maintained by the translator. There may also be automatic comments, which have a non-whitespace character immediately following the `#`. These are maintained by the various tools that operate on the PO files and are intended to aid the translator.

```
#. automatic comment
#: filename.c:1023
#, flags, flags
```

The `#.` style comments are extracted from the source file where the message is used. Possibly the programmer has inserted information for the translator, such as about expected alignment. The `#:` comment indicates the exact location(s) where the message is used in the source. The translator need not look at the program source, but he can if there is doubt about the correct translation. The `#,` comments contain flags that describe the message in some way. There are currently two flags: `fuzzy` is set if the message has possibly been outdated because of changes in the program source. The translator can then verify this and possibly remove the fuzzy flag. Note that fuzzy messages are not made available to the end user. The other flag is `c-format`, which indicates that the message is a `printf`-style format template. This means that the translation should also be a format string with the same number and type of placeholders. There are tools that can verify this, which key off the `c-format` flag.

44.1.3. Creating and maintaining message catalogs

OK, so how does one create a “blank” message catalog? First, go into the directory that contains the program whose messages you want to translate. If there is a file `nls.mk`, then this program has been prepared for translation.

If there are already some `.po` files, then someone has already done some translation work. The files are named `language.po`, where `language` is the ISO 639-1¹ two-letter language code (in lower case), e.g., `fr.po` for French. If there is really a need for more than one translation effort per language then the files may also be named `language_region.po` where `region` is the ISO 3166-1² two-letter country code (in upper case), e.g., `pt_BR.po` for Portuguese in Brazil. If you find the language you wanted you can just start working on that file.

If you need to start a new translation effort, then first run the command

```
gmake init-po
```

-
1. <http://lcweb.loc.gov/standards/iso639-2/englangn.html>
 2. http://www.din.de/gremien/nas/nabd/iso3166ma/codlstp1/en_listp1.html

This will create a file `progname.pot`. (`.pot` to distinguish it from PO files that are “in production”. The `T` stands for “template”.) Copy this file to `language.po` and edit it. To make it known that the new language is available, also edit the file `nls.mk` and add the language (or language and country) code to the line that looks like:

```
AVAIL_LANGUAGES := de fr
```

(Other languages may appear, of course.)

As the underlying program or library changes, messages may be changed or added by the programmers. In this case you do not need to start from scratch. Instead, run the command

```
gmake update-po
```

which will create a new blank message catalog file (the `pot` file you started with) and will merge it with the existing PO files. If the merge algorithm is not sure about a particular message it marks it “fuzzy” as explained above. For the case where something went really wrong, the old PO file is saved with a `.po.old` extension.

44.1.4. Editing the PO files

The PO files can be edited with a regular text editor. The translator should only change the area between the quotes after the `msgstr` directive, may add comments and alter the fuzzy flag. There is (unsurprisingly) a PO mode for Emacs, which I find quite useful.

The PO files need not be completely filled in. The software will automatically fall back to the original string if no translation (or an empty translation) is available. It is no problem to submit incomplete translations for inclusions in the source tree; that gives room for other people to pick up your work. However, you are encouraged to give priority to removing fuzzy entries after doing a merge. Remember that fuzzy entries will not be installed; they only serve as reference what might be the right translation.

Here are some things to keep in mind while editing the translations:

- Make sure that if the original ends with a newline, the translation does, too. Similarly for tabs, etc.
- If the original is a `printf` format string, the translation also needs to be. The translation also needs to have the same format specifiers in the same order. Sometimes the natural rules of the language make this impossible or at least awkward. In that case you can modify the format specifiers like this:

```
msgstr "Die Datei %2$s hat %1$u Zeichen."
```

Then the first placeholder will actually use the second argument from the list. The `digits$` needs to follow the `%` immediately, before any other format manipulators. (This feature really exists in the `printf` family of functions. You may not have heard of it before because there is little use for it outside of message internationalization.)

- If the original string contains a linguistic mistake, report that (or fix it yourself in the program source) and translate normally. The corrected string can be merged in when the program sources have been updated. If the original string contains a factual mistake, report that (or fix it yourself) and do not translate it. Instead, you may mark the string with a comment in the PO file.

- Maintain the style and tone of the original string. Specifically, messages that are not sentences (`cannot open file %s`) should probably not start with a capital letter (if your language distinguishes letter case) or end with a period (if your language uses punctuation marks). It may help to read Section 43.3.
- If you don't know what a message means, or if it is ambiguous, ask on the developers' mailing list. Chances are that English speaking end users might also not understand it or find it ambiguous, so it's best to improve the message.

44.2. For the Programmer

44.2.1. Mechanics

This section describes how to implement native language support in a program or library that is part of the PostgreSQL distribution. Currently, it only applies to C programs.

Adding NLS support to a program

1. Insert this code into the start-up sequence of the program:

```
#ifdef ENABLE_NLS
#include <locale.h>
#endif

...

#ifdef ENABLE_NLS
setlocale(LC_ALL, "");
bindtextdomain("prognam", LOCALEDIR);
textdomain("prognam");
#endif
```

(The *prognam* can actually be chosen freely.)

2. Wherever a message that is a candidate for translation is found, a call to `gettext()` needs to be inserted. E.g.,

```
fprintf(stderr, "panic level %d\n", lvl);
```

would be changed to

```
fprintf(stderr, gettext("panic level %d\n"), lvl);
```

(`gettext` is defined as a no-op if no NLS is configured.)

This may tend to add a lot of clutter. One common shortcut is to use

```
#define _(x) gettext(x)
```

Another solution is feasible if the program does much of its communication through one or a few functions, such as `ereport()` in the backend. Then you make this function call `gettext` internally on all input strings.

3. Add a file `nls.mk` in the directory with the program sources. This file will be read as a makefile. The following variable assignments need to be made here:

CATALOG_NAME

The program name, as provided in the `textdomain()` call.

AVAIL_LANGUAGES

List of provided translations — initially empty.

GETTEXT_FILES

List of files that contain translatable strings, i.e., those marked with `gettext` or an alternative solution. Eventually, this will include nearly all source files of the program. If this list gets too long you can make the first “file” be a `+` and the second word be a file that contains one file name per line.

GETTEXT_TRIGGERS

The tools that generate message catalogs for the translators to work on need to know what function calls contain translatable strings. By default, only `gettext()` calls are known. If you used `_` or other identifiers you need to list them here. If the translatable string is not the first argument, the item needs to be of the form `func:2` (for the second argument).

The build system will automatically take care of building and installing the message catalogs.

44.2.2. Message-writing guidelines

Here are some guidelines for writing messages that are easily translatable.

- Do not construct sentences at run-time, like

```
printf("Files were %s.\n", flag ? "copied" : "removed");
```

The word order within the sentence may be different in other languages. Also, even if you remember to call `gettext()` on each fragment, the fragments may not translate well separately. It’s better to duplicate a little code so that each message to be translated is a coherent whole. Only numbers, file names, and such-like run-time variables should be inserted at runtime into a message text.

- For similar reasons, this won’t work:

```
printf("copied %d file%s", n, n!=1 ? "s" : "");
```

because it assumes how the plural is formed. If you figured you could solve it like this

```
if (n==1)
    printf("copied 1 file");
else
    printf("copied %d files", n);
```

then be disappointed. Some languages have more than two forms, with some peculiar rules. We may have a solution for this in the future, but for now the matter is best avoided altogether. You could write:

```
printf("number of copied files: %d", n);
```

- If you want to communicate something to the translator, such as about how a message is intended to line up with other output, precede the occurrence of the string with a comment that starts with `translator`, e.g.,

```
/* translator: This message is not what it seems to be. */
```

These comments are copied to the message catalog files so that the translators can see them.

Chapter 45. Writing A Procedural Language Handler

All calls to functions that are written in a language other than the current “version 1” interface for compiled languages (this includes functions in user-defined procedural languages, functions written in SQL, and functions using the version 0 compiled language interface), go through a *call handler* function for the specific language. It is the responsibility of the call handler to execute the function in a meaningful way, such as by interpreting the supplied source text. This chapter outlines how a new procedural language’s call handler can be written.

The call handler for a procedural language is a “normal” function that must be written in a compiled language such as C, using the version-1 interface, and registered with PostgreSQL as taking no arguments and returning the type `language_handler`. This special pseudotype identifies the function as a call handler and prevents it from being called directly in SQL commands.

The call handler is called in the same way as any other function: It receives a pointer to a `FunctionCallInfoData` struct containing argument values and information about the called function, and it is expected to return a `Datum` result (and possibly set the `isnull` field of the `FunctionCallInfoData` structure, if it wishes to return an SQL null result). The difference between a call handler and an ordinary callee function is that the `flinfo->fn_oid` field of the `FunctionCallInfoData` structure will contain the OID of the actual function to be called, not of the call handler itself. The call handler must use this field to determine which function to execute. Also, the passed argument list has been set up according to the declaration of the target function, not of the call handler.

It’s up to the call handler to fetch the entry of the function from the system table `pg_proc` and to analyze the argument and return types of the called function. The `AS` clause from the `CREATE FUNCTION` command for the function will be found in the `prosrc` column of the `pg_proc` row. This is commonly source text in the procedural language, but in theory it could be something else, such as a path name to a file, or anything else that tells the call handler what to do in detail.

Often, the same function is called many times per SQL statement. A call handler can avoid repeated lookups of information about the called function by using the `flinfo->fn_extra` field. This will initially be `NULL`, but can be set by the call handler to point at information about the called function. On subsequent calls, if `flinfo->fn_extra` is already non-`NULL` then it can be used and the information lookup step skipped. The call handler must make sure that `flinfo->fn_extra` is made to point at memory that will live at least until the end of the current query, since an `FmgrInfo` data structure could be kept that long. One way to do this is to allocate the extra data in the memory context specified by `flinfo->fn_mcxt`; such data will normally have the same lifespan as the `FmgrInfo` itself. But the handler could also choose to use a longer-lived memory context so that it can cache function definition information across queries.

When a procedural-language function is invoked as a trigger, no arguments are passed in the usual way, but the `FunctionCallInfoData`’s `context` field points at a `TriggerData` structure, rather than being `NULL` as it is in a plain function call. A language handler should provide mechanisms for procedural-language functions to get at the trigger information.

This is a template for a procedural-language handler written in C:

```

#include "postgres.h"
#include "executor/spi.h"
#include "commands/trigger.h"
#include "fmgr.h"
#include "access/heapam.h"
#include "utils/syscache.h"
#include "catalog/pg_proc.h"
#include "catalog/pg_type.h"

PG_FUNCTION_INFO_V1(plsample_call_handler);

Datum
plsample_call_handler(PG_FUNCTION_ARGS)
{
    Datum          retval;

    if (CALLED_AS_TRIGGER(fcinfo))
    {
        /*
         * Called as a trigger procedure
         */
        TriggerData *trigdata = (TriggerData *) fcinfo->context;

        retval = ...
    }
    else
    {
        /*
         * Called as a function
         */

        retval = ...
    }

    return retval;
}

```

Only a few thousand lines of code have to be added instead of the dots to complete the call handler.

After having compiled the handler function into a loadable module (see Section 31.9.6), the following commands then register the sample procedural language:

```

CREATE FUNCTION plsample_call_handler() RETURNS language_handler
AS 'filename'
LANGUAGE C;
CREATE LANGUAGE plsample
HANDLER plsample_call_handler;

```

The procedural languages included in the standard distribution are good references when trying to write your own call handler. Look into the `src/pl` subdirectory of the source tree.

Chapter 46. Genetic Query Optimizer

Martin Utesch1997-10-02

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46.1. Query Handling as a Complex Optimization Problem

Among all relational operators the most difficult one to process and optimize is the *join*. The number of alternative plans to answer a query grows exponentially with the number of joins included in it. Further optimization effort is caused by the support of a variety of *join methods* (e.g., nested loop, hash join, merge join in PostgreSQL) to process individual joins and a diversity of *indexes* (e.g., R-tree, B-tree, hash in PostgreSQL) as access paths for relations.

The current PostgreSQL optimizer implementation performs a *near-exhaustive search* over the space of alternative strategies. This algorithm, first introduced in the “System R” database, produces a near-optimal join order, but can take an enormous amount of time and memory space when the number of joins in the query grows large. This makes the ordinary PostgreSQL query optimizer inappropriate for queries that join a large number of tables.

The Institute of Automatic Control at the University of Mining and Technology, in Freiberg, Germany, encountered the described problems as its folks wanted to take the PostgreSQL DBMS as the backend for a decision support knowledge based system for the maintenance of an electrical power grid. The DBMS needed to handle large join queries for the inference machine of the knowledge based system.

Performance difficulties in exploring the space of possible query plans created the demand for a new optimization technique to be developed.

In the following we describe the implementation of a *Genetic Algorithm* to solve the join ordering problem in a manner that is efficient for queries involving large numbers of joins.

46.2. Genetic Algorithms

The genetic algorithm (GA) is a heuristic optimization method which operates through nondeterministic, randomized search. The set of possible solutions for the optimization problem is considered as a *population of individuals*. The degree of adaptation of an individual to its environment is specified by its *fitness*.

is encoded by the integer string '4-1-3-2', which means, first join relation '4' and '1', then '3', and then '2', where 1, 2, 3, 4 are relation IDs within the PostgreSQL optimizer.

Parts of the GEQO module are adapted from D. Whitley's Genitor algorithm.

Specific characteristics of the GEQO implementation in PostgreSQL are:

- Usage of a *steady state* GA (replacement of the least fit individuals in a population, not whole-generational replacement) allows fast convergence towards improved query plans. This is essential for query handling with reasonable time;
- Usage of *edge recombination crossover* which is especially suited to keep edge losses low for the solution of the TSP by means of a GA;
- Mutation as genetic operator is deprecated so that no repair mechanisms are needed to generate legal TSP tours.

The GEQO module allows the PostgreSQL query optimizer to support large join queries effectively through non-exhaustive search.

46.3.1. Future Implementation Tasks for PostgreSQL GEQO

Work is still needed to improve the genetic algorithm parameter settings. In file `src/backend/optimizer/geqo/geqo_main.c`, routines `gimme_pool_size` and `gimme_number_generations`, we have to find a compromise for the parameter settings to satisfy two competing demands:

- Optimality of the query plan
- Computing time

At a more basic level, it is not clear that solving query optimization with a GA algorithm designed for TSP is appropriate. In the TSP case, the cost associated with any substring (partial tour) is independent of the rest of the tour, but this is certainly not true for query optimization. Thus it is questionable whether edge recombination crossover is the most effective mutation procedure.

46.4. Further Reading

The following resources contain additional information about genetic algorithms:

- The Hitch-Hiker's Guide to Evolutionary Computation¹ (FAQ for `comp.ai.genetic`²)
- Evolutionary Computation and its application to art and design³ by Craig Reynolds
- *Fundamentals of Database Systems*

1. <http://surf.de.uu.net/encore/www/>

2. <news://comp.ai.genetic>

3. <http://www.red3d.com/cwr/evolve.html>

- *The design and implementation of the POSTGRES query optimizer*

Chapter 47. Index Cost Estimation Functions

Author: Written by Tom Lane (<tgl@sss.pgh.pa.us>) on 2000-01-24

Note: This must eventually become part of a much larger chapter about writing new index access methods.

Every index access method must provide a cost estimation function for use by the planner/optimizer. The procedure OID of this function is given in the `amcostestimate` field of the access method's `pg_am` entry.

Note: Prior to PostgreSQL 7.0, a different scheme was used for registering index-specific cost estimation functions.

The `amcostestimate` function is given a list of `WHERE` clauses that have been determined to be usable with the index. It must return estimates of the cost of accessing the index and the selectivity of the `WHERE` clauses (that is, the fraction of main-table rows that will be retrieved during the index scan). For simple cases, nearly all the work of the cost estimator can be done by calling standard routines in the optimizer; the point of having an `amcostestimate` function is to allow index access methods to provide index-type-specific knowledge, in case it is possible to improve on the standard estimates.

Each `amcostestimate` function must have the signature:

```
void
amcostestimate (Query *root,
                RelOptInfo *rel,
                IndexOptInfo *index,
                List *indexQuals,
                Cost *indexStartupCost,
                Cost *indexTotalCost,
                Selectivity *indexSelectivity,
                double *indexCorrelation);
```

The first four parameters are inputs:

`root`

The query being processed.

rel

The relation the index is on.

index

The index itself.

indexQuals

List of index qual clauses (implicitly ANDed); a NIL list indicates no qualifiers are available.

The last four parameters are pass-by-reference outputs:

*indexStartupCost

Set to cost of index start-up processing

*indexTotalCost

Set to total cost of index processing

*indexSelectivity

Set to index selectivity

*indexCorrelation

Set to correlation coefficient between index scan order and underlying table's order

Note that cost estimate functions must be written in C, not in SQL or any available procedural language, because they must access internal data structures of the planner/optimizer.

The index access costs should be computed in the units used by `src/backend/optimizer/path/costsize.c`: a sequential disk block fetch has cost 1.0, a nonsequential fetch has cost `random_page_cost`, and the cost of processing one index row should usually be taken as `cpu_index_tuple_cost` (which is a user-adjustable optimizer parameter). In addition, an appropriate multiple of `cpu_operator_cost` should be charged for any comparison operators invoked during index processing (especially evaluation of the `indexQuals` themselves).

The access costs should include all disk and CPU costs associated with scanning the index itself, but NOT the costs of retrieving or processing the main-table rows that are identified by the index.

The “start-up cost” is the part of the total scan cost that must be expended before we can begin to fetch the first row. For most indexes this can be taken as zero, but an index type with a high start-up cost might want to set it nonzero.

The `indexSelectivity` should be set to the estimated fraction of the main table rows that will be retrieved during the index scan. In the case of a lossy index, this will typically be higher than the fraction of rows that actually pass the given qual conditions.

The `indexCorrelation` should be set to the correlation (ranging between -1.0 and 1.0) between the index order and the table order. This is used to adjust the estimate for the cost of fetching rows from the main table.

Cost Estimation

A typical cost estimator will proceed as follows:

1. Estimate and return the fraction of main-table rows that will be visited based on the given qual conditions. In the absence of any index-type-specific knowledge, use the standard optimizer function `clauselist_selectivity()`:

```
*indexSelectivity = clauselist_selectivity(root, indexQuals,
                                           rel->relid, JOIN_INNER);
```

2. Estimate the number of index rows that will be visited during the scan. For many index types this is the same as `indexSelectivity` times the number of rows in the index, but it might be more. (Note that the index's size in pages and rows is available from the `IndexOptInfo` struct.)
3. Estimate the number of index pages that will be retrieved during the scan. This might be just `indexSelectivity` times the index's size in pages.
4. Compute the index access cost. A generic estimator might do this:

```
/*
 * Our generic assumption is that the index pages will be read
 * sequentially, so they have cost 1.0 each, not random_page_cost.
 * Also, we charge for evaluation of the indexquals at each index row.
 * All the costs are assumed to be paid incrementally during the scan.
 */
cost_qual_eval(&index_qual_cost, indexQuals);
*indexStartupCost = index_qual_cost.startup;
*indexTotalCost = numIndexPages +
                  (cpu_index_tuple_cost + index_qual_cost.per_tuple) * numIndexTuples;
```

5. Estimate the index correlation. For a simple ordered index on a single field, this can be retrieved from `pg_statistic`. If the correlation is not known, the conservative estimate is zero (no correlation).

Examples of cost estimator functions can be found in `src/backend/utils/adt/selfuncs.c`.

By convention, the `pg_proc` entry for an `amcostestimate` function should show eight arguments all declared as `internal` (since none of them have types that are known to SQL), and the return type is `void`.

Chapter 48. GiST Indexes

48.1. Introduction

GiST stands for Generalized Search Tree. It is a balanced, tree-structured access method, that acts as a base template in which to implement arbitrary indexing schemes. B+-trees, R-trees and many other indexing schemes can be implemented in GiST.

One advantage of GiST is that it allows the development of custom data types with the appropriate access methods, by an expert in the domain of the data type, rather than a database expert.

Some of the information here is derived from the University of California at Berkeley's GiST Indexing Project web site¹ and Marcel Kornacker's thesis, Access Methods for Next-Generation Database Systems². The GiST implementation in PostgreSQL is primarily maintained by Teodor Sigaev and Oleg Bartunov, and there is more information on their website: <http://www.sai.msu.su/~megera/postgres/gist/>.

48.2. Extensibility

Traditionally, implementing a new index access method meant a lot of difficult work. It was necessary to understand the inner workings of the database, such as the lock manager and Write-Ahead Log. The GiST interface has a high level of abstraction, requiring the access method implementor to only implement the semantics of the data type being accessed. The GiST layer itself takes care of concurrency, logging and searching the tree structure.

This extensibility should not be confused with the extensibility of the other standard search trees in terms of the data they can handle. For example, PostgreSQL supports extensible B+-trees and R-trees. That means that you can use PostgreSQL to build a B+-tree or R-tree over any data type you want. But B+-trees only support range predicates ($<$, $=$, $>$), and R-trees only support n-D range queries (contains, contained, equals).

So if you index, say, an image collection with a PostgreSQL B+-tree, you can only issue queries such as “is imagex equal to imagey”, “is imagex less than imagey” and “is imagex greater than imagey”? Depending on how you define “equals”, “less than” and “greater than” in this context, this could be useful. However, by using a GiST based index, you could create ways to ask domain-specific questions, perhaps “find all images of horses” or “find all over-exposed images”.

All it takes to get a GiST access method up and running is to implement seven user-defined methods, which define the behavior of keys in the tree. Of course these methods have to be pretty fancy to support fancy queries, but for all the standard queries (B+-trees, R-trees, etc.) they're relatively straightforward. In short, GiST combines extensibility along with generality, code reuse, and a clean interface.

1. <http://gist.cs.berkeley.edu/>
2. <http://citeseer.nj.nec.com/448594.html>

48.3. Implementation

There are seven methods that an index operator class for GiST must provide:

`consistent`

Given a predicate `p` on a tree page, and a user query, `q`, this method will return false if it is certain that both `p` and `q` cannot be true for a given data item.

`union`

This method consolidates information in the tree. Given a set of entries, this function generates a new predicate that is true for all the entries.

`compress`

Converts the data item into a format suitable for physical storage in an index page.

`decompress`

The reverse of the `compress` method. Converts the index representation of the data item into a format that can be manipulated by the database.

`penalty`

Returns a value indicating the “cost” of inserting the new entry into a particular branch of the tree. Items will be inserted down the path of least `penalty` in the tree.

`picksplit`

When a page split is necessary, this function decides which entries on the page are to stay on the old page, and which are to move to the new page.

`same`

Returns true if two entries are identical, false otherwise.

48.4. Limitations

The current implementation of GiST within PostgreSQL has some major limitations: GiST access is not concurrent; the GiST interface doesn't allow the development of certain data types, such as digital trees (see papers by Aoki et al); and there is not yet any support for write-ahead logging of updates in GiST indexes.

Solutions to the concurrency problems appear in Marcel Kornacker's thesis; however these ideas have not yet been put into practice in the PostgreSQL implementation.

The lack of write-ahead logging is just a small matter of programming, but since it isn't done yet, a crash could render a GiST index inconsistent, forcing a REINDEX.

48.5. Examples

To see example implementations of index methods implemented using GiST, examine the following contrib modules:

btree_gist

B-Tree

cube

Indexing for multi-dimensional cubes

intarray

RD-Tree for one-dimensional array of int4 values

ltree

Indexing for tree-like structures

rtree_gist

R-Tree

seg

Storage and indexed access for “float ranges”

tsearch and tsearch2

Full text indexing

Chapter 49. Database Physical Storage

This chapter provides an overview of the physical storage format used by PostgreSQL databases.

49.1. Database File Layout

This section describes the storage format at the level of files and directories.

All the data needed for a database cluster is stored within the cluster's data directory, commonly referred to as PGDATA (after the name of the environment variable that can be used to define it). A common location for PGDATA is `/var/lib/pgsql/data`. Multiple clusters, managed by different postmasters, can exist on the same machine.

The PGDATA directory contains several subdirectories and control files, as shown in Table 49-1. In addition to these required items, the cluster configuration files `postgresql.conf`, `pg_hba.conf`, and `pg_ident.conf` are traditionally stored in PGDATA (although beginning in PostgreSQL 8.0 it is possible to keep them elsewhere).

Table 49-1. Contents of PGDATA

Item	Description
<code>PG_VERSION</code>	A file containing the major version number of PostgreSQL
<code>base</code>	Subdirectory containing per-database subdirectories
<code>global</code>	Subdirectory containing cluster-wide tables, such as <code>pg_database</code>
<code>pg_clog</code>	Subdirectory containing transaction commit status data
<code>pg_subtrans</code>	Subdirectory containing subtransaction status data
<code>pg_tblspc</code>	Subdirectory containing symbolic links to tablespaces
<code>pg_xlog</code>	Subdirectory containing WAL (Write Ahead Log) files
<code>postmaster.opts</code>	A file recording the command-line options the postmaster was last started with
<code>postmaster.pid</code>	A lock file recording the current postmaster PID and shared memory segment ID (not present after postmaster shutdown)

For each database in the cluster there is a subdirectory within `PGDATA/base`, named after the database's OID in `pg_database`. This subdirectory is the default location for the database's files; in particular, its system catalogs are stored there.

Each table and index is stored in a separate file, named after the table or index's *filenode* number, which

can be found in `pg_class.relfilenode`.

Caution

Note that while a table's filenode often matches its OID, this is *not* necessarily the case; some operations, like `TRUNCATE`, `REINDEX`, `CLUSTER` and some forms of `ALTER TABLE`, can change the filenode while preserving the OID. Avoid assuming that filenode and table OID are the same.

When a table or index exceeds 1Gb, it is divided into gigabyte-sized *segments*. The first segment's file name is the same as the filenode; subsequent segments are named `filenode.1`, `filenode.2`, etc. This arrangement avoids problems on platforms that have file size limitations. The contents of tables and indexes are discussed further in Section 49.3.

A table that has columns with potentially large entries will have an associated *TOAST* table, which is used for out-of-line storage of field values that are too large to keep in the table rows proper. `pg_class.reltoastrelid` links from a table to its TOAST table, if any. See Section 49.2 for more information.

Tablespaces make the scenario more complicated. Each user-defined tablespace has a symbolic link inside the `PGDATA/pg_tblspc` directory, which points to the physical tablespace directory (as specified in its `CREATE TABLESPACE` command). The symbolic link is named after the tablespace's OID. Inside the physical tablespace directory there is a subdirectory for each database that has elements in the tablespace, named after the database's OID. Tables within that directory follow the filenode naming scheme. The `pg_default` tablespace is not accessed through `pg_tblspc`, but corresponds to `PGDATA/base`. Similarly, the `pg_global` tablespace is not accessed through `pg_tblspc`, but corresponds to `PGDATA/global`.

49.2. TOAST

This section provides an overview of TOAST (The Oversized-Attribute Storage Technique).

Since PostgreSQL uses a fixed page size (commonly 8Kb), and does not allow tuples to span multiple pages, it's not possible to store very large field values directly. Before PostgreSQL 7.1 there was a hard limit of just under one page on the total amount of data that could be put into a table row. In release 7.1 and later, this limit is overcome by allowing large field values to be compressed and/or broken up into multiple physical rows. This happens transparently to the user, with only small impact on most of the backend code. The technique is affectionately known as TOAST (or “the best thing since sliced bread”).

Only certain data types support TOAST — there is no need to impose the overhead on data types that cannot produce large field values. To support TOAST, a data type must have a variable-length (*varlena*) representation, in which the first 32-bit word of any stored value contains the total length of the value in bytes (including itself). TOAST does not constrain the rest of the representation. All the C-level functions supporting a TOAST-able data type must be careful to handle TOASTed input values. (This is normally done by invoking `PG_DETOAST_DATUM` before doing anything with an input value; but in some cases more efficient approaches are possible.)

TOAST usurps the high-order two bits of the *varlena* length word, thereby limiting the logical size of any value of a TOAST-able data type to 1Gb (2^{30} - 1 bytes). When both bits are zero, the value is an ordinary un-TOASTed value of the data type. One of these bits, if set, indicates that the value has been compressed

and must be decompressed before use. The other bit, if set, indicates that the value has been stored out-of-line. In this case the remainder of the value is actually just a pointer, and the correct data has to be found elsewhere. When both bits are set, the out-of-line data has been compressed too. In each case the length in the low-order bits of the varlena word indicates the actual size of the datum, not the size of the logical value that would be extracted by decompression or fetching of the out-of-line data.

If any of the columns of a table are TOAST-able, the table will have an associated TOAST table, whose OID is stored in the table's `pg_class.reltoastrelid` entry. Out-of-line TOASTed values are kept in the TOAST table, as described in more detail below.

The compression technique used is a fairly simple and very fast member of the LZ family of compression techniques. See `src/backend/utils/adt/pg_lzcompress.c` for the details.

Out-of-line values are divided (after compression if used) into chunks of at most `TOAST_MAX_CHUNK_SIZE` bytes (this value is a little less than `BLCKSZ/4`, or about 2000 bytes by default). Each chunk is stored as a separate row in the TOAST table for the owning table. Every TOAST table has the columns `chunk_id` (an OID identifying the particular TOASTed value), `chunk_seq` (a sequence number for the chunk within its value), and `chunk_data` (the actual data of the chunk). A unique index on `chunk_id` and `chunk_seq` provides fast retrieval of the values. A pointer datum representing an out-of-line TOASTed value therefore needs to store the OID of the TOAST table in which to look and the OID of the specific value (its `chunk_id`). For convenience, pointer datums also store the logical datum size (original uncompressed data length) and actual stored size (different if compression was applied). Allowing for the varlena header word, the total size of a TOAST pointer datum is therefore 20 bytes regardless of the actual size of the represented value.

The TOAST code is triggered only when a row value to be stored in a table is wider than `BLCKSZ/4` bytes (normally 2Kb). The TOAST code will compress and/or move field values out-of-line until the row value is shorter than `BLCKSZ/4` bytes or no more gains can be had. During an UPDATE operation, values of unchanged fields are normally preserved as-is; so an UPDATE of a row with out-of-line values incurs no TOAST costs if none of the out-of-line values change.

The TOAST code recognizes four different strategies for storing TOAST-able columns:

- `PLAIN` prevents either compression or out-of-line storage. This is the only possible strategy for columns of non-TOAST-able data types.
- `EXTENDED` allows both compression and out-of-line storage. This is the default for most TOAST-able data types. Compression will be attempted first, then out-of-line storage if the row is still too big.
- `EXTERNAL` allows out-of-line storage but not compression. Use of `EXTERNAL` will make substring operations on wide `text` and `bytea` columns faster (at the penalty of increased storage space) because these operations are optimized to fetch only the required parts of the out-of-line value when it is not compressed.
- `MAIN` allows compression but not out-of-line storage. (Actually, out-of-line storage will still be performed for such columns, but only as a last resort when there is no other way to make the row small enough.)

Each TOAST-able data type specifies a default strategy for columns of that data type, but the strategy for a given table column can be altered with `ALTER TABLE SET STORAGE`.

This scheme has a number of advantages compared to a more straightforward approach such as allowing row values to span pages. Assuming that queries are usually qualified by comparisons against relatively small key values, most of the work of the executor will be done using the main row entry. The big values

of TOASTed attributes will only be pulled out (if selected at all) at the time the result set is sent to the client. Thus, the main table is much smaller and more of its rows fit in the shared buffer cache than would be the case without any out-of-line storage. Sort sets shrink also, and sorts will more often be done entirely in memory. A little test showed that a table containing typical HTML pages and their URLs was stored in about half of the raw data size including the TOAST table, and that the main table contained only about 10% of the entire data (the URLs and some small HTML pages). There was no runtime difference compared to an un-TOASTed comparison table, in which all the HTML pages were cut down to 7Kb to fit.

49.3. Database Page Layout

This section provides an overview of the page format used within PostgreSQL tables and indexes.¹ Sequences and TOAST tables are formatted just like a regular table.

In the following explanation, a *byte* is assumed to contain 8 bits. In addition, the term *item* refers to an individual data value that is stored on a page. In a table, an item is a row; in an index, an item is an index entry.

Every table and index is stored as an array of *pages* of a fixed size (usually 8Kb, although a different page size can be selected when compiling the server). In a table, all the pages are logically equivalent, so a particular item (row) can be stored in any page. In indexes, the first page is generally reserved as a *metapage* holding control information, and there may be different types of pages within the index, depending on the index access method.

Table 49-2 shows the overall layout of a page. There are five parts to each page.

Table 49-2. Overall Page Layout

Item	Description
PageHeaderData	20 bytes long. Contains general information about the page, including free space pointers.
ItemPointerData	Array of (offset,length) pairs pointing to the actual items. 4 bytes per item.
Free space	The unallocated space. New item pointers are allocated from the start of this area, new items from the end.
Items	The actual items themselves.
Special space	Index access method specific data. Different methods store different data. Empty in ordinary tables.

The first 20 bytes of each page consists of a page header (PageHeaderData). Its format is detailed in Table 49-3. The first two fields track the most recent WAL entry related to this page. They are followed by three 2-byte integer fields (`pd_lower`, `pd_upper`, and `pd_special`). These contain byte offsets from the page start to the start of unallocated space, to the end of unallocated space, and to the start of the special space. The last 2 bytes of the page header, `pd_pagesize_version`, store both the page size and

1. Actually, index access methods need not use this page format. All the existing index methods do use this basic format, but the data kept on index metapages usually doesn't follow the item layout rules.

a version indicator. Beginning with PostgreSQL 8.0 the version number is 2; PostgreSQL 7.3 and 7.4 used version number 1; prior releases used version number 0. (The basic page layout and header format has not changed in these versions, but the layout of heap row headers has.) The page size is basically only present as a cross-check; there is no support for having more than one page size in an installation.

Table 49-3. PageHeaderData Layout

Field	Type	Length	Description
pd_lsn	XLogRecPtr	8 bytes	LSN: next byte after last byte of xlog record for last change to this page
pd_tli	TimeLineID	4 bytes	TLI of last change
pd_lower	LocationIndex	2 bytes	Offset to start of free space
pd_upper	LocationIndex	2 bytes	Offset to end of free space
pd_special	LocationIndex	2 bytes	Offset to start of special space
pd_pagesize_version	uint16	2 bytes	Page size and layout version number information

All the details may be found in `src/include/storage/bufpage.h`.

Following the page header are item identifiers (`ItemIdData`), each requiring four bytes. An item identifier contains a byte-offset to the start of an item, its length in bytes, and a few attribute bits which affect its interpretation. New item identifiers are allocated as needed from the beginning of the unallocated space. The number of item identifiers present can be determined by looking at `pd_lower`, which is increased to allocate a new identifier. Because an item identifier is never moved until it is freed, its index may be used on a long-term basis to reference an item, even when the item itself is moved around on the page to compact free space. In fact, every pointer to an item (`ItemPointer`, also known as `CTID`) created by PostgreSQL consists of a page number and the index of an item identifier.

The items themselves are stored in space allocated backwards from the end of unallocated space. The exact structure varies depending on what the table is to contain. Tables and sequences both use a structure named `HeapTupleHeaderData`, described below.

The final section is the “special section” which may contain anything the access method wishes to store. For example, b-tree indexes store links to the page’s left and right siblings, as well as some other data relevant to the index structure. Ordinary tables do not use a special section at all (indicated by setting `pd_special` to equal the page size).

All table rows are structured in the same way. There is a fixed-size header (occupying 27 bytes on most machines), followed by an optional null bitmap, an optional object ID field, and the user data. The header is detailed in Table 49-4. The actual user data (columns of the row) begins at the offset indicated by `t_hoff`, which must always be a multiple of the `MAXALIGN` distance for the platform. The null bitmap is only present if the `HEAP_HASNULL` bit is set in `t_infomask`. If it is present it begins just after the fixed header and occupies enough bytes to have one bit per data column (that is, `t_natts` bits altogether). In this list of bits, a 1 bit indicates not-null, a 0 bit is a null. When the bitmap is not present, all columns

are assumed not-null. The object ID is only present if the *HEAP_HASOID* bit is set in *t_infomask*. If present, it appears just before the *t_hoff* boundary. Any padding needed to make *t_hoff* a MAXALIGN multiple will appear between the null bitmap and the object ID. (This in turn ensures that the object ID is suitably aligned.)

Table 49-4. HeapTupleHeaderData Layout

Field	Type	Length	Description
<i>t_xmin</i>	TransactionId	4 bytes	insert XID stamp
<i>t_cmin</i>	CommandId	4 bytes	insert CID stamp
<i>t_xmax</i>	TransactionId	4 bytes	delete XID stamp
<i>t_cmax</i>	CommandId	4 bytes	delete CID stamp (overlays with <i>t_xvac</i>)
<i>t_xvac</i>	TransactionId	4 bytes	XID for VACUUM operation moving a row version
<i>t_ctid</i>	ItemPointerData	6 bytes	current TID of this or newer row version
<i>t_natts</i>	int16	2 bytes	number of attributes
<i>t_infomask</i>	uint16	2 bytes	various flag bits
<i>t_hoff</i>	uint8	1 byte	offset to user data

All the details may be found in `src/include/access/htup.h`.

Interpreting the actual data can only be done with information obtained from other tables, mostly `pg_attribute`. The key values needed to identify field locations are `attlen` and `attalign`. There is no way to directly get a particular attribute, except when there are only fixed width fields and no NULLs. All this trickery is wrapped up in the functions `heap_getattr`, `fastgetattr` and `heap_getsysattr`.

To read the data you need to examine each attribute in turn. First check whether the field is NULL according to the null bitmap. If it is, go to the next. Then make sure you have the right alignment. If the field is a fixed width field, then all the bytes are simply placed. If it's a variable length field (`attlen = -1`) then it's a bit more complicated. All variable-length datatypes share the common header structure `varattrib`, which includes the total length of the stored value and some flag bits. Depending on the flags, the data may be either inline or in a TOAST table; it might be compressed, too (see Section 49.2).

Chapter 50. BKI Backend Interface

Backend Interface (BKI) files are scripts in a special language that is understood by the PostgreSQL backend when running in the “bootstrap” mode. The bootstrap mode allows system catalogs to be created and filled from scratch, whereas ordinary SQL commands require the catalogs to exist already. BKI files can therefore be used to create the database system in the first place. (And they are probably not useful for anything else.)

initdb uses a BKI file to do part of its job when creating a new database cluster. The input file used by initdb is created as part of building and installing PostgreSQL by a program named `genbki.sh`, which reads some specially formatted C header files in the `src/include/catalog/` directory of the source tree. The created BKI file is called `postgres.bki` and is normally installed in the `share` subdirectory of the installation tree.

Related information may be found in the documentation for `initdb`.

50.1. BKI File Format

This section describes how the PostgreSQL backend interprets BKI files. This description will be easier to understand if the `postgres.bki` file is at hand as an example.

BKI input consists of a sequence of commands. Commands are made up of a number of tokens, depending on the syntax of the command. Tokens are usually separated by whitespace, but need not be if there is no ambiguity. There is no special command separator; the next token that syntactically cannot belong to the preceding command starts a new one. (Usually you would put a new command on a new line, for clarity.) Tokens can be certain key words, special characters (parentheses, commas, etc.), numbers, or double-quoted strings. Everything is case sensitive.

Lines starting with a `#` are ignored.

50.2. BKI Commands

```
create [bootstrap] [shared_relation] [without_oids] tablename (name1 = type1 [, name2 = type2, ...])
```

Create a table named *tablename* with the columns given in parentheses.

The following column types are supported directly by `bootstrap.c`: `bool`, `bytea`, `char` (1 byte), `name`, `int2`, `int4`, `regproc`, `regclass`, `regtype`, `text`, `oid`, `tid`, `xid`, `cid`, `int2vector`, `oidvector`, `_int4` (array), `_text` (array), `_aclitem` (array). Although it is possible to create tables containing columns of other types, this cannot be done until after `pg_type` has been created and filled with appropriate entries.

When `bootstrap` is specified, the table will only be created on disk; nothing is entered into `pg_class`, `pg_attribute`, etc, for it. Thus the table will not be accessible by ordinary SQL

operations until such entries are made the hard way (with `insert` commands). This option is used for creating `pg_class` etc themselves.

The table is created as shared if `shared_relation` is specified. It will have OIDs unless `without_oids` is specified.

`open tablename`

Open the table called `tablename` for further manipulation.

`close [tablename]`

Close the open table called `tablename`. It is an error if `tablename` is not already opened. If no `tablename` is given, then the currently open table is closed.

`insert [OID = oid_value] (value1 value2 ...)`

Insert a new row into the open table using `value1`, `value2`, etc., for its column values and `oid_value` for its OID. If `oid_value` is zero (0) or the clause is omitted, then the next available OID is used.

NULL values can be specified using the special key word `_null_`. Values containing spaces must be double quoted.

`declare [unique] index indexname on tablename using amname (opclass1 name1 [, ...])`

Create an index named `indexname` on the table named `tablename` using the `amname` access method. The fields to index are called `name1`, `name2` etc., and the operator classes to use are `opclass1`, `opclass2` etc., respectively. The index file is created and appropriate catalog entries are made for it, but the index contents are not initialized by this command.

`build indices`

Fill in the indices that have previously been declared.

50.3. Example

The following sequence of commands will create the table `test_table` with two columns `cola` and `colb` of type `int4` and `text`, respectively, and insert two rows into the table.

```
create test_table (cola = int4, colb = text)
open test_table
insert OID=421 ( 1 "value1" )
insert OID=422 ( 2 _null_ )
close test_table
```

VIII. Appendixes

Appendix A. PostgreSQL Error Codes

All messages emitted by the PostgreSQL server are assigned five-character error codes that follow the SQL standard's conventions for "SQLSTATE" codes. Applications that need to know which error condition has occurred should usually test the error code, rather than looking at the textual error message. The error codes are less likely to change across PostgreSQL releases, and also are not subject to change due to localization of error messages. Note that some, but not all, of the error codes produced by PostgreSQL are defined by the SQL standard; some additional error codes for conditions not defined by the standard have been invented or borrowed from other databases.

According to the standard, the first two characters of an error code denote a class of errors, while the last three characters indicate a specific condition within that class. Thus, an application that does not recognize the specific error code may still be able to infer what to do from the error class.

Table A-1 lists all the error codes defined in PostgreSQL 8.0.0. (Some are not actually used at present, but are defined by the SQL standard.) The error classes are also shown. For each error class there is a "standard" error code having the last three characters 000. This code is used only for error conditions that fall within the class but do not have any more-specific code assigned.

The PL/pgSQL condition name for each error code is the same as the phrase shown in the table, with underscores substituted for spaces. For example, code 22012, DIVISION BY ZERO, has condition name `DIVISION_BY_ZERO`. Condition names can be written in either upper or lower case. (Note that PL/pgSQL does not recognize warning, as opposed to error, condition names; those are classes 00, 01, and 02.)

Table A-1. PostgreSQL Error Codes

Error Code	Meaning
Class 00	Successful Completion
00000	SUCCESSFUL COMPLETION
Class 01	Warning
01000	WARNING
0100C	DYNAMIC RESULT SETS RETURNED
01008	IMPLICIT ZERO BIT PADDING
01003	NULL VALUE ELIMINATED IN SET FUNCTION
01007	PRIVILEGE NOT GRANTED
01006	PRIVILEGE NOT REVOKED
01004	STRING DATA RIGHT TRUNCATION
01P01	DEPRECATED FEATURE
Class 02	No Data — this is also a warning class per SQL:1999
02000	NO DATA
02001	NO ADDITIONAL DYNAMIC RESULT SETS RETURNED
Class 03	SQL Statement Not Yet Complete

Error Code	Meaning
03000	SQL STATEMENT NOT YET COMPLETE
Class 08	Connection Exception
08000	CONNECTION EXCEPTION
08003	CONNECTION DOES NOT EXIST
08006	CONNECTION FAILURE
08001	SQLCLIENT UNABLE TO ESTABLISH SQLCONNECTION
08004	SQLSERVER REJECTED ESTABLISHMENT OF SQLCONNECTION
08007	TRANSACTION RESOLUTION UNKNOWN
08P01	PROTOCOL VIOLATION
Class 09	Triggered Action Exception
09000	TRIGGERED ACTION EXCEPTION
Class 0A	Feature Not Supported
0A000	FEATURE NOT SUPPORTED
Class 0B	Invalid Transaction Initiation
0B000	INVALID TRANSACTION INITIATION
Class 0F	Locator Exception
0F000	LOCATOR EXCEPTION
0F001	INVALID LOCATOR SPECIFICATION
Class 0L	Invalid Grantor
0L000	INVALID GRANTOR
0LP01	INVALID GRANT OPERATION
Class 0P	Invalid Role Specification
0P000	INVALID ROLE SPECIFICATION
Class 21	Cardinality Violation
21000	CARDINALITY VIOLATION
Class 22	Data Exception
22000	DATA EXCEPTION
2202E	ARRAY SUBSCRIPT ERROR
22021	CHARACTER NOT IN REPERTOIRE
22008	DATETIME FIELD OVERFLOW
22012	DIVISION BY ZERO
22005	ERROR IN ASSIGNMENT
2200B	ESCAPE CHARACTER CONFLICT
22022	INDICATOR OVERFLOW
22015	INTERVAL FIELD OVERFLOW
2201E	INVALID ARGUMENT FOR LOGARITHM

Error Code	Meaning
2201F	INVALID ARGUMENT FOR POWER FUNCTION
2201G	INVALID ARGUMENT FOR WIDTH BUCKET FUNCTION
22018	INVALID CHARACTER VALUE FOR CAST
22007	INVALID DATETIME FORMAT
22019	INVALID ESCAPE CHARACTER
2200D	INVALID ESCAPE OCTET
22025	INVALID ESCAPE SEQUENCE
22010	INVALID INDICATOR PARAMETER VALUE
22020	INVALID LIMIT VALUE
22023	INVALID PARAMETER VALUE
2201B	INVALID REGULAR EXPRESSION
22009	INVALID TIME ZONE DISPLACEMENT VALUE
2200C	INVALID USE OF ESCAPE CHARACTER
2200G	MOST SPECIFIC TYPE MISMATCH
22004	NULL VALUE NOT ALLOWED
22002	NULL VALUE NO INDICATOR PARAMETER
22003	NUMERIC VALUE OUT OF RANGE
22026	STRING DATA LENGTH MISMATCH
22001	STRING DATA RIGHT TRUNCATION
22011	SUBSTRING ERROR
22027	TRIM ERROR
22024	UNTERMINATED C STRING
2200F	ZERO LENGTH CHARACTER STRING
22P01	FLOATING POINT EXCEPTION
22P02	INVALID TEXT REPRESENTATION
22P03	INVALID BINARY REPRESENTATION
22P04	BAD COPY FILE FORMAT
22P05	UNTRANSLATABLE CHARACTER
Class 23	Integrity Constraint Violation
23000	INTEGRITY CONSTRAINT VIOLATION
23001	RESTRICT VIOLATION
23502	NOT NULL VIOLATION
23503	FOREIGN KEY VIOLATION
23505	UNIQUE VIOLATION
23514	CHECK VIOLATION
Class 24	Invalid Cursor State

Error Code	Meaning
24000	INVALID CURSOR STATE
Class 25	Invalid Transaction State
25000	INVALID TRANSACTION STATE
25001	ACTIVE SQL TRANSACTION
25002	BRANCH TRANSACTION ALREADY ACTIVE
25008	HELD CURSOR REQUIRES SAME ISOLATION LEVEL
25003	INAPPROPRIATE ACCESS MODE FOR BRANCH TRANSACTION
25004	INAPPROPRIATE ISOLATION LEVEL FOR BRANCH TRANSACTION
25005	NO ACTIVE SQL TRANSACTION FOR BRANCH TRANSACTION
25006	READ ONLY SQL TRANSACTION
25007	SCHEMA AND DATA STATEMENT MIXING NOT SUPPORTED
25P01	NO ACTIVE SQL TRANSACTION
25P02	IN FAILED SQL TRANSACTION
Class 26	Invalid SQL Statement Name
26000	INVALID SQL STATEMENT NAME
Class 27	Triggered Data Change Violation
27000	TRIGGERED DATA CHANGE VIOLATION
Class 28	Invalid Authorization Specification
28000	INVALID AUTHORIZATION SPECIFICATION
Class 2B	Dependent Privilege Descriptors Still Exist
2B000	DEPENDENT PRIVILEGE DESCRIPTORS STILL EXIST
2BP01	DEPENDENT OBJECTS STILL EXIST
Class 2D	Invalid Transaction Termination
2D000	INVALID TRANSACTION TERMINATION
Class 2F	SQL Routine Exception
2F000	SQL ROUTINE EXCEPTION
2F005	FUNCTION EXECUTED NO RETURN STATEMENT
2F002	MODIFYING SQL DATA NOT PERMITTED
2F003	PROHIBITED SQL STATEMENT ATTEMPTED
2F004	READING SQL DATA NOT PERMITTED
Class 34	Invalid Cursor Name
34000	INVALID CURSOR NAME
Class 38	External Routine Exception

Error Code	Meaning
38000	EXTERNAL ROUTINE EXCEPTION
38001	CONTAINING SQL NOT PERMITTED
38002	MODIFYING SQL DATA NOT PERMITTED
38003	PROHIBITED SQL STATEMENT ATTEMPTED
38004	READING SQL DATA NOT PERMITTED
Class 39	External Routine Invocation Exception
39000	EXTERNAL ROUTINE INVOCATION EXCEPTION
39001	INVALID SQLSTATE RETURNED
39004	NULL VALUE NOT ALLOWED
39P01	TRIGGER PROTOCOL VIOLATED
39P02	SRF PROTOCOL VIOLATED
Class 3B	Savepoint Exception
3B000	SAVEPOINT EXCEPTION
3B001	INVALID SAVEPOINT SPECIFICATION
Class 3D	Invalid Catalog Name
3D000	INVALID CATALOG NAME
Class 3F	Invalid Schema Name
3F000	INVALID SCHEMA NAME
Class 40	Transaction Rollback
40000	TRANSACTION ROLLBACK
40002	TRANSACTION INTEGRITY CONSTRAINT VIOLATION
40001	SERIALIZATION FAILURE
40003	STATEMENT COMPLETION UNKNOWN
40P01	DEADLOCK DETECTED
Class 42	Syntax Error or Access Rule Violation
42000	SYNTAX ERROR OR ACCESS RULE VIOLATION
42601	SYNTAX ERROR
42501	INSUFFICIENT PRIVILEGE
42846	CANNOT COERCE
42803	GROUPING ERROR
42830	INVALID FOREIGN KEY
42602	INVALID NAME
42622	NAME TOO LONG
42939	RESERVED NAME
42804	DATATYPE MISMATCH
42P18	INDETERMINATE DATATYPE

Error Code	Meaning
42809	WRONG OBJECT TYPE
42703	UNDEFINED COLUMN
42883	UNDEFINED FUNCTION
42P01	UNDEFINED TABLE
42P02	UNDEFINED PARAMETER
42704	UNDEFINED OBJECT
42701	DUPLICATE COLUMN
42P03	DUPLICATE CURSOR
42P04	DUPLICATE DATABASE
42723	DUPLICATE FUNCTION
42P05	DUPLICATE PREPARED STATEMENT
42P06	DUPLICATE SCHEMA
42P07	DUPLICATE TABLE
42712	DUPLICATE ALIAS
42710	DUPLICATE OBJECT
42702	AMBIGUOUS COLUMN
42725	AMBIGUOUS FUNCTION
42P08	AMBIGUOUS PARAMETER
42P09	AMBIGUOUS ALIAS
42P10	INVALID COLUMN REFERENCE
42611	INVALID COLUMN DEFINITION
42P11	INVALID CURSOR DEFINITION
42P12	INVALID DATABASE DEFINITION
42P13	INVALID FUNCTION DEFINITION
42P14	INVALID PREPARED STATEMENT DEFINITION
42P15	INVALID SCHEMA DEFINITION
42P16	INVALID TABLE DEFINITION
42P17	INVALID OBJECT DEFINITION
Class 44	WITH CHECK OPTION Violation
44000	WITH CHECK OPTION VIOLATION
Class 53	Insufficient Resources
53000	INSUFFICIENT RESOURCES
53100	DISK FULL
53200	OUT OF MEMORY
53300	TOO MANY CONNECTIONS
Class 54	Program Limit Exceeded
54000	PROGRAM LIMIT EXCEEDED
54001	STATEMENT TOO COMPLEX

Error Code	Meaning
54011	TOO MANY COLUMNS
54023	TOO MANY ARGUMENTS
Class 55	Object Not In Prerequisite State
55000	OBJECT NOT IN PREREQUISITE STATE
55006	OBJECT IN USE
55P02	CANT CHANGE RUNTIME PARAM
55P03	LOCK NOT AVAILABLE
Class 57	Operator Intervention
57000	OPERATOR INTERVENTION
57014	QUERY CANCELED
57P01	ADMIN SHUTDOWN
57P02	CRASH SHUTDOWN
57P03	CANNOT CONNECT NOW
Class 58	System Error (errors external to PostgreSQL itself)
58030	IO ERROR
58P01	UNDEFINED FILE
58P02	DUPLICATE FILE
Class F0	Configuration File Error
F0000	CONFIG FILE ERROR
F0001	LOCK FILE EXISTS
Class P0	PL/pgSQL Error
P0000	PLPGSQL ERROR
P0001	RAISE EXCEPTION
Class XX	Internal Error
XX000	INTERNAL ERROR
XX001	DATA CORRUPTED
XX002	INDEX CORRUPTED

Appendix B. Date/Time Support

PostgreSQL uses an internal heuristic parser for all date/time input support. Dates and times are input as strings, and are broken up into distinct fields with a preliminary determination of what kind of information may be in the field. Each field is interpreted and either assigned a numeric value, ignored, or rejected. The parser contains internal lookup tables for all textual fields, including months, days of the week, and time zones.

This appendix includes information on the content of these lookup tables and describes the steps used by the parser to decode dates and times.

B.1. Date/Time Input Interpretation

The date/time type inputs are all decoded using the following procedure.

1. Break the input string into tokens and categorize each token as a string, time, time zone, or number.
 - a. If the numeric token contains a colon (:), this is a time string. Include all subsequent digits and colons.
 - b. If the numeric token contains a dash (-), slash (/), or two or more dots (.), this is a date string which may have a text month.
 - c. If the token is numeric only, then it is either a single field or an ISO 8601 concatenated date (e.g., 19990113 for January 13, 1999) or time (e.g., 141516 for 14:15:16).
 - d. If the token starts with a plus (+) or minus (-), then it is either a time zone or a special field.
2. If the token is a text string, match up with possible strings.
 - a. Do a binary-search table lookup for the token as either a special string (e.g., `today`), day (e.g., `Thursday`), month (e.g., `January`), or noise word (e.g., `at`, `on`).
Set field values and bit mask for fields. For example, set year, month, day for `today`, and additionally hour, minute, second for `now`.
 - b. If not found, do a similar binary-search table lookup to match the token with a time zone.
 - c. If still not found, throw an error.
3. When the token is a number or number field:
 - a. If there are eight or six digits, and if no other date fields have been previously read, then interpret as a “concatenated date” (e.g., 19990118 or 990118). The interpretation is YYYYMMDD or YYMMDD.
 - b. If the token is three digits and a year has already been read, then interpret as day of year.
 - c. If four or six digits and a year has already been read, then interpret as a time (HHMM or HHMMSS).

- d. If three or more digits and no date fields have yet been found, interpret as a year (this forces yy-mm-dd ordering of the remaining date fields).
 - e. Otherwise the date field ordering is assumed to follow the `DateStyle` setting: mm-dd-yy, dd-mm-yy, or yy-mm-dd. Throw an error if a month or day field is found to be out of range.
4. If BC has been specified, negate the year and add one for internal storage. (There is no year zero in the Gregorian calendar, so numerically 1 BC becomes year zero.)
 5. If BC was not specified, and if the year field was two digits in length, then adjust the year to four digits. If the field is less than 70, then add 2000, otherwise add 1900.

Tip: Gregorian years AD 1-99 may be entered by using 4 digits with leading zeros (e.g., 0099 is AD 99). Previous versions of PostgreSQL accepted years with three digits and with single digits, but as of version 7.0 the rules have been tightened up to reduce the possibility of ambiguity.

B.2. Date/Time Key Words

Table B-1 shows the tokens that are recognized as names of months.

Table B-1. Month Names

Month	Abbreviations
January	Jan
February	Feb
March	Mar
April	Apr
May	
June	Jun
July	Jul
August	Aug
September	Sep, Sept
October	Oct
November	Nov
December	Dec

Table B-2 shows the tokens that are recognized as names of days of the week.

Table B-2. Day of the Week Names

Day	Abbreviations
Sunday	Sun
Monday	Mon

Day	Abbreviations
Tuesday	Tue, Tues
Wednesday	Wed, Weds
Thursday	Thu, Thur, Thurs
Friday	Fri
Saturday	Sat

Table B-3 shows the tokens that serve various modifier purposes.

Table B-3. Date/Time Field Modifiers

Identifier	Description
ABSTIME	Ignored
AM	Time is before 12:00
AT	Ignored
JULIAN, JD, J	Next field is Julian Day
ON	Ignored
PM	Time is on or after 12:00
T	Next field is time

The key word `ABSTIME` is ignored for historical reasons: In very old releases of PostgreSQL, invalid values of type `abstime` were emitted as `Invalid Abstime`. This is no longer the case however and this key word will likely be dropped in a future release.

Table B-4 shows the time zone abbreviations recognized by PostgreSQL in date/time input values. Note that these names are *not* necessarily used for date/time output — output is driven by the official timezone abbreviation(s) associated with the currently selected timezone parameter setting. (It is likely that future releases will make some use of `timezone` for input as well.)

The table is organized by time zone offset from UTC, rather than alphabetically. This is intended to facilitate matching local usage with recognized abbreviations for cases where these might differ.

Table B-4. Time Zone Abbreviations for Input

Time Zone	Offset from UTC	Description
NZDT	+13:00	New Zealand Daylight-Saving Time
IDLE	+12:00	International Date Line, East
NZST	+12:00	New Zealand Standard Time
NZT	+12:00	New Zealand Time
AESST	+11:00	Australia Eastern Summer Standard Time
ACSST	+10:30	Central Australia Summer Standard Time

Time Zone	Offset from UTC	Description
CADT	+10:30	Central Australia Daylight-Saving Time
SADT	+10:30	South Australian Daylight-Saving Time
AEST	+10:00	Australia Eastern Standard Time
EAST	+10:00	East Australian Standard Time
GST	+10:00	Guam Standard Time, Russia zone 9
LIGT	+10:00	Melbourne, Australia
SAST	+09:30	South Australia Standard Time
CAST	+09:30	Central Australia Standard Time
AWSST	+09:00	Australia Western Summer Standard Time
JST	+09:00	Japan Standard Time, Russia zone 8
KST	+09:00	Korea Standard Time
MHT	+09:00	Kwajalein Time
WDT	+09:00	West Australian Daylight-Saving Time
MT	+08:30	Moluccas Time
AWST	+08:00	Australia Western Standard Time
CCT	+08:00	China Coastal Time
WADT	+08:00	West Australian Daylight-Saving Time
WST	+08:00	West Australian Standard Time
JT	+07:30	Java Time
ALMST	+07:00	Almaty Summer Time
WAST	+07:00	West Australian Standard Time
CXT	+07:00	Christmas (Island) Time
MMT	+06:30	Myanmar Time
ALMT	+06:00	Almaty Time
MAWT	+06:00	Mawson (Antarctica) Time
IOT	+05:00	Indian Chagos Time
MVT	+05:00	Maldives Island Time
TFT	+05:00	Kerguelen Time
AFT	+04:30	Afghanistan Time
EAST	+04:00	Antananarivo Summer Time
MUT	+04:00	Mauritius Island Time
RET	+04:00	Reunion Island Time
SCT	+04:00	Mahe Island Time

Time Zone	Offset from UTC	Description
IRT, IT	+03:30	Iran Time
EAT	+03:00	Antananarivo, Comoro Time
BT	+03:00	Baghdad Time
EETDST	+03:00	Eastern Europe Daylight-Saving Time
HMT	+03:00	Hellas Mediterranean Time (?)
BDST	+02:00	British Double Summer Time
CEST	+02:00	Central European Summer Time
CETDST	+02:00	Central European Daylight-Saving Time
EET	+02:00	Eastern European Time, Russia zone 1
FWT	+02:00	French Winter Time
IST	+02:00	Israel Standard Time
MEST	+02:00	Middle European Summer Time
METDST	+02:00	Middle Europe Daylight-Saving Time
SST	+02:00	Swedish Summer Time
BST	+01:00	British Summer Time
CET	+01:00	Central European Time
DNT	+01:00	<i>Dansk Normal Tid</i>
FST	+01:00	French Summer Time
MET	+01:00	Middle European Time
MEWT	+01:00	Middle European Winter Time
MEZ	+01:00	<i>Mitteleuropäische Zeit</i>
NOR	+01:00	Norway Standard Time
SET	+01:00	Seychelles Time
SWT	+01:00	Swedish Winter Time
WETDST	+01:00	Western European Daylight-Saving Time
GMT	00:00	Greenwich Mean Time
UT	00:00	Universal Time
UTC	00:00	Universal Coordinated Time
Z	00:00	Same as UTC
ZULU	00:00	Same as UTC
WET	00:00	Western European Time
WAT	-01:00	West Africa Time
FNST	-01:00	Fernando de Noronha Summer Time

Time Zone	Offset from UTC	Description
FNT	-02:00	Fernando de Noronha Time
BRST	-02:00	Brasilia Summer Time
NDT	-02:30	Newfoundland Daylight-Saving Time
ADT	-03:00	Atlantic Daylight-Saving Time
AWT	-03:00	(unknown)
BRT	-03:00	Brasilia Time
NFT	-03:30	Newfoundland Standard Time
NST	-03:30	Newfoundland Standard Time
AST	-04:00	Atlantic Standard Time (Canada)
ACST	-04:00	Atlantic/Porto Acre Summer Time
EDT	-04:00	Eastern Daylight-Saving Time
ACT	-05:00	Atlantic/Porto Acre Standard Time
CDT	-05:00	Central Daylight-Saving Time
EST	-05:00	Eastern Standard Time
CST	-06:00	Central Standard Time
MDT	-06:00	Mountain Daylight-Saving Time
MST	-07:00	Mountain Standard Time
PDT	-07:00	Pacific Daylight-Saving Time
AKDT	-08:00	Alaska Daylight-Saving Time
PST	-08:00	Pacific Standard Time
YDT	-08:00	Yukon Daylight-Saving Time
AKST	-09:00	Alaska Standard Time
HDT	-09:00	Hawaii/Alaska Daylight-Saving Time
YST	-09:00	Yukon Standard Time
MART	-09:30	Marquesas Time
AHST	-10:00	Alaska/Hawaii Standard Time
HST	-10:00	Hawaii Standard Time
CAT	-10:00	Central Alaska Time
NT	-11:00	Nome Time
IDLW	-12:00	International Date Line, West

Australian Time Zones. There are three naming conflicts between Australian time zone names and time zone names commonly used in North and South America: ACST, CST, and EST. If the run-time option `australian_timezones` is set to true then ACST, CST, EST, and SAT are interpreted as Australian time zone names, as shown in Table B-5. If it is false (which is the default), then ACST, CST, and EST are taken as American time zone names, and SAT is interpreted as a noise word indicating Saturday.

Table B-5. Australian Time Zone Abbreviations for Input

Time Zone	Offset from UTC	Description
ACST	+09:30	Central Australia Standard Time
CST	+10:30	Australian Central Standard Time
EST	+10:00	Australian Eastern Standard Time
SAT	+09:30	South Australian Standard Time

Table B-6 shows the time zone names recognized by PostgreSQL as valid settings for the `timezone` parameter. Note that these names are conceptually as well as practically different from the names shown in Table B-4: most of these names imply a local daylight-savings time rule, whereas the former names each represent just a fixed offset from UTC.

In many cases there are several equivalent names for the same zone. These are listed on the same line. The table is primarily sorted by the name of the principal city of the zone.

Table B-6. Time Zone Names for Setting `timezone`

Time Zone
Africa/Abidjan
Africa/Accra
Africa/Addis_Ababa
Africa/Algiers
Africa/Asmera
Africa/Bamako
Africa/Bangui
Africa/Banjul
Africa/Bissau
Africa/Blantyre
Africa/Brazzaville
Africa/Bujumbura
Africa/Cairo Egypt
Africa/Casablanca
Africa/Ceuta
Africa/Conakry
Africa/Dakar
Africa/Dar_es_Salaam
Africa/Djibouti
Africa/Douala
Africa/El_Aaiun
Africa/Freetown
Africa/Gaborone
Africa/Harare

Time Zone
Africa/Johannesburg
Africa/Kampala
Africa/Khartoum
Africa/Kigali
Africa/Kinshasa
Africa/Lagos
Africa/Libreville
Africa/Lome
Africa/Luanda
Africa/Lubumbashi
Africa/Lusaka
Africa/Malabo
Africa/Maputo
Africa/Maseru
Africa/Mbabane
Africa/Mogadishu
Africa/Monrovia
Africa/Nairobi
Africa/Ndjamena
Africa/Niamey
Africa/Nouakchott
Africa/Ouagadougou
Africa/Porto-Novo
Africa/Sao_Tome
Africa/Timbuktu
Africa/Tripoli Libya
Africa/Tunis
Africa/Windhoek
America/Adak America/Atka US/Aleutian
America/Anchorage SystemV/YST9YDT US/Alaska
America/Anguilla
America/Antigua
America/Araguaina
America/Aruba
America/Asuncion
America/Bahia
America/Barbados
America/Belem

Time Zone
America/Belize
America/Boa_Vista
America/Bogota
America/Boise
America/Buenos_Aires
America/Cambridge_Bay
America/Campo_Grande
America/Cancun
America/Caracas
America/Catamarca
America/Cayenne
America/Cayman
America/Chicago CST6CDT SystemV/CST6CDT US/Central
America/Chihuahua
America/Cordoba America/Rosario
America/Costa_Rica
America/Cuiaba
America/Curacao
America/Danmarkshavn
America/Dawson
America/Dawson_Creek
America/Denver MST7MDT SystemV/MST7MDT US/Mountain America/Shiprock Navajo
America/Detroit US/Michigan
America/Dominica
America/Edmonton Canada/Mountain
America/Eirunepe
America/El_Salvador
America/Ensenada America/Tijuana Mexico/BajaNorte
America/Fortaleza
America/Glace_Bay
America/Godthab
America/Goose_Bay
America/Grand_Turk
America/Grenada
America/Guadeloupe
America/Guatemala
America/Guayaquil
America/Guyana

Time Zone
America/Halifax Canada/Atlantic SystemV/AST4ADT
America/Havana Cuba
America/Hermosillo
America/Indiana/Indianapolis America/Indianapolis America/Fort_Wayne EST SystemV/EST5 US/East-Indiana
America/Indiana/Knox America/Knox_IN US/Indiana-Starke
America/Indiana/Marengo
America/Indiana/Vevay
America/Inuvik
America/Iqaluit
America/Jamaica Jamaica
America/Jujuy
America/Juneau
America/Kentucky/Louisville America/Louisville
America/Kentucky/Monticello
America/La_Paz
America/Lima
America/Los_Angeles PST8PDT SystemV/PST8PDT US/Pacific US/Pacific-New
America/Maceio
America/Managua
America/Manaus Brazil/West
America/Martinique
America/Mazatlan Mexico/BajaSur
America/Mendoza
America/Menominee
America/Merida
America/Mexico_City Mexico/General
America/Miquelon
America/Monterrey
America/Montevideo
America/Montreal
America/Montserrat
America/Nassau
America/New_York EST5EDT SystemV/EST5EDT US/Eastern
America/Nipigon
America/Nome
America/Noronha Brazil/DeNoronha
America/North_Dakota/Center
America/Panama

Time Zone
America/Pangnirtung
America/Paramaribo
America/Phoenix MST SystemV/MST7 US/Arizona
America/Port-au-Prince
America/Port_of_Spain
America/Porto_Acre America/Rio_Branco Brazil/Acre
America/Porto_Velho
America/Puerto_Rico SystemV/AST4
America/Rainy_River
America/Rankin_Inlet
America/Recife
America/Regina Canada/East-Saskatchewan Canada/Saskatchewan SystemV/CST6
America/Santiago Chile/Continental
America/Santo_Domingo
America/Sao_Paulo Brazil/East
America/Scoresbysund
America/St_Johns Canada/Newfoundland
America/St_Kitts
America/St_Lucia
America/St_Thomas America/Virgin
America/St_Vincent
America/Swift_Current
America/Tegucigalpa
America/Thule
America/Thunder_Bay
America/Toronto Canada/Eastern
America/Tortola
America/Vancouver Canada/Pacific
America/Whitehorse Canada/Yukon
America/Winnipeg Canada/Central
America/Yakutat
America/Yellowknife
Antarctica/Casey
Antarctica/Davis
Antarctica/DumontDURville
Antarctica/Mawson
Antarctica/McMurdo Antarctica/South_Pole
Antarctica/Palmer

Time Zone
Antarctica/Rothera
Antarctica/Syowa
Antarctica/Vostok
Asia/Aden
Asia/Almaty
Asia/Amman
Asia/Anadyr
Asia/Aqtau
Asia/Aqtobe
Asia/Ashgabat Asia/Ashkhabad
Asia/Baghdad
Asia/Bahrain
Asia/Baku
Asia/Bangkok
Asia/Beirut
Asia/Bishkek
Asia/Brunei
Asia/Calcutta
Asia/Choibalsan
Asia/Chongqing Asia/Chungking
Asia/Colombo
Asia/Dacca Asia/Dhaka
Asia/Damascus
Asia/Dili
Asia/Dubai
Asia/Dushanbe
Asia/Gaza
Asia/Harbin
Asia/Hong_Kong Hongkong
Asia/Hovd
Asia/Irkutsk
Asia/Jakarta
Asia/Jayapura
Asia/Jerusalem Asia/Tel_Aviv Israel
Asia/Kabul
Asia/Kamchatka
Asia/Karachi
Asia/Kashgar

Time Zone
Asia/Katmandu
Asia/Krasnoyarsk
Asia/Kuala_Lumpur
Asia/Kuching
Asia/Kuwait
Asia/Macao Asia/Macau
Asia/Magadan
Asia/Makassar Asia/Ujung_Pandang
Asia/Manila
Asia/Muscat
Asia/Nicosia Europe/Nicosia
Asia/Novosibirsk
Asia/Omsk
Asia/Oral
Asia/Phnom_Penh
Asia/Pontianak
Asia/Pyongyang
Asia/Qatar
Asia/Qyzylorda
Asia/Rangoon
Asia/Riyadh
Asia/Riyadh87 Mideast/Riyadh87
Asia/Riyadh88 Mideast/Riyadh88
Asia/Riyadh89 Mideast/Riyadh89
Asia/Saigon
Asia/Sakhalin
Asia/Samarkand
Asia/Seoul ROK
Asia/Shanghai PRC
Asia/Singapore Singapore
Asia/Taipei ROC
Asia/Tashkent
Asia/Tbilisi
Asia/Tehran Iran
Asia/Thimbu Asia/Thimphu
Asia/Tokyo Japan
Asia/Ulaanbaatar Asia/Ulan_Bator
Asia/Urumqi

Time Zone
Asia/Vientiane
Asia/Vladivostok
Asia/Yakutsk
Asia/Yekaterinburg
Asia/Yerevan
Atlantic/Azores
Atlantic/Bermuda
Atlantic/Canary
Atlantic/Cape_Verde
Atlantic/Faeroe
Atlantic/Madeira
Atlantic/Reykjavik Iceland
Atlantic/South_Georgia
Atlantic/St_Helena
Atlantic/Stanley
Australia/ACT Australia/Canberra Australia/NSW Australia/Sydney
Australia/Adelaide Australia/South
Australia/Brisbane Australia/Queensland
Australia/Broken_Hill Australia/Yancowinna
Australia/Darwin Australia/North
Australia/Hobart Australia/Tasmania
Australia/LHI Australia/Lord_Howe
Australia/Lindeman
Australia/Melbourne Australia/Victoria
Australia/Perth Australia/West
CET
EET
Etc/GMT+1
Etc/GMT+2
Etc/GMT+3
Etc/GMT+4
Etc/GMT+5
Etc/GMT+6
Etc/GMT+7
Etc/GMT+8
Etc/GMT+9
Etc/GMT+10
Etc/GMT+11

Time Zone
Etc/GMT+12
Etc/GMT-1
Etc/GMT-2
Etc/GMT-3
Etc/GMT-4
Etc/GMT-5
Etc/GMT-6
Etc/GMT-7
Etc/GMT-8
Etc/GMT-9
Etc/GMT-10
Etc/GMT-11
Etc/GMT-12
Etc/GMT-13
Etc/GMT-14
Europe/Amsterdam
Europe/Andorra
Europe/Athens
Europe/Belfast
Europe/Belgrade Europe/Ljubljana Europe/Sarajevo Europe/Skopje Europe/Zagreb
Europe/Berlin
Europe/Brussels
Europe/Bucharest
Europe/Budapest
Europe/Chisinau Europe/Tiraspol
Europe/Copenhagen
Europe/Dublin Eire
Europe/Gibraltar
Europe/Helsinki
Europe/Istanbul Asia/Istanbul Turkey
Europe/Kaliningrad
Europe/Kiev
Europe/Lisbon Portugal
Europe/London GB GB-Eire
Europe/Luxembourg
Europe/Madrid
Europe/Malta
Europe/Minsk

Time Zone
Europe/Monaco
Europe/Moscow W-SU
Europe/Oslo Arctic/Longyearbyen Atlantic/Jan_Mayen
Europe/Paris
Europe/Prague Europe/Bratislava
Europe/Riga
Europe/Rome Europe/San_Marino Europe/Vatican
Europe/Samara
Europe/Simferopol
Europe/Sofia
Europe/Stockholm
Europe/Tallinn
Europe/Tirane
Europe/Uzhgorod
Europe/Vaduz
Europe/Vienna
Europe/Vilnius
Europe/Warsaw Poland
Europe/Zaporozhye
Europe/Zurich
Factory
GMT GMT+0 GMT-0 GMT0 Greenwich Etc/GMT Etc/GMT+0 Etc/GMT-0 Etc/GMT0 Etc/Greenwich
Indian/Antananarivo
Indian/Chagos
Indian/Christmas
Indian/Cocos
Indian/Comoro
Indian/Kerguelen
Indian/Mahe
Indian/Maldives
Indian/Mauritius
Indian/Mayotte
Indian/Reunion
MET
Pacific/Apia
Pacific/Auckland NZ
Pacific/Chatham NZ-CHAT
Pacific/Easter Chile/EasterIsland

Time Zone
Pacific/Efate
Pacific/Enderbury
Pacific/Fakaofu
Pacific/Fiji
Pacific/Funafuti
Pacific/Galapagos
Pacific/Gambier SystemV/YST9
Pacific/Guadalcanal
Pacific/Guam
Pacific/Honolulu HST SystemV/HST10 US/Hawaii
Pacific/Johnston
Pacific/Kiritimati
Pacific/Kosrae
Pacific/Kwajalein Kwajalein
Pacific/Majuro
Pacific/Marquesas
Pacific/Midway
Pacific/Nauru
Pacific/Niue
Pacific/Norfolk
Pacific/Noumea
Pacific/Pago_Pago Pacific/Samoa US/Samoa
Pacific/Palau
Pacific/Pitcairn SystemV/PST8
Pacific/Ponape
Pacific/Port_Moresby
Pacific/Rarotonga
Pacific/Saipan
Pacific/Tahiti
Pacific/Tarawa
Pacific/Tongatapu
Pacific/Truk
Pacific/Wake
Pacific/Wallis
Pacific/Yap
UCT Etc/UCT
UTC Universal Zulu Etc/UTC Etc/Universal Etc/Zulu
WET

In addition to the names listed in the table, PostgreSQL will accept time zone names of the form *STDoffset* or *STDoffsetDST*, where *STD* is a zone abbreviation, *offset* is a numeric offset in hours west from UTC, and *DST* is an optional daylight-savings zone abbreviation, assumed to stand for one hour ahead of the given offset. For example, if *EST5EDT* were not already a recognized zone name, it would be accepted and would be functionally equivalent to USA East Coast time. When a daylight-savings zone name is present, it is assumed to be used according to USA time zone rules, so this feature is of limited use outside North America. One should also be wary that this provision can lead to silently accepting bogus input, since there is no check on the reasonableness of the zone abbreviations. For example, `SET TIMEZONE TO FOOBAR0` will work, leaving the system effectively using a rather peculiar abbreviation for GMT.

B.3. History of Units

The Julian Date was invented by the French scholar Joseph Justus Scaliger (1540-1609) and probably takes its name from Scaliger's father, the Italian scholar Julius Caesar Scaliger (1484-1558). Astronomers have used the Julian period to assign a unique number to every day since 1 January 4713 BC. This is the so-called Julian Date (JD). JD 0 designates the 24 hours from noon UTC on 1 January 4713 BC to noon UTC on 2 January 4713 BC.

The "Julian Date" is different from the "Julian Calendar". The Julian calendar was introduced by Julius Caesar in 45 BC. It was in common use until the year 1582, when countries started changing to the Gregorian calendar. In the Julian calendar, the tropical year is approximated as $365 \frac{1}{4}$ days = 365.25 days. This gives an error of about 1 day in 128 years.

The accumulating calendar error prompted Pope Gregory XIII to reform the calendar in accordance with instructions from the Council of Trent. In the Gregorian calendar, the tropical year is approximated as $365 + 97 / 400$ days = 365.2425 days. Thus it takes approximately 3300 years for the tropical year to shift one day with respect to the Gregorian calendar.

The approximation $365+97/400$ is achieved by having 97 leap years every 400 years, using the following rules:

Every year divisible by 4 is a leap year.

However, every year divisible by 100 is not a leap year.

However, every year divisible by 400 is a leap year after all.

So, 1700, 1800, 1900, 2100, and 2200 are not leap years. But 1600, 2000, and 2400 are leap years. By contrast, in the older Julian calendar all years divisible by 4 are leap years.

The papal bull of February 1582 decreed that 10 days should be dropped from October 1582 so that 15 October should follow immediately after 4 October. This was observed in Italy, Poland, Portugal, and Spain. Other Catholic countries followed shortly after, but Protestant countries were reluctant to change, and the Greek orthodox countries didn't change until the start of the 20th century. The reform was observed by Great Britain and Dominions (including what is now the USA) in 1752. Thus 2 September 1752 was followed by 14 September 1752. This is why Unix systems have the `cal` program produce the following:

```
$ cal 9 1752
    September 1752
S  M Tu  W Th  F  S
      1  2 14 15 16
```

17 18 19 20 21 22 23
24 25 26 27 28 29 30

Note: The SQL standard states that “Within the definition of a ‘datetime literal’, the ‘datetime value’s are constrained by the natural rules for dates and times according to the Gregorian calendar”. Dates between 1752-09-03 and 1752-09-13, although eliminated in some countries by Papal fiat, conform to “natural rules” and are hence valid dates.

Different calendars have been developed in various parts of the world, many predating the Gregorian system. For example, the beginnings of the Chinese calendar can be traced back to the 14th century BC. Legend has it that the Emperor Huangdi invented the calendar in 2637 BC. The People’s Republic of China uses the Gregorian calendar for civil purposes. The Chinese calendar is used for determining festivals.

Appendix C. SQL Key Words

Table C-1 lists all tokens that are key words in the SQL standard and in PostgreSQL 8.0.0. Background information can be found in Section 4.1.1.

SQL distinguishes between *reserved* and *non-reserved* key words. According to the standard, reserved key words are the only real key words; they are never allowed as identifiers. Non-reserved key words only have a special meaning in particular contexts and can be used as identifiers in other contexts. Most non-reserved key words are actually the names of built-in tables and functions specified by SQL. The concept of non-reserved key words essentially only exists to declare that some predefined meaning is attached to a word in some contexts.

In the PostgreSQL parser life is a bit more complicated. There are several different classes of tokens ranging from those that can never be used as an identifier to those that have absolutely no special status in the parser as compared to an ordinary identifier. (The latter is usually the case for functions specified by SQL.) Even reserved key words are not completely reserved in PostgreSQL, but can be used as column labels (for example, `SELECT 55 AS CHECK`, even though `CHECK` is a reserved key word).

In Table C-1 in the column for PostgreSQL we classify as “non-reserved” those key words that are explicitly known to the parser but are allowed in most or all contexts where an identifier is expected. Some key words that are otherwise non-reserved cannot be used as function or data type names and are marked accordingly. (Most of these words represent built-in functions or data types with special syntax. The function or type is still available but it cannot be redefined by the user.) Labeled “reserved” are those tokens that are only allowed as “AS” column label names (and perhaps in very few other contexts). Some reserved key words are allowable as names for functions; this is also shown in the table.

As a general rule, if you get spurious parser errors for commands that contain any of the listed key words as an identifier you should try to quote the identifier to see if the problem goes away.

It is important to understand before studying Table C-1 that the fact that a key word is not reserved in PostgreSQL does not mean that the feature related to the word is not implemented. Conversely, the presence of a key word does not indicate the existence of a feature.

Table C-1. SQL Key Words

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
A		non-reserved		
ABORT	non-reserved			
ABS		reserved	non-reserved	
ABSOLUTE	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
ACCESS	non-reserved			
ACTION	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
ADA		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
ADD	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
ADMIN		non-reserved	reserved	

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
AFTER	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	
AGGREGATE	non-reserved		reserved	
ALIAS			reserved	
ALL	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ALLOCATE		reserved	reserved	reserved
ALSO	non-reserved			
ALTER	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ALWAYS		non-reserved		
ANALYSE	reserved			
ANALYZE	reserved			
AND	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ANY	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ARE		reserved	reserved	reserved
ARRAY	reserved	reserved	reserved	
AS	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ASC	reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
ASENSITIVE		reserved	non-reserved	
ASSERTION	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
ASSIGNMENT	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	
ASYMMETRIC		reserved	non-reserved	
AT	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ATOMIC		reserved	non-reserved	
ATTRIBUTE		non-reserved		
ATTRIBUTES		non-reserved		
AUTHORIZATION	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
AVG		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
BACKWARD	non-reserved			
BEFORE	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	
BEGIN	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
BERNOULLI		non-reserved		
BETWEEN	reserved (can be function)	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
BIGINT	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved		
BINARY	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
BIT	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)		reserved	reserved
BITVAR			non-reserved	
BIT_LENGTH			non-reserved	reserved
BLOB		reserved	reserved	
BOOLEAN	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	
BOTH	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
BREADTH		non-reserved	reserved	
BY	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
C		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CACHE	non-reserved			
CALL		reserved	reserved	
CALLED	non-reserved	reserved	non-reserved	
CARDINALITY		reserved	non-reserved	
CASCADE	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
CASCADED		reserved	reserved	reserved
CASE	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
CAST	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
CATALOG		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
CATALOG_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CEIL		reserved		
CEILING		reserved		
CHAIN	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	
CHAR	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
CHARACTER	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
CHARACTERISTICS	non-reserved	non-reserved		
CHARACTERS		non-reserved		
CHARACTER_LENGTH		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
CHARACTER_SET_CATALOG		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CHARACTER_SET_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
CHARACTER_SET_SCHEMA		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CHAR_LENGTH		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
CHECK	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
CHECKED			non-reserved	
CHECKPOINT	non-reserved			
CLASS	non-reserved		reserved	
CLASS_ORIGIN		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CLOB		reserved	reserved	
CLOSE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
CLUSTER	non-reserved			
COALESCE	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
COBOL		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
COLLATE	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
COLLATION		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
COLLATION_CATALOG		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
COLLATION_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
COLLATION_SCHEMA		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
COLLECT		reserved		
COLUMN	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
COLUMN_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
COMMAND_FUNCTION		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
COMMAND_FUNCTION_CODE		non-reserved	non-reserved	
COMMENT	non-reserved			
COMMIT	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
COMMITTED	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
COMPLETION			reserved	
CONDITION		reserved		
CONDITION_NUMBER		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CONNECT		reserved	reserved	reserved
CONNECTION		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
CONNECTION_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CONSTRAINT	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
CONSTRAINTS	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
CONSTRAINT_CATALOG		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CONSTRAINT_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CONSTRAINT_SCHEMA		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CONSTRUCTOR		non-reserved	reserved	
CONTAINS		non-reserved	non-reserved	
CONTINUE		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
CONVERSION	non-reserved			
CONVERT	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
COPY	non-reserved			
CORR		reserved		
CORRESPONDING		reserved	reserved	reserved
COUNT		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
COVAR_POP		reserved		
COVAR_SAMP		reserved		
CREATE	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
CREATEDB	non-reserved			
CREATEUSER	non-reserved			
CROSS	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
CSV	non-reserved			
CUBE		reserved	reserved	
CUME_DIST		reserved		
CURRENT		reserved	reserved	reserved
CURRENT_DATE	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
CURRENT_DEFAULT_TRANSFORM_GROUP		reserved		
CURRENT_PATH		reserved	reserved	
CURRENT_ROLE		reserved	reserved	
CURRENT_TIME	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
CURRENT_TIMESTAMP	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
CURRENT_TRANSFORM_GROUP_FOR_TYPE		reserved		
CURRENT_USER	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
CURSOR	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
CURSOR_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
CYCLE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	
DATA		non-reserved	reserved	non-reserved
DATABASE	non-reserved			
DATE		reserved	reserved	reserved
DATETIME_INTERVAL_CODE		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
DATETIME_INTERVAL_PRECISION		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
DAY	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
DEALLOCATE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
DEC	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
DECIMAL	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
DECLARE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
DEFAULT	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
DEFAULTS	non-reserved	non-reserved		
DEFERRABLE	reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
DEFERRED	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
DEFINED		non-reserved	non-reserved	
DEFINER	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	
DEGREE		non-reserved		
DELETE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
DELIMITER	non-reserved			
DELIMITERS	non-reserved			
DENSE_RANK		reserved		
DEPTH		non-reserved	reserved	
DEREF		reserved	reserved	
DERIVED		non-reserved		
DESC	reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
DESCRIBE		reserved	reserved	reserved
DESCRIPTOR		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
DESTROY			reserved	
DESTRUCTOR			reserved	
DETERMINISTIC		reserved	reserved	
DIAGNOSTICS		non-reserved	reserved	reserved

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
DICTIONARY			reserved	
DISCONNECT		reserved	reserved	reserved
DISPATCH		non-reserved	non-reserved	
DISTINCT	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
DO	reserved			
DOMAIN	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
DOUBLE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
DROP	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
DYNAMIC		reserved	reserved	
DYNAMIC_FUNCTION		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
DYNAMIC_FUNCTION_CODE		non-reserved	non-reserved	
EACH	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	
ELEMENT		reserved		
ELSE	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ENCODING	non-reserved			
ENCRYPTED	non-reserved			
END	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
END-EXEC		reserved	reserved	reserved
EQUALS		non-reserved	reserved	
ESCAPE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
EVERY		reserved	reserved	
EXCEPT	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
EXCEPTION		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
EXCLUDE		non-reserved		
EXCLUDING	non-reserved	non-reserved		
EXCLUSIVE	non-reserved			
EXEC		reserved	reserved	reserved
EXECUTE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
EXISTING			non-reserved	
EXISTS	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
EXP		reserved		
EXPLAIN	non-reserved			
EXTERNAL	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
EXTRACT	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
FALSE	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
FETCH	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
FILTER		reserved		
FINAL		non-reserved	non-reserved	
FIRST	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
FLOAT	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
FLOOR		reserved		
FOLLOWING		non-reserved		
FOR	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
FORCE	non-reserved			
FOREIGN	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
FORTRAN		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
FORWARD	non-reserved			
FOUND		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
FREE		reserved	reserved	
FREEZE	reserved (can be function)			
FROM	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
FULL	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
FUNCTION	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	
FUSION		reserved		
G		non-reserved	non-reserved	
GENERAL		non-reserved	reserved	
GENERATED		non-reserved	non-reserved	
GET		reserved	reserved	reserved
GLOBAL	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
GO		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
GOTO		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
GRANT	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
GRANTED		non-reserved	non-reserved	
GROUP	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
GROUPING		reserved	reserved	
HANDLER	non-reserved			

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
HAVING	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
HIERARCHY		non-reserved	non-reserved	
HOLD	non-reserved	reserved	non-reserved	
HOST			reserved	
HOURL	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
IDENTITY		reserved	reserved	reserved
IGNORE			reserved	
ILIKE	reserved (can be function)			
IMMEDIATE	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
IMMUTABLE	non-reserved			
IMPLEMENTATION		non-reserved	non-reserved	
IMPLICIT	non-reserved			
IN	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
INCLUDING	non-reserved	non-reserved		
INCREMENT	non-reserved	non-reserved		
INDEX	non-reserved			
INDICATOR		reserved	reserved	reserved
INFIX			non-reserved	
INHERITS	non-reserved			
INITIALIZE			reserved	
INITIALLY	reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
INNER	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
INOUT	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	
INPUT	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
INSENSITIVE	non-reserved	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
INSERT	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
INSTANCE		non-reserved	non-reserved	
INSTANTIABLE		non-reserved	non-reserved	
INSTEAD	non-reserved			
INT	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
INTEGER	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
INTERSECT	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
INTERSECTION		reserved		
INTERVAL	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
INTO	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
INVOKER	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	
IS	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
ISNULL	reserved (can be function)			
ISOLATION	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
ITERATE			reserved	
JOIN	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
K		non-reserved	non-reserved	
KEY	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
KEY_MEMBER		non-reserved	non-reserved	
KEY_TYPE		non-reserved	non-reserved	
LANCOMPILER	non-reserved			
LANGUAGE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
LARGE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	
LAST	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
LATERAL		reserved	reserved	
LEADING	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
LEFT	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
LENGTH		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
LESS			reserved	
LEVEL	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
LIKE	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
LIMIT	reserved		reserved	
LISTEN	non-reserved			
LN		reserved		
LOAD	non-reserved			
LOCAL	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
LOCALTIME	reserved	reserved	reserved	
LOCALTIMESTAMP	reserved	reserved	reserved	
LOCATION	non-reserved			
LOCATOR		non-reserved	reserved	

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
LOCK	non-reserved			
LOWER		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
M		non-reserved	non-reserved	
MAP		non-reserved	reserved	
MATCH	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
MATCHED		non-reserved		
MAX		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
MAXVALUE	non-reserved	non-reserved		
MEMBER		reserved		
MERGE		reserved		
MESSAGE_LENGTH		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
MESSAGE_OCTET_LENGTH		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
MESSAGE_TEXT		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
METHOD		reserved	non-reserved	
MIN		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
MINUTE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
MINVALUE	non-reserved	non-reserved		
MOD		reserved	non-reserved	
MODE	non-reserved			
MODIFIES		reserved	reserved	
MODIFY			reserved	
MODULE		reserved	reserved	reserved
MONTH	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
MORE		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
MOVE	non-reserved			
MULTISET		reserved		
MUMPS		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
NAMES	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
NATIONAL	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
NATURAL	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
NCHAR	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
NCLOB		reserved	reserved	

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
NESTING		non-reserved		
NEW	reserved	reserved	reserved	
NEXT	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
NO	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
NOCREATEDB	non-reserved			
NOCREATEUSER	non-reserved			
NONE	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	
NORMALIZE		reserved		
NORMALIZED		non-reserved		
NOT	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
NOTHING	non-reserved			
NOTIFY	non-reserved			
NOTNULL	reserved (can be function)			
NOWAIT	non-reserved			
NULL	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
NULLABLE		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
NULLIF	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
NULLS		non-reserved		
NUMBER		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
NUMERIC	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
OBJECT	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	
OCTETS		non-reserved		
OCTET_LENGTH		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
OF	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
OFF	reserved		reserved	
OFFSET	reserved			
OIDS	non-reserved			
OLD	reserved	reserved	reserved	
ON	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ONLY	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
OPEN		reserved	reserved	reserved
OPERATION			reserved	
OPERATOR	non-reserved			

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
OPTION	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
OPTIONS		non-reserved	non-reserved	
OR	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ORDER	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ORDERING		non-reserved		
ORDINALITY		non-reserved	reserved	
OTHERS		non-reserved		
OUT	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	
OUTER	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
OUTPUT		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
OVER		reserved		
OVERLAPS	reserved (can be function)	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
OVERLAY	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	non-reserved	
OVERRIDING		non-reserved	non-reserved	
OWNER	non-reserved			
PAD		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
PARAMETER		reserved	reserved	
PARAMETERS			reserved	
PARAMETER_MODE		non-reserved	non-reserved	
PARAMETER_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	
PARAMETER_ORDINAL_POSITION		non-reserved	non-reserved	
PARAMETER_SPECIFIC_CATALOG		non-reserved	non-reserved	
PARAMETER_SPECIFIC_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	
PARAMETER_SPECIFIC_SCHEMA		non-reserved	non-reserved	
PARTIAL	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
PARTITION		reserved		
PASCAL		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
PASSWORD	non-reserved			
PATH		non-reserved	reserved	
PERCENTILE_CONT		reserved		

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
PERCENTILE_DISC		reserved		
PERCENT_RANK		reserved		
PLACING	reserved	non-reserved		
PLI		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
POSITION	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
POSTFIX			reserved	
POWER		reserved		
PRECEDING		non-reserved		
PRECISION	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
PREFIX			reserved	
PREORDER			reserved	
PREPARE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
PRESERVE	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
PRIMARY	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
PRIOR	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
PRIVILEGES	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
PROCEDURAL	non-reserved			
PROCEDURE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
PUBLIC		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
QUOTE	non-reserved			
RANGE		reserved		
RANK		reserved		
READ	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
READS		reserved	reserved	
REAL	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
RECHECK	non-reserved			
RECURSIVE		reserved	reserved	
REF		reserved	reserved	
REFERENCES	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
REFERENCING		reserved	reserved	
REGR_AVGX		reserved		
REGR_AVGY		reserved		
REGR_COUNT		reserved		

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
REGR_INTERCEPT		reserved		
REGR_R2		reserved		
REGR_SLOPE		reserved		
REGR_SXX		reserved		
REGR_SXY		reserved		
REGR_SYY		reserved		
REINDEX	non-reserved			
RELATIVE	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
RELEASE	non-reserved	reserved		
RENAME	non-reserved			
REPEATABLE	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
REPLACE	non-reserved			
RESET	non-reserved			
RESTART	non-reserved	non-reserved		
RESTRICT	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
RESULT		reserved	reserved	
RETURN		reserved	reserved	
RETURNED_CARDINALITY		non-reserved		
RETURNED_LENGTH		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
RETURNED_OCTET_LENGTH		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
RETURNED_SQLSTATE		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
RETURNS	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	
REVOKE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
RIGHT	reserved (can be function)	reserved	reserved	reserved
ROLE		non-reserved	reserved	
ROLLBACK	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
ROLLUP		reserved	reserved	
ROUTINE		non-reserved	reserved	
ROUTINE_CATALOG		non-reserved	non-reserved	
ROUTINE_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	
ROUTINE_SCHEMA		non-reserved	non-reserved	
ROW	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	
ROWS	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
ROW_COUNT		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
ROW_NUMBER		reserved		
RULE	non-reserved			
SAVEPOINT	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	
SCALE		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
SCHEMA	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
SCHEMA_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
SCOPE		reserved	reserved	
SCOPE_CATALOG		non-reserved		
SCOPE_NAME		non-reserved		
SCOPE_SCHEMA		non-reserved		
SCROLL	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
SEARCH		reserved	reserved	
SECOND	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
SECTION		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
SECURITY	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	
SELECT	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
SELF		non-reserved	non-reserved	
SENSITIVE		reserved	non-reserved	
SEQUENCE	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	
SERIALIZABLE	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
SERVER_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
SESSION	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
SESSION_USER	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
SET	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
SETOF	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)			
SETS		non-reserved	reserved	
SHARE	non-reserved			
SHOW	non-reserved			
SIMILAR	reserved (can be function)	reserved	non-reserved	
SIMPLE	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	
SIZE		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
SMALLINT	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
SOME	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
SOURCE		non-reserved	non-reserved	
SPACE		non-reserved	reserved	reserved
SPECIFIC		reserved	reserved	
SPECIFICTYPE		reserved	reserved	
SPECIFIC_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	
SQL		reserved	reserved	reserved
SQLCODE				reserved
SQLERROR				reserved
SQLEXCEPTION		reserved	reserved	
SQLSTATE		reserved	reserved	reserved
SQLWARNING		reserved	reserved	
SQRT		reserved		
STABLE	non-reserved			
START	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	
STATE		non-reserved	reserved	
STATEMENT	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	
STATIC		reserved	reserved	
STATISTICS	non-reserved			
STDDEV_POP		reserved		
STDDEV_SAMP		reserved		
STDIN	non-reserved			
STDOUT	non-reserved			
STORAGE	non-reserved			
STRICT	non-reserved			
STRUCTURE		non-reserved	reserved	
STYLE		non-reserved	non-reserved	
SUBCLASS_ORIGIN		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
SUBLIST			non-reserved	
SUBMULTISET		reserved		
SUBSTRING	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
SUM		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
SYMMETRIC		reserved	non-reserved	
SYSID	non-reserved			
SYSTEM		reserved	non-reserved	
SYSTEM_USER		reserved	reserved	reserved
TABLE	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
TABLESAMPLE		reserved		

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
TABLESPACE	non-reserved			
TABLE_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
TEMP	non-reserved			
TEMPLATE	non-reserved			
TEMPORARY	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
TERMINATE			reserved	
THAN			reserved	
THEN	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
TIES		non-reserved		
TIME	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
TIMESTAMP	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved
TIMEZONE_HOUR		reserved	reserved	reserved
TIMEZONE_MINUTE		reserved	reserved	reserved
TO	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
TOAST	non-reserved			
TOP_LEVEL_COUNT		non-reserved		
TRAILING	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
TRANSACTION	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
TRANSACTIONS_COMMITTED		non-reserved	non-reserved	
TRANSACTIONS_ROLLED_BACK		non-reserved	non-reserved	
TRANSACTION_ACTIVE		non-reserved	non-reserved	
TRANSFORM		non-reserved	non-reserved	
TRANSFORMS		non-reserved	non-reserved	
TRANSLATE		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
TRANSLATION		reserved	reserved	reserved
TREAT	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	
TRIGGER	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	
TRIGGER_CATALOG		non-reserved	non-reserved	
TRIGGER_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	
TRIGGER_SCHEMA		non-reserved	non-reserved	

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
TRIM	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	non-reserved	reserved
TRUE	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
TRUNCATE	non-reserved			
TRUSTED	non-reserved			
TYPE	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
UESCAPE		reserved		
UNBOUNDED		non-reserved		
UNCOMMITTED	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
UNDER		non-reserved	reserved	
UNENCRYPTED	non-reserved			
UNION	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
UNIQUE	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
UNKNOWN	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
UNLISTEN	non-reserved			
UNNAMED		non-reserved	non-reserved	non-reserved
UNNEST		reserved	reserved	
UNTIL	non-reserved			
UPDATE	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
UPPER		reserved	non-reserved	reserved
USAGE	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
USER	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
USER_DEFINED_TYPE_CATALOG		non-reserved	non-reserved	
USER_DEFINED_TYPE_CODE		non-reserved		
USER_DEFINED_TYPE_NAME		non-reserved	non-reserved	
USER_DEFINED_TYPE_SCHEMA		non-reserved	non-reserved	
USING	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
VACUUM	non-reserved			
VALID	non-reserved			
VALIDATOR	non-reserved			
VALUE		reserved	reserved	reserved
VALUES	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
VARCHAR	non-reserved (cannot be function or type)	reserved	reserved	reserved

Key Word	PostgreSQL	SQL:2003	SQL:1999	SQL-92
VARIABLE			reserved	
VARYING	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
VAR_POP		reserved		
VAR_SAMP		reserved		
VERBOSE	reserved (can be function)			
VIEW	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
VOLATILE	non-reserved			
WHEN	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
WHENEVER		reserved	reserved	reserved
WHERE	reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
WIDTH_BUCKET		reserved		
WINDOW		reserved		
WITH	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	reserved
WITHIN		reserved		
WITHOUT	non-reserved	reserved	reserved	
WORK	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
WRITE	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved
YEAR	non-reserved		reserved	reserved
ZONE	non-reserved	non-reserved	reserved	reserved

Appendix D. SQL Conformance

This section attempts to outline to what extent PostgreSQL conforms to the current SQL standard. The following information is not a full statement of conformance, but it presents the main topics in as much detail as is both reasonable and useful for users.

The formal name of the SQL standard is ISO/IEC 9075 “Database Language SQL”. A revised version of the standard is released from time to time; the most recent one appearing in late 2003. That version is referred to as ISO/IEC 9075:2003, or simply as SQL:2003. The versions prior to that were SQL:1999 and SQL-92. Each version replaces the previous one, so claims of conformance to earlier versions have no official merit. PostgreSQL development aims for conformance with the latest official version of the standard where such conformance does not contradict traditional features or common sense. The PostgreSQL project was not represented in the ISO/IEC 9075 Working Group during the preparation of SQL:2003. Even so, many of the features required by SQL:2003 are already supported, though sometimes with slightly differing syntax or function. Further moves towards conformance may be expected in later releases.

SQL-92 defined three feature sets for conformance: Entry, Intermediate, and Full. Most database management systems claiming SQL standard conformance were conforming at only the Entry level, since the entire set of features in the Intermediate and Full levels was either too voluminous or in conflict with legacy behaviors.

Starting with SQL:1999, the SQL standard defines a large set of individual features rather than the ineffectively broad three levels found in SQL-92. A large subset of these features represents the “Core” features, which every conforming SQL implementation must supply. The rest of the features are purely optional. Some optional features are grouped together to form “packages”, which SQL implementations can claim conformance to, thus claiming conformance to particular groups of features.

The SQL:2003 standard is also split into a number of parts. Each is known by a shorthand name. Note that these parts are not consecutively numbered.

- ISO/IEC 9075-1 Framework (SQL/Framework)
- ISO/IEC 9075-2 Foundation (SQL/Foundation)
- ISO/IEC 9075-3 Call Level Interface (SQL/CLI)
- ISO/IEC 9075-4 Persistent Stored Modules (SQL/PSM)
- ISO/IEC 9075-9 Management of External Data (SQL/MED)
- ISO/IEC 9075-10 Object Language Bindings (SQL/OLB)
- ISO/IEC 9075-11 Information and Definition Schemas (SQL/Schemata)
- ISO/IEC 9075-13 Routines and Types using the Java Language (SQL/JRT)
- ISO/IEC 9075-14 XML-related specifications (SQL/XML)

PostgreSQL covers parts 1, 2, and 11. Part 3 is similar to the ODBC interface, and part 4 is similar to the PL/pgSQL programming language, but exact conformance is not specifically intended or verified in either case.

PostgreSQL supports most of the major features of SQL:2003. Out of 164 mandatory features required for full Core conformance, PostgreSQL conforms to at least 150. In addition, there is a long list of supported optional features. It may be worth noting that at the time of writing, no current version of any database management system claims full conformance to Core SQL:2003.

In the following two sections, we provide a list of those features that PostgreSQL supports, followed by a list of the features defined in SQL:2003 which are not yet supported in PostgreSQL. Both of these lists are approximate: There may be minor details that are nonconforming for a feature that is listed as supported, and large parts of an unsupported feature may in fact be implemented. The main body of the documentation always contains the most accurate information about what does and does not work.

Note: Feature codes containing a hyphen are subfeatures. Therefore, if a particular subfeature is not supported, the main feature is listed as unsupported even if some other subfeatures are supported.

D.1. Supported Features

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
B012		Embedded C	
B021		Direct SQL	
E011	Core	Numeric data types	
E011-01	Core	INTEGER and SMALLINT data types	
E011-02	Core	REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, and FLOAT data types	
E011-03	Core	DECIMAL and NUMERIC data types	
E011-04	Core	Arithmetic operators	
E011-05	Core	Numeric comparison	
E011-06	Core	Implicit casting among the numeric data types	
E021	Core	Character data types	
E021-01	Core	CHARACTER data type	
E021-02	Core	CHARACTER VARYING data type	
E021-03	Core	Character literals	
E021-04	Core	CHARACTER_LENGTH function	trims trailing spaces from CHARACTER values before counting

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
E021-05	Core	OCTET_LENGTH function	
E021-06	Core	SUBSTRING function	
E021-07	Core	Character concatenation	
E021-08	Core	UPPER and LOWER functions	
E021-09	Core	TRIM function	
E021-10	Core	Implicit casting among the character string types	
E021-11	Core	POSITION function	
E021-12	Core	Character comparison	
E031	Core	Identifiers	
E031-01	Core	Delimited identifiers	
E031-02	Core	Lower case identifiers	
E031-03	Core	Trailing underscore	
E051	Core	Basic query specification	
E051-01	Core	SELECT DISTINCT	
E051-02	Core	GROUP BY clause	
E051-04	Core	GROUP BY can contain columns not in <select list>	
E051-05	Core	Select list items can be renamed	AS is required
E051-06	Core	HAVING clause	
E051-07	Core	Qualified * in select list	
E051-08	Core	Correlation names in the FROM clause	
E051-09	Core	Rename columns in the FROM clause	
E061	Core	Basic predicates and search conditions	
E061-01	Core	Comparison predicate	
E061-02	Core	BETWEEN predicate	
E061-03	Core	IN predicate with list of values	
E061-04	Core	LIKE predicate	
E061-05	Core	LIKE predicate ESCAPE clause	
E061-06	Core	NULL predicate	
E061-07	Core	Quantified comparison predicate	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
E061-08	Core	EXISTS predicate	
E061-09	Core	Subqueries in comparison predicate	
E061-11	Core	Subqueries in IN predicate	
E061-12	Core	Subqueries in quantified comparison predicate	
E061-13	Core	Correlated subqueries	
E061-14	Core	Search condition	
E071	Core	Basic query expressions	
E071-01	Core	UNION DISTINCT table operator	
E071-02	Core	UNION ALL table operator	
E071-03	Core	EXCEPT DISTINCT table operator	
E071-05	Core	Columns combined via table operators need not have exactly the same data type	
E071-06	Core	Table operators in subqueries	
E081-01	Core	SELECT privilege	
E081-02	Core	DELETE privilege	
E081-03	Core	INSERT privilege at the table level	
E081-04	Core	UPDATE privilege at the table level	
E081-06	Core	REFERENCES privilege at the table level	
E081-08	Core	WITH GRANT OPTION	
E081-10	Core	EXECUTE privilege	
E091	Core	Set functions	
E091-01	Core	AVG	
E091-02	Core	COUNT	
E091-03	Core	MAX	
E091-04	Core	MIN	
E091-05	Core	SUM	
E091-06	Core	ALL quantifier	
E091-07	Core	DISTINCT quantifier	
E101	Core	Basic data manipulation	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
E101-01	Core	INSERT statement	
E101-03	Core	Searched UPDATE statement	
E101-04	Core	Searched DELETE statement	
E111	Core	Single row SELECT statement	
E121-01	Core	DECLARE CURSOR	
E121-02	Core	ORDER BY columns need not be in select list	
E121-03	Core	Value expressions in ORDER BY clause	
E121-04	Core	OPEN statement	
E121-08	Core	CLOSE statement	
E121-10	Core	FETCH statement implicit NEXT	
E121-17	Core	WITH HOLD cursors	
E131	Core	Null value support (nulls in lieu of values)	
E141	Core	Basic integrity constraints	
E141-01	Core	NOT NULL constraints	
E141-02	Core	UNIQUE constraints of NOT NULL columns	
E141-03	Core	PRIMARY KEY constraints	
E141-04	Core	Basic FOREIGN KEY constraint with the NO ACTION default for both referential delete action and referential update action	
E141-06	Core	CHECK constraints	
E141-07	Core	Column defaults	
E141-08	Core	NOT NULL inferred on PRIMARY KEY	
E141-10	Core	Names in a foreign key can be specified in any order	
E151	Core	Transaction support	
E151-01	Core	COMMIT statement	
E151-02	Core	ROLLBACK statement	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
E152	Core	Basic SET TRANSACTION statement	
E152-01	Core	SET TRANSACTION statement: ISOLATION LEVEL SERIALIZABLE clause	
E152-02	Core	SET TRANSACTION statement: READ ONLY and READ WRITE clauses	
E161	Core	SQL comments using leading double minus	
E171	Core	SQLSTATE support	
F021	Core	Basic information schema	
F021-01	Core	COLUMNS view	
F021-02	Core	TABLES view	
F021-03	Core	VIEWS view	
F021-04	Core	TABLE_CONSTRAINTS view	
F021-05	Core	REFERENTIAL_CONSTRAINTS view	
F021-06	Core	CHECK_CONSTRAINTS view	
F031	Core	Basic schema manipulation	
F031-01	Core	CREATE TABLE statement to create persistent base tables	
F031-02	Core	CREATE VIEW statement	
F031-03	Core	GRANT statement	
F031-04	Core	ALTER TABLE statement: ADD COLUMN clause	
F031-13	Core	DROP TABLE statement: RESTRICT clause	
F031-16	Core	DROP VIEW statement: RESTRICT clause	
F031-19	Core	REVOKE statement: RESTRICT clause	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
F032		CASCADE drop behavior	
F033		ALTER TABLE statement: DROP COLUMN clause	
F034		Extended REVOKE statement	
F034-01		REVOKE statement performed by other than the owner of a schema object	
F034-02		REVOKE statement: GRANT OPTION FOR clause	
F034-03		REVOKE statement to revoke a privilege that the grantee has WITH GRANT OPTION	
F041	Core	Basic joined table	
F041-01	Core	Inner join (but not necessarily the INNER keyword)	
F041-02	Core	INNER keyword	
F041-03	Core	LEFT OUTER JOIN	
F041-04	Core	RIGHT OUTER JOIN	
F041-05	Core	Outer joins can be nested	
F041-07	Core	The inner table in a left or right outer join can also be used in an inner join	
F041-08	Core	All comparison operators are supported (rather than just =)	
F051	Core	Basic date and time	
F051-01	Core	DATE data type (including support of DATE literal)	
F051-02	Core	TIME data type (including support of TIME literal) with fractional seconds precision of at least 0	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
F051-03	Core	TIMESTAMP data type (including support of TIMESTAMP literal) with fractional seconds precision of at least 0 and 6	
F051-04	Core	Comparison predicate on DATE, TIME, and TIMESTAMP data types	
F051-05	Core	Explicit CAST between datetime types and character string types	
F051-06	Core	CURRENT_DATE	
F051-07	Core	LOCALTIME	
F051-08	Core	LOCALTIMESTAMP	
F052	Enhanced datetime facilities	Intervals and datetime arithmetic	
F053		OVERLAPS predicate	
F081	Core	UNION and EXCEPT in views	
F111		Isolation levels other than SERIALIZABLE	
F111-01		READ UNCOMMITTED isolation level	
F111-02		READ COMMITTED isolation level	
F111-03		REPEATABLE READ isolation level	
F131	Core	Grouped operations	
F131-01	Core	WHERE, GROUP BY, and HAVING clauses supported in queries with grouped views	
F131-02	Core	Multiple tables supported in queries with grouped views	
F131-03	Core	Set functions supported in queries with grouped views	
F131-04	Core	Subqueries with GROUP BY and HAVING clauses and grouped views	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
F131-05	Core	Single row SELECT with GROUP BY and HAVING clauses and grouped views	
F171		Multiple schemas per user	
F191	Enhanced integrity management	Referential delete actions	
F201	Core	CAST function	
F221	Core	Explicit defaults	
F222		INSERT statement: DEFAULT VALUES clause	
F231		Privilege tables	
F231-01		TABLE_PRIVILEGES view	
F231-02		COLUMN_PRIVILEGES view	
F231-03		USAGE_PRIVILEGES view	
F251		Domain support	
F261	Core	CASE expression	
F261-01	Core	Simple CASE	
F261-02	Core	Searched CASE	
F261-03	Core	NULLIF	
F261-04	Core	COALESCE	
F271		Compound character literals	
F281		LIKE enhancements	
F302		INTERSECT table operator	
F302-01		INTERSECT DISTINCT table operator	
F302-02		INTERSECT ALL table operator	
F304		EXCEPT ALL table operator	
F311-01	Core	CREATE SCHEMA	
F311-02	Core	CREATE TABLE for persistent base tables	
F311-03	Core	CREATE VIEW	
F311-05	Core	GRANT statement	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
F321		User authorization	
F361		Subprogram support	
F381		Extended schema manipulation	
F381-01		ALTER TABLE statement: ALTER COLUMN clause	
F381-02		ALTER TABLE statement: ADD CONSTRAINT clause	
F381-03		ALTER TABLE statement: DROP CONSTRAINT clause	
F391		Long identifiers	
F401		Extended joined table	
F401-01		NATURAL JOIN	
F401-02		FULL OUTER JOIN	
F401-04		CROSS JOIN	
F411	Enhanced datetime facilities	Time zone specification	differences regarding literal interpretation
F421		National character	
F431		Read-only scrollable cursors	
F431-01		FETCH with explicit NEXT	
F431-02		FETCH FIRST	
F431-03		FETCH LAST	
F431-04		FETCH PRIOR	
F431-05		FETCH ABSOLUTE	
F431-06		FETCH RELATIVE	
F441		Extended set function support	
F471	Core	Scalar subquery values	
F481	Core	Expanded NULL predicate	
F491	Enhanced integrity management	Constraint management	
F501	Core	Features and conformance views	
F501-01	Core	SQL_FEATURES view	
F501-02	Core	SQL_SIZING view	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
F501-03	Core	SQL_LANGUAGES view	
F502		Enhanced documentation tables	
F502-01		SQL_SIZING_PROFILES view	
F502-02		SQL_IMPLEMENTATION_INFO view	
F502-03		SQL_PACKAGES view	
F531		Temporary tables	
F555	Enhanced datetime facilities	Enhanced seconds precision	
F561		Full value expressions	
F571		Truth value tests	
F591		Derived tables	
F611		Indicator data types	
F651		Catalog name qualifiers	
F672		Retrospective check constraints	
F701	Enhanced integrity management	Referential update actions	
F711		ALTER domain	
F761		Session management	
F771		Connection management	
F781		Self-referencing operations	
F791		Insensitive cursors	
F801		Full set function	
S071	Enhanced object support	SQL paths in function and type name resolution	
S111	Enhanced object support	ONLY in query expressions	
S211	Enhanced object support	User-defined cast functions	
T031		BOOLEAN data type	
T071		BIGINT data type	
T141		SIMILAR predicate	
T151		DISTINCT predicate	
T171		LIKE clause in table definition	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
T191	Enhanced integrity management	Referential action RESTRICT	
T201	Enhanced integrity management	Comparable data types for referential constraints	
T211-01	Active database, Enhanced integrity management	Triggers activated on UPDATE, INSERT, or DELETE of one base table	
T211-02	Active database, Enhanced integrity management	BEFORE triggers	
T211-03	Active database, Enhanced integrity management	AFTER triggers	
T211-04	Active database, Enhanced integrity management	FOR EACH ROW triggers	
T211-07	Active database, Enhanced integrity management	TRIGGER privilege	
T212	Enhanced integrity management	Enhanced trigger capability	
T231		Sensitive cursors	
T241		START TRANSACTION statement	
T271		Savepoints	
T312		OVERLAY function	
T321-01	Core	User-defined functions with no overloading	
T321-03	Core	Function invocation	
T321-06	Core	ROUTINES view	
T321-07	Core	PARAMETERS view	
T322	PSM	Overloading of SQL-invoked functions and procedures	
T323		Explicit security for external routines	
T351		Bracketed SQL comments (/*...*/ comments)	
T441		ABS and MOD functions	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
T501		Enhanced EXISTS predicate	
T551		Optional key words for default syntax	
T581		Regular expression substring function	
T591		UNIQUE constraints of possibly null columns	

D.2. Unsupported Features

The following features defined in SQL:2003 are not implemented in this release of PostgreSQL. In a few cases, equivalent functionality is available.

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
B011		Embedded Ada	
B013		Embedded COBOL	
B014		Embedded Fortran	
B015		Embedded MUMPS	
B016		Embedded Pascal	
B017		Embedded PL/I	
B031		Basic dynamic SQL	
B032		Extended dynamic SQL	
B032-01		<describe input statement>	
B033		Untyped SQL-invoked function arguments	
B034		Dynamic specification of cursor attributes	
B041		Extensions to embedded SQL exception declarations	
B051		Enhanced execution rights	
B111		Module language Ada	
B112		Module language C	
B113		Module language COBOL	
B114		Module language Fortran	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
B115		Module language MUMPS	
B116		Module language Pascal	
B117		Module language PL/I	
B121		Routine language Ada	
B122		Routine language C	
B123		Routine language COBOL	
B124		Routine language Fortran	
B125		Routine language MUMPS	
B126		Routine language Pascal	
B127		Routine language PL/I	
B128		Routine language SQL	
C011	Core	Call-Level Interface	
E081	Core	Basic Privileges	
E081-05	Core	UPDATE privilege at the column level	
E081-07	Core	REFERENCES privilege at the column level	
E081-09	Core	USAGE privilege	
E121	Core	Basic cursor support	
E121-06	Core	Positioned UPDATE statement	
E121-07	Core	Positioned DELETE statement	
E153	Core	Updatable queries with subqueries	
E182	Core	Module language	
F121		Basic diagnostics management	
F121-01		GET DIAGNOSTICS statement	
F121-02		SET TRANSACTION statement: DIAGNOSTICS SIZE clause	
F181	Core	Multiple module support	
F262		Extended CASE expression	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
F263		Comma-separated predicates in simple CASE expression	
F291		UNIQUE predicate	
F301		CORRESPONDING in query expressions	
F311	Core	Schema definition statement	
F311-04	Core	CREATE VIEW: WITH CHECK OPTION	
F312		MERGE statement	
F341		Usage tables	
F392		Unicode escapes in identifiers	
F393		Unicode escapes in literals	
F402		Named column joins for LOBs, arrays, and multisets	
F442		Mixed column references in set functions	
F451		Character set definition	
F461		Named character sets	
F521	Enhanced integrity management	Assertions	
F641		Row and table constructors	
F661		Simple tables	
F671	Enhanced integrity management	Subqueries in CHECK	intentionally omitted
F691		Collation and translation	
F692		Enhanced collation support	
F693		SQL-session and client module collations	
F695		Translation support	
F696		Additional translation documentation	
F721		Deferrable constraints	foreign keys only
F731		INSERT column privileges	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
F741		Referential MATCH types	no partial match yet
F751		View CHECK enhancements	
F811		Extended flagging	
F812	Core	Basic flagging	
F813		Extended flagging	
F821		Local table references	
F831		Full cursor update	
F831-01		Updatable scrollable cursors	
F831-02		Updatable ordered cursors	
S011	Core	Distinct data types	
S011-01	Core	USER_DEFINED_TYPES view	
S023	Basic object support	Basic structured types	
S024	Enhanced object support	Enhanced structured types	
S025		Final structured types	
S026		Self-referencing structured types	
S027		Create method by specific method name	
S028		Permutable UDT options list	
S041	Basic object support	Basic reference types	
S043	Enhanced object support	Enhanced reference types	
S051	Basic object support	Create table of type	
S081	Enhanced object support	Subtables	
S091		Basic array support	
S091-01		Arrays of built-in data types	
S091-02		Arrays of distinct types	
S091-03		Array expressions	
S092		Arrays of user-defined types	
S094		Arrays of reference types	
S095		Array constructors by query	
S096		Optional array bounds	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
S097		Array element assignment	
S151	Basic object support	Type predicate	
S161	Enhanced object support	Subtype treatment	
S162		Subtype treatment for references	
S201		SQL-invoked routines on arrays	
S201-01		Array parameters	
S201-02		Array as result type of functions	
S202		SQL-invoked routines on multisets	
S231	Enhanced object support	Structured type locators	
S232		Array locators	
S233		Multiset locators	
S241		Transform functions	
S242		Alter transform statement	
S251		User-defined orderings	
S261		Specific type method	
S271		Basic multiset support	
S272		Multisets of user-defined types	
S274		Multisets of reference types	
S275		Advanced multiset support	
S281		Nested collection types	
S291		Unique constraint on entire row	
T011		Timestamp in Information Schema	
T041	Basic object support	Basic LOB data type support	
T041-01	Basic object support	BLOB data type	
T041-02	Basic object support	CLOB data type	
T041-03	Basic object support	POSITION, LENGTH, LOWER, TRIM, UPPER, and SUBSTRING functions for LOB data types	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
T041-04	Basic object support	Concatenation of LOB data types	
T041-05	Basic object support	LOB locator: non-holdable	
T042		Extended LOB data type support	
T051		Row types	
T052		MAX and MIN for row types	
T053		Explicit aliases for all-fields reference	
T061		UCS support	
T111		Updatable joins, unions, and columns	
T121		WITH (excluding RECURSIVE) in query expression	
T122		WITH (excluding RECURSIVE) in subquery	
T131		Recursive query	
T132		Recursive query in subquery	
T152		DISTINCT predicate with negation	
T172		AS subquery clause in table definition	
T173		Extended LIKE clause in table definition	
T174		Identity columns	
T175		Generated columns	
T176		Sequence generator support	
T211	Active database, Enhanced integrity management	Basic trigger capability	
T211-05	Active database, Enhanced integrity management	Ability to specify a search condition that must be true before the trigger is invoked	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
T211-06	Active database, Enhanced integrity management	Support for run-time rules for the interaction of triggers and constraints	
T211-08	Active database, Enhanced integrity management	Multiple triggers for the same event are executed in the order in which they were created in the catalog	intentionally omitted
T251		SET TRANSACTION statement: LOCAL option	
T261		Chained transactions	
T272		Enhanced savepoint management	
T281		SELECT privilege with column granularity	
T301		Functional dependencies	
T321	Core	Basic SQL-invoked routines	
T321-02	Core	User-defined stored procedures with no overloading	
T321-04	Core	CALL statement	
T321-05	Core	RETURN statement	
T324		Explicit security for SQL routines	
T325		Qualified SQL parameter references	
T326		Table functions	
T331		Basic roles	
T332		Extended roles	
T401		INSERT into a cursor	
T411		UPDATE statement: SET ROW option	
T431	OLAP	Extended grouping capabilities	
T432		Nested and concatenated GROUPING SETS	
T433		Multiargument GROUPING function	
T434		GROUP BY DISINCT	

Identifier	Package	Description	Comment
T461		Symmetric BETWEEN predicate	
T471		Result sets return value	
T491		LATERAL derived table	
T511		Transaction counts	
T541		Updatable table references	
T561		Holdable locators	
T571		Array-returning external SQL-invoked functions	
T572		Multiset-returning external SQL-invoked functions	
T601		Local cursor references	
T611	OLAP	Elementary OLAP operations	
T612		Advanced OLAP operations	
T613		Sampling	
T621		Enhanced numeric functions	
T631	Core	IN predicate with one list element	
T641		Multiple column assignment	
T651		SQL-schema statements in SQL routines	
T652		SQL-dynamic statements in SQL routines	
T653		SQL-schema statements in external routines	
T654		SQL-dynamic statements in external routines	
T655		Cyclically dependent routines	

Appendix E. Release Notes

E.1. Release 8.0

Release date: 2005-01-19

E.1.1. Overview

Major changes in this release:

Microsoft Windows Native Server

This is the first PostgreSQL release to run natively on Microsoft Windows® as a server. It can run as a Windows service. This release supports NT-based Windows releases like Windows 2000, Windows XP, and Windows 2003. Older releases like Windows 95, Windows 98, and Windows ME are not supported because these operating systems do not have the infrastructure to support PostgreSQL. A separate installer project has been created to ease installation on Windows — see <http://pgfoundry.org/projects/pginstaller>¹.

Although tested throughout our release cycle, the Windows port does not have the benefit of years of use in production environments that PostgreSQL has on Unix platforms. Therefore it should be treated with the same level of caution as you would a new product.

Previous releases required the Unix emulation toolkit Cygwin in order to run the server on Windows operating systems. PostgreSQL has supported native clients on Windows for many years.

Savepoints

Savepoints allow specific parts of a transaction to be aborted without affecting the remainder of the transaction. Prior releases had no such capability; there was no way to recover from a statement failure within a transaction except by aborting the whole transaction. This feature is valuable for application writers who require error recovery within a complex transaction.

Point-In-Time Recovery

In previous releases there was no way to recover from disk drive failure except to restore from a previous backup or use a standby replication server. Point-in-time recovery allows continuous backup of the server. You can recover either to the point of failure or to some transaction in the past.

Tablespaces

Tablespaces allow administrators to select different file systems for storage of individual tables, indexes, and databases. This improves performance and control over disk space usage. Prior releases used `initlocation` and manual symlink management for such tasks.

1. <http://pgfoundry.org/projects/pginstaller>

Improved Buffer Management, CHECKPOINT, VACUUM

This release has a more intelligent buffer replacement strategy, which will make better use of available shared buffers and improve performance. The performance impact of vacuum and checkpoints is also lessened.

Change Column Types

A column's data type can now be changed with `ALTER TABLE`.

New Perl Server-Side Language

A new version of the `plperl` server-side language now supports a persistent shared storage area, triggers, returning records and arrays of records, and SPI calls to access the database.

Comma-separated-value (CSV) support in COPY

`COPY` can now read and write comma-separated-value files. It has the flexibility to interpret non-standard quoting and separation characters too.

E.1.2. Migration to version 8.0

A dump/restore using `pg_dump` is required for those wishing to migrate data from any previous release.

Observe the following incompatibilities:

- In `READ COMMITTED` serialization mode, volatile functions now see the results of concurrent transactions committed up to the beginning of each statement within the function, rather than up to the beginning of the interactive command that called the function.
- Functions declared `STABLE` or `IMMUTABLE` always use the snapshot of the calling query, and therefore do not see the effects of actions taken after the calling query starts, whether in their own transaction or other transactions. Such a function must be read-only, too, meaning that it cannot use any SQL commands other than `SELECT`.
- Non-deferred `AFTER` triggers are now fired immediately after completion of the triggering query, rather than upon finishing the current interactive command. This makes a difference when the triggering query occurred within a function: the trigger is invoked before the function proceeds to its next operation.
- Server configuration parameters `virtual_host` and `tcPIP_socket` have been replaced with a more general parameter `listen_addresses`. Also, the server now listens on `localhost` by default, which eliminates the need for the `-i` `postmaster` switch in many scenarios.
- Server configuration parameters `SortMem` and `VacuumMem` have been renamed to `work_mem` and `maintenance_work_mem` to better reflect their use. The original names are still supported in `SET` and `SHOW`.
- Server configuration parameters `log_pid`, `log_timestamp`, and `log_source_port` have been replaced with a more general parameter `log_line_prefix`.
- Server configuration parameter `syslog` has been replaced with a more logical `log_destination` variable to control the log output destination.

- Server configuration parameter `log_statement` has been changed so it can selectively log just database modification or data definition statements. Server configuration parameter `log_duration` now prints only when `log_statement` prints the query.
- Server configuration parameter `max_expr_depth` parameter has been replaced with `max_stack_depth` which measures the physical stack size rather than the expression nesting depth. This helps prevent session termination due to stack overflow caused by recursive functions.
- The `length()` function no longer counts trailing spaces in `CHAR(n)` values.
- Casting an integer to `BIT(N)` selects the rightmost N bits of the integer, not the leftmost N bits as before.
- Updating an element or slice of a NULL array value now produces a non-NULL array result, namely an array containing just the assigned-to positions.
- Syntax checking of array input values has been tightened up considerably. Junk that was previously allowed in odd places with odd results now causes an error. Empty-string element values must now be written as "", rather than writing nothing. Also changed behavior with respect to whitespace surrounding array elements: trailing whitespace is now ignored, for symmetry with leading whitespace (which has always been ignored).
- Overflow in integer arithmetic operations is now detected and reported as an error.
- The arithmetic operators associated with the single-byte "char" data type have been removed.
- The `extract()` function (also called `date_part`) now returns the proper year for BC dates. It previously returned one less than the correct year. The function now also returns the proper values for millennium and century.
- CIDR values now must have their non-masked bits be zero. For example, we no longer allow `204.248.199.1/31` as a CIDR value. Such values should never have been accepted by PostgreSQL and will now be rejected.
- `EXECUTE` now returns a completion tag that matches the executed statement.
- `psql`'s `\copy` command now reads or writes to the query's `stdin/stdout`, rather than `psql`'s `stdin/stdout`. The previous behavior can be accessed via new `pstdin/pstdout` parameters.
- The JDBC client interface has been removed from the core distribution, and is now hosted at <http://jdbc.postgresql.org>.
- The Tcl client interface has also been removed. There are several Tcl interfaces now hosted at <http://gborg.postgresql.org>.
- The server now uses its own time zone database, rather than the one supplied by the operating system. This will provide consistent behavior across all platforms. In most cases, there should be little noticeable difference in time zone behavior, except that the time zone names used by `SET/SHOW TimeZone` may be different from what your platform provides.
- `Configure`'s threading option no longer requires users to run tests or edit configuration files; threading options are now detected automatically.
- Now that tablespaces have been implemented, `initlocation` has been removed.

E.1.3. Deprecated Features

Some aspects of PostgreSQL's behavior have been determined to be suboptimal. For the sake of backward compatibility these have not been removed in 8.0, but they are considered deprecated and will be removed in the next major release.

- The 8.1 release will remove the function `to_char(interval, text)`.
- The server now warns of empty strings passed to `oid/float4/float8` data types, but continues to interpret them as zeroes as before. In the next major release, empty strings will be considered invalid input for these data types.
- By default, tables in PostgreSQL 8.0 and earlier are created with OIDs. In the next release, this will *not* be the case: to create a table that contains OIDs, the `WITH OIDS` clause must be specified or the `default_with_oids` configuration parameter must be set. Users are encouraged to explicitly specify `WITH OIDS` if their tables require OIDs for compatibility with future releases of PostgreSQL.

E.1.4. Changes

Below you will find a detailed account of the changes between release 8.0 and the previous major release.

E.1.4.1. Performance Improvements

- Support cross-data-type index usage (Tom)

Before this change, many queries would not use an index if the data types did not match exactly. This improvement makes index usage more intuitive and consistent.
- New buffer replacement strategy that improves caching (Jan)

Prior releases used a least-recently-used (LRU) cache to keep recently referenced pages in memory. The LRU algorithm did not consider the number of times a specific cache entry was accessed, so large table scans could force out useful cache pages. The new cache algorithm uses four separate lists to track most recently used and most frequently used cache pages and dynamically optimize their replacement based on the work load. This should lead to much more efficient use of the shared buffer cache. Administrators who have tested shared buffer sizes in the past should retest with this new cache replacement policy.
- Add subprocess to write dirty buffers periodically to reduce checkpoint writes (Jan)

In previous releases, the checkpoint process, which runs every few minutes, would write all dirty buffers to the operating system's buffer cache then flush all dirty operating system buffers to disk. This resulted in a periodic spike in disk usage that often hurt performance. The new code uses a background writer to trickle disk writes at a steady pace so checkpoints have far fewer dirty pages to write to disk. Also, the new code does not issue a global `sync()` call, but instead `fsync()`s just the files written since the last checkpoint. This should improve performance and minimize degradation during checkpoints.
- Add ability to prolong vacuum to reduce performance impact (Jan)

On busy systems, `VACUUM` performs many I/O requests which can hurt performance for other users. This release allows you to slow down `VACUUM` to reduce its impact on other users, though this increases the total duration of `VACUUM`.

- Improve B-tree index performance for duplicate keys (Dmitry Tkach, Tom)

This improves the way indexes are scanned when many duplicate values exist in the index.

- Use dynamically-generated table size estimates while planning (Tom)

Formerly the planner estimated table sizes using the values seen by the last `VACUUM` or `ANALYZE`, both as to physical table size (number of pages) and number of rows. Now, the current physical table size is obtained from the kernel, and the number of rows is estimated by multiplying the table size by the row density (rows per page) seen by the last `VACUUM` or `ANALYZE`. This should produce more reliable estimates in cases where the table size has changed significantly since the last housekeeping command.

- Improved index usage with `OR` clauses (Tom)

This allows the optimizer to use indexes in statements with many `OR` clauses that would not have been indexed in the past. It can also use multi-column indexes where the first column is specified and the second column is part of an `OR` clause.

- Improve matching of partial index clauses (Tom)

The server is now smarter about using partial indexes in queries involving complex `WHERE` clauses.

- Improve performance of the GEQO optimizer (Tom)

The GEQO optimizer is used to plan queries involving many tables (by default, twelve or more). This release speeds up the way queries are analyzed to decrease time spent in optimization.

- Miscellaneous optimizer improvements

There is not room here to list all the minor improvements made, but numerous special cases work better than in prior releases.

- Improve lookup speed for `C` functions (Tom)

This release uses a hash table to lookup information for dynamically loaded `C` functions. This improves their speed so they perform nearly as quickly as functions that are built into the server executable.

- Add type-specific `ANALYZE` statistics capability (Mark Cave-Ayland)

This feature allows more flexibility in generating statistics for non-standard data types.

- `ANALYZE` now collects statistics for expression indexes (Tom)

Expression indexes (also called functional indexes) allow users to index not just columns but the results of expressions and function calls. With this release, the optimizer can gather and use statistics about the contents of expression indexes. This will greatly improve the quality of planning for queries in which an expression index is relevant.

- New two-stage sampling method for `ANALYZE` (Manfred Koizar)

This gives better statistics when the density of valid rows is very different in different regions of a table.

- Speed up `TRUNCATE` (Tom)

This buys back some of the performance loss observed in 7.4, while still keeping `TRUNCATE` transaction-safe.

E.1.4.2. Server Changes

- Add WAL file archiving and point-in-time recovery (Simon Riggs)

- Add tablespaces so admins can control disk layout (Gavin)

- Add a built-in log rotation program (Andreas Pflug)

It is now possible to log server messages conveniently without relying on either `syslog` or an external log rotation program.

- Add new read-only server configuration parameters to show server compile-time settings: `block_size`, `integer_datetimes`, `max_function_args`, `max_identifier_length`, `max_index_keys` (Joe)

- Make quoting of `sameuser`, `samegroup`, and `all` remove special meaning of these terms in `pg_hba.conf` (Andrew)

- Use clearer IPv6 name `::1/128` for `localhost` in default `pg_hba.conf` (Andrew)

- Use CIDR format in `pg_hba.conf` examples (Andrew)

- Rename server configuration parameters `SortMem` and `VacuumMem` to `work_mem` and `maintenance_work_mem` (Old names still supported) (Tom)

This change was made to clarify that bulk operations such as index and foreign key creation use `maintenance_work_mem`, while `work_mem` is for workspaces used during query execution.

- Allow logging of session disconnections using server configuration `log_disconnections` (Andrew)

- Add new server configuration parameter `log_line_prefix` to allow control of information emitted in each log line (Andrew)

Available information includes user name, database name, remote IP address, and session start time.

- Remove server configuration parameters `log_pid`, `log_timestamp`, `log_source_port`; functionality superseded by `log_line_prefix` (Andrew)
- Replace the `virtual_host` and `tcpip_socket` parameters with a unified `listen_addresses` parameter (Andrew, Tom)

`virtual_host` could only specify a single IP address to listen on. `listen_addresses` allows multiple addresses to be specified.

- Listen on localhost by default, which eliminates the need for the `-i postmaster` switch in many scenarios (Andrew)

Listening on localhost (`127.0.0.1`) opens no new security holes but allows configurations like Windows and JDBC, which do not support local sockets, to work without special adjustments.

- Remove `syslog` server configuration parameter, and add more logical `log_destination` variable to control log output location (Magnus)
- Change server configuration parameter `log_statement` to take values `all`, `mod`, `ddl`, or `none` to select which queries are logged (Bruce)

This allows administrators to log only data definition changes or only data modification statements.

- Some logging-related configuration parameters could formerly be adjusted by ordinary users, but only in the “more verbose” direction. They are now treated more strictly: only superusers can set them. However, a superuser may use `ALTER USER` to provide per-user settings of these values for non-superusers. Also, it is now possible for superusers to set values of superuser-only configuration parameters via `PGOPTIONS`.
- Allow configuration files to be placed outside the data directory (mlw)

By default, configuration files are kept in the cluster’s top directory. With this addition, configuration files can be placed outside the data directory, easing administration.

- Plan prepared queries only when first executed so constants can be used for statistics (Oliver Jowett)

Prepared statements plan queries once and execute them many times. While prepared queries avoid the overhead of re-planning on each use, the quality of the plan suffers from not knowing the exact parameters to be used in the query. In this release, planning of unnamed prepared statements is delayed until the first execution, and the actual parameter values of that execution are used as optimization hints. This allows use of out-of-line parameter passing without incurring a performance penalty.

- Allow `DECLARE CURSOR` to take parameters (Oliver Jowett)

It is now useful to issue `DECLARE CURSOR` in a `Parse` message with parameters. The parameter values sent at `Bind` time will be substituted into the execution of the cursor’s query.

- Fix hash joins and aggregates of `inet` and `cidr` data types (Tom)

Release 7.4 handled hashing of mixed `inet` and `cidr` values incorrectly. (This bug did not exist in prior releases because they wouldn't try to hash either data type.)

- Make `log_duration` print only when `log_statement` prints the query (Ed L.)

E.1.4.3. Query Changes

- Add savepoints (nested transactions) (Alvaro)
- Unsupported isolation levels are now accepted and promoted to the nearest supported level (Peter)

The SQL specification states that if a database doesn't support a specific isolation level, it should use the next more restrictive level. This change complies with that recommendation.

- Allow `BEGIN WORK` to specify transaction isolation levels like `START TRANSACTION` does (Bruce)
- Fix table permission checking for cases in which rules generate a query type different from the originally submitted query (Tom)
- Implement dollar quoting to simplify single-quote usage (Andrew, Tom, David Fetter)

In previous releases, because single quotes had to be used to quote a function's body, the use of single quotes inside the function text required use of two single quotes or other error-prone notations. With this release we add the ability to use "dollar quoting" to quote a block of text. The ability to use different quoting delimiters at different nesting levels greatly simplifies the task of quoting correctly, especially in complex functions. Dollar quoting can be used anywhere quoted text is needed.

- Make `CASE val WHEN compval1 THEN ...` evaluate `val` only once (Tom)

`CASE` no longer evaluates the tested expression multiple times. This has benefits when the expression is complex or is volatile.

- Test `HAVING` before computing target list of an aggregate query (Tom)

Fixes improper failure of cases such as `SELECT SUM(win)/SUM(lose) ... GROUP BY ... HAVING SUM(lose) > 0`. This should work but formerly could fail with divide-by-zero.

- Replace `max_expr_depth` parameter with `max_stack_depth` parameter, measured in kilobytes of stack size (Tom)

This gives us a fairly bulletproof defense against crashing due to runaway recursive functions. Instead of measuring the depth of expression nesting, we now directly measure the size of the execution stack.

- Allow arbitrary row expressions (Tom)

This release allows SQL expressions to contain arbitrary composite types, that is, row values. It also allows functions to more easily take rows as arguments and return row values.

- Allow `LIKE/ILIKE` to be used as the operator in row and subselect comparisons (Fabien Coelho)
- Avoid locale-specific case conversion of basic ASCII letters in identifiers and keywords (Tom)

This solves the “Turkish problem” with mangling of words containing `ı` and `i`. Folding of characters outside the 7-bit-ASCII set is still locale-aware.

- Improve syntax error reporting (Fabien, Tom)

Syntax error reports are more useful than before.

- Change `EXECUTE` to return a completion tag matching the executed statement (Kris Jurka)

Previous releases return an `EXECUTE` tag for any `EXECUTE` call. In this release, the tag returned will reflect the command executed.

- Avoid emitting `NATURAL CROSS JOIN` in rule listings (Tom)

Such a clause makes no logical sense, but in some cases the rule decompiler formerly produced this syntax.

E.1.4.4. Object Manipulation Changes

- Add `COMMENT ON` for casts, conversions, languages, operator classes, and large objects (Christopher)
- Add new server configuration parameter `default_with_oids` to control whether tables are created with `OIDs` by default (Neil)

This allows administrators to control whether `CREATE TABLE` commands create tables with or without `OID` columns by default. (Note: the current factory default setting for `default_with_oids` is `TRUE`, but the default will become `FALSE` in future releases.)

- Add `WITH / WITHOUT OIDS` clause to `CREATE TABLE AS` (Neil)
- Allow `ALTER TABLE DROP COLUMN` to drop an `OID` column (`ALTER TABLE SET WITHOUT OIDS` still works) (Tom)
- Allow composite types as table columns (Tom)
- Allow `ALTER ... ADD COLUMN` with defaults and `NOT NULL` constraints; works per SQL spec (Rod)

It is now possible for `ADD COLUMN` to create a column that is not initially filled with `NULLs`, but with a specified default value.

- Add `ALTER COLUMN TYPE` to change column’s type (Rod)

It is now possible to alter a column’s data type without dropping and re-adding the column.

- Allow multiple `ALTER` actions in a single `ALTER TABLE` command (Rod)
This is particularly useful for `ALTER` commands that rewrite the table (which include `ALTER COLUMN TYPE` and `ADD COLUMN` with a default). By grouping `ALTER` commands together, the table need be rewritten only once.
- Allow `ALTER TABLE` to add `SERIAL` columns (Tom)
This falls out from the new capability of specifying defaults for new columns.
- Allow changing the owners of aggregates, conversions, databases, functions, operators, operator classes, schemas, types, and tablespaces (Christopher, Euler Taveira de Oliveira)
Previously this required modifying the system tables directly.
- Allow temporary object creation to be limited to `SECURITY DEFINER` functions (Sean Chittenden)
- Add `ALTER TABLE ... SET WITHOUT CLUSTER` (Christopher)
Prior to this release, there was no way to clear an auto-cluster specification except to modify the system tables.
- Constraint/Index/SERIAL names are now *table_column_type* with numbers appended to guarantee uniqueness within the schema (Tom)
The SQL specification states that such names should be unique within a schema.
- Add `pg_get_serial_sequence()` to return a `SERIAL` column's sequence name (Christopher)
This allows automated scripts to reliably find the `SERIAL` sequence name.
- Warn when primary/foreign key data type mismatch requires costly lookup
- New `ALTER INDEX` command to allow moving of indexes between tablespaces (Gavin)
- Make `ALTER TABLE OWNER` change dependent sequence ownership too (Alvaro)

E.1.4.5. Utility Command Changes

- Allow `CREATE SCHEMA` to create triggers, indexes, and sequences (Neil)
- Add `ALSO` keyword to `CREATE RULE` (Fabien Coelho)
This allows `ALSO` to be added to rule creation to contrast it with `INSTEAD` rules.
- Add `NOWAIT` option to `LOCK` (Tatsuo)

This allows the `LOCK` command to fail if it would have to wait for the requested lock.

- Allow `COPY` to read and write comma-separated-value (CSV) files (Andrew, Bruce)
- Generate error if the `COPY` delimiter and `NULL` string conflict (Bruce)
- `GRANT/REVOKE` behavior follows the SQL spec more closely
- Avoid locking conflict between `CREATE INDEX` and `CHECKPOINT` (Tom)

In 7.3 and 7.4, a long-running B-tree index build could block concurrent `CHECKPOINTS` from completing, thereby causing WAL bloat because the WAL log could not be recycled.

- Database-wide `ANALYZE` does not hold locks across tables (Tom)

This reduces the potential for deadlocks against other backends that want exclusive locks on tables. To get the benefit of this change, do not execute database-wide `ANALYZE` inside a transaction block (`BEGIN` block); it must be able to commit and start a new transaction for each table.

- `REINDEX` does not exclusively lock the index's parent table anymore

The index itself is still exclusively locked, but readers of the table can continue if they are not using the particular index being rebuilt.

- Erase MD5 user passwords when a user is renamed (Bruce)

PostgreSQL uses the user name as salt when encrypting passwords via MD5. When a user's name is changed, the salt will no longer match the stored MD5 password, so the stored password becomes useless. In this release a notice is generated and the password is cleared. A new password must then be assigned if the user is to be able to log in with a password.

- New `pg_ctl kill` option for Windows (Andrew)

Windows does not have a `kill` command to send signals to backends so this capability was added to `pg_ctl`.

- Information schema improvements
- Add `--pwfile` option to `initdb` so the initial password can be set by GUI tools (Magnus)
- Detect locale/encoding mismatch in `initdb` (Peter)
- Add `register` command to `pg_ctl` to register Windows operating system service (Dave Page)

E.1.4.6. Data Type and Function Changes

- More complete support for composite types (row types) (Tom)

Composite values can be used in many places where only scalar values worked before.

- Reject non-rectangular array values as erroneous (Joe)
Formerly, `array_in` would silently build a surprising result.
- Overflow in integer arithmetic operations is now detected (Tom)
- The arithmetic operators associated with the single-byte "char" data type have been removed.
Formerly, the parser would select these operators in many situations where an "unable to select an operator" error would be more appropriate, such as `null * null`. If you actually want to do arithmetic on a "char" column, you can cast it to integer explicitly.
- Syntax checking of array input values considerably tightened up (Joe)
Junk that was previously allowed in odd places with odd results now causes an `ERROR`, for example, non-whitespace after the closing right brace.
- Empty-string array element values must now be written as "", rather than writing nothing (Joe)
Formerly, both ways of writing an empty-string element value were allowed, but now a quoted empty string is required. The case where nothing at all appears will probably be considered to be a `NULL` element value in some future release.
- Array element trailing whitespace is now ignored (Joe)
Formerly leading whitespace was ignored, but trailing whitespace between an element value and the delimiter or right brace was significant. Now trailing whitespace is also ignored.
- Emit array values with explicit array bounds when lower bound is not one (Joe)
- Accept `YYYY-monthname-DD` as a date string (Tom)
- Make `netmask` and `hostmask` functions return maximum-length mask length (Tom)
- Change factorial function to return `numeric` (Gavin)
Returning `numeric` allows the factorial function to work for a wider range of input values.
- `to_char/to_date()` date conversion improvements (Kurt Roeckx, Fabien Coelho)
- Make `length()` disregard trailing spaces in `CHAR(n)` (Gavin)
This change was made to improve consistency: trailing spaces are semantically insignificant in `CHAR(n)` data, so they should not be counted by `length()`.
- Warn about empty string being passed to `OID/float4/float8` data types (Neil)
8.1 will throw an error instead.

- Allow leading or trailing whitespace in `int2/int4/int8/float4/float8` input routines (Neil)
- Better support for IEEE Infinity and NaN values in `float4/float8` (Neil)

These should now work on all platforms that support IEEE-compliant floating point arithmetic.

- Add `week` option to `date_trunc()` (Robert Creager)
- Fix `to_char` for 1 BC (previously it returned 1 AD) (Bruce)
- Fix `date_part(year)` for BC dates (previously it returned one less than the correct year) (Bruce)
- Fix `date_part()` to return the proper millennium and century (Fabien Coelho)

In previous versions, the century and millennium results had a wrong number and started in the wrong year, as compared to standard reckoning of such things.

- Add `ceiling()` as an alias for `ceil()`, and `power()` as an alias for `pow()` for standards compliance (Neil)
- Change `ln()`, `log()`, `power()`, and `sqrt()` to emit the correct `SQLSTATE` error codes for certain error conditions, as specified by SQL:2003 (Neil)
- Add `width_bucket()` function as defined by SQL:2003 (Neil)
- Add `generate_series()` functions to simplify working with numeric sets (Joe)
- Fix `upper/lower/initcap()` functions to work with multibyte encodings (Tom)
- Add boolean and bitwise integer AND/OR aggregates (Fabien Coelho)
- New session information functions to return network addresses for client and server (Sean Chittenden)
- Add function to determine the area of a closed path (Sean Chittenden)
- Add function to send cancel request to other backends (Magnus)
- Add `interval plus datetime` operators (Tom)

The reverse ordering, `datetime plus interval`, was already supported, but both are required by the SQL standard.

- Casting an integer to `BIT(N)` selects the rightmost N bits of the integer (Tom)

In prior releases, the leftmost N bits were selected, but this was deemed unhelpful, not to mention inconsistent with casting from bit to int.

- Require `CIDR` values to have all non-masked bits be zero (Kevin Brintnall)

E.1.4.7. Server-Side Language Changes

- In `READ COMMITTED` serialization mode, volatile functions now see the results of concurrent transactions committed up to the beginning of each statement within the function, rather than up to the beginning of the interactive command that called the function.

- Functions declared `STABLE` or `IMMUTABLE` always use the snapshot of the calling query, and therefore do not see the effects of actions taken after the calling query starts, whether in their own transaction or other transactions. Such a function must be read-only, too, meaning that it cannot use any SQL commands other than `SELECT`. There is a considerable performance gain from declaring a function `STABLE` or `IMMUTABLE` rather than `VOLATILE`.
- Non-deferred `AFTER` triggers are now fired immediately after completion of the triggering query, rather than upon finishing the current interactive command. This makes a difference when the triggering query occurred within a function: the trigger is invoked before the function proceeds to its next operation. For example, if a function inserts a new row into a table, any non-deferred foreign key checks occur before proceeding with the function.
- Allow function parameters to be declared with names (Dennis Bjorklund)
This allows better documentation of functions. Whether the names actually do anything depends on the specific function language being used.
- Allow PL/pgSQL parameter names to be referenced in the function (Dennis Bjorklund)
This basically creates an automatic alias for each named parameter.
- Do minimal syntax checking of PL/pgSQL functions at creation time (Tom)
This allows us to catch simple syntax errors sooner.
- More support for composite types (row and record variables) in PL/pgSQL
For example, it now works to pass a rowtype variable to another function as a single variable.
- Default values for PL/pgSQL variables can now reference previously declared variables
- Improve parsing of PL/pgSQL `FOR` loops (Tom)
Parsing is now driven by presence of ". ." rather than data type of `FOR` variable. This makes no difference for correct functions, but should result in more understandable error messages when a mistake is made.
- Major overhaul of PL/Perl server-side language (Command Prompt, Andrew Dunstan)
- In PL/Tcl, SPI commands are now run in subtransactions. If an error occurs, the subtransaction is cleaned up and the error is reported as an ordinary Tcl error, which can be trapped with `catch`. Formerly, it was not possible to catch such errors.
- Accept `ELSEIF` in PL/pgSQL (Neil)
Previously PL/pgSQL only allowed `ELSIF`, but many people are accustomed to spelling this keyword `ELSEIF`.

E.1.4.8. psql Changes

- Improve psql information display about database objects (Christopher)
- Allow psql to display group membership in `\du` and `\dg` (Markus Bertheau)
- Prevent psql `\dn` from showing temporary schemas (Bruce)
- Allow psql to handle tilde user expansion for file names (Zach Irmen)
- Allow psql to display fancy prompts, including color, via readline (Reece Hart, Chet Ramey)
- Make psql `\copy` match `COPY` command syntax fully (Tom)
- Show the location of syntax errors (Fabien Coelho, Tom)
- Add `CLUSTER` information to psql `\d` display (Bruce)
- Change psql `\copy stdin/stdout` to read from command input/output (Bruce)
- Add `pstdin/pstdout` to read from psql's `stdin/stdout` (Mark Feit)
- Add global psql configuration file, `psqlrc.sample` (Bruce)

This allows a central file where global psql startup commands can be stored.

- Have psql `\d+` indicate if the table has an `OID` column (Neil)
- On Windows, use binary mode in psql when reading files so control-Z is not seen as end-of-file
- Have `\dn+` show permissions and description for schemas (Dennis Bjorklund)
- Improve tab completion support (Stefan Kaltenbrunn, Greg Sabino Mullane)
- Allow boolean settings to be set using upper or lower case (Michael Paesold)

E.1.4.9. pg_dump Changes

- Use dependency information to improve the reliability of `pg_dump` (Tom)
This should solve the longstanding problems with related objects sometimes being dumped in the wrong order.
- Have `pg_dump` output objects in alphabetical order if possible (Tom)
This should make it easier to identify changes between dump files.
- Allow `pg_restore` to ignore some SQL errors (Fabien Coelho)
This makes `pg_restore`'s behavior similar to the results of feeding a `pg_dump` output script to psql. In most cases, ignoring errors and plowing ahead is the most useful thing to do. Also added was a `pg_restore` option to give the old behavior of exiting on an error.
- `pg_restore -l` display now includes objects' schema names

- New begin/end markers in `pg_dump` text output (Bruce)
- Add start/stop times for `pg_dump/pg_dumpall` in verbose mode (Bruce)
- Allow most `pg_dump` options in `pg_dumpall` (Christopher)
- Have `pg_dump` use `ALTER OWNER` rather than `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION` by default (Christopher)

E.1.4.10. libpq Changes

- Make libpq's `SIGPIPE` handling thread-safe (Bruce)
- Add `PQmbdsplen()` which returns the display length of a character (Tatsuo)
- Add thread locking to SSL and Kerberos connections (Manfred Spraul)
- Allow `PQoidValue()`, `PQcmdTuples()`, and `PQoidStatus()` to work on `EXECUTE` commands (Neil)
- Add `PQserverVersion()` to provide more convenient access to the server version number (Greg Sabino Mullane)
- Add `PQprepare/PQsendPrepared()` functions to support preparing statements without necessarily specifying the data types of their parameters (Abhijit Menon-Sen)
- Many ECPG improvements, including `SET DESCRIPTOR` (Michael)

E.1.4.11. Source Code Changes

- Allow the database server to run natively on Windows (Claudio, Magnus, Andrew)
- Shell script commands converted to C versions for Windows support (Andrew)
- Create an extension makefile framework (Fabien Coelho, Peter)

This simplifies the task of building extensions outside the original source tree.

- Support relocatable installations (Bruce)

Directory paths for installed files (such as the `/share` directory) are now computed relative to the actual location of the executables, so that an installation tree can be moved to another place without reconfiguring and rebuilding.

- Use `--with-docdir` to choose installation location of documentation; also allow `--infodir` (Peter)
- Add `--without-docdir` to prevent installation of documentation (Peter)
- Upgrade to DocBook V4.2 SGML (Peter)
- New PostgreSQL CVS tag (Marc)

This was done to make it easier for organizations to manage their own copies of the PostgreSQL CVS repository. File version stamps from the master repository will not get munged by checking into or out of a copied repository.

- Clarify locking code (Manfred Koizar)
- Buffer manager cleanup (Neil)
- Decouple platform tests from CPU spinlock code (Bruce, Tom)
- Add inlined test-and-set code on PA-RISC for gcc (ViSolve, Tom)
- Improve i386 spinlock code (Manfred Spraul)
- Clean up spinlock assembly code to avoid warnings from newer gcc releases (Tom)
- Remove JDBC from source tree; now a separate project
- Remove the libpqcl client interface; now a separate project
- More accurately estimate memory and file descriptor usage (Tom)
- Improvements to the Mac OS X startup scripts (Ray A.)
- New `fsync()` test program (Bruce)
- Major documentation improvements (Neil, Peter)
- Remove `pg_encoding`; not needed anymore
- Remove `pg_id`; not needed anymore
- Remove `initlocation`; not needed anymore
- Auto-detect thread flags (no more manual testing) (Bruce)
- Use Olson's public domain timezone library (Magnus)
- With threading enabled, use thread flags on Unixware for backend executables too (Bruce)
Unixware can not mix threaded and non-threaded object files in the same executable, so everything must be compiled as threaded.
- `psql` now uses a flex-generated lexical analyzer to process command strings
- Reimplement the linked list data structure used throughout the backend (Neil)
This improves performance by allowing list append and length operations to be more efficient.
- Allow dynamically loaded modules to create their own server configuration parameters (Thomas Hallgren)
- New Brazilian version of FAQ (Euler Taveira de Oliveira)
- Add French FAQ (Guillaume Lelarge)
- New `pgevent` for Windows logging
- Make `libpq` and `ECPG` build as proper shared libraries on OS X (Tom)

E.1.4.12. Contrib Changes

- Overhaul of contrib/dblink (Joe)
- contrib/dbmirror improvements (Steven Singer)
- New contrib/xml2 (John Gray, Torchbox)
- Updated contrib/mysql
- New version of contrib/btree_gist (Teodor)
- New contrib/trgm, trigram matching for PostgreSQL (Teodor)
- Many contrib/tsearch2 improvements (Teodor)
- Add double metaphone to contrib/fuzzystrmatch (Andrew)
- Allow contrib/pg_autovacuum to run as a Windows service (Dave Page)
- Add functions to contrib/dbsize (Andreas Pflug)
- Removed contrib/pg_logger: obsoleted by integrated logging subprocess
- Removed contrib/rserv: obsoleted by various separate projects

E.2. Release 7.4.6

Release date: 2004-10-22

This release contains a variety of fixes from 7.4.5.

E.2.1. Migration to version 7.4.6

A dump/restore is not required for those running 7.4.X.

E.2.2. Changes

- Repair possible failure to update hint bits on disk
Under rare circumstances this oversight could lead to “could not access transaction status” failures, which qualifies it as a potential-data-loss bug.
- Ensure that hashed outer join does not miss tuples
Very large left joins using a hash join plan could fail to output unmatched left-side rows given just the right data distribution.

- Disallow running `pg_ctl` as root
This is to guard against any possible security issues.
- Avoid using temp files in `/tmp` in `make_oidjoins_check`
This has been reported as a security issue, though it's hardly worthy of concern since there is no reason for non-developers to use this script anyway.
- Prevent forced backend shutdown from re-emitting prior command result
In rare cases, a client might think that its last command had succeeded when it really had been aborted by forced database shutdown.
- Repair bug in `pg_stat_get_backend_idset`
This could lead to misbehavior in some of the system-statistics views.
- Fix small memory leak in postmaster
- Fix “expected both swapped tables to have TOAST tables” bug
This could arise in cases such as `CLUSTER` after `ALTER TABLE DROP COLUMN`.
- Prevent `pg_ctl restart` from adding `-D` multiple times
- Fix problem with NULL values in GiST indexes
- `::` is no longer interpreted as a variable in an ECPG prepare statement

E.3. Release 7.4.5

Release date: 2004-08-18

This release contains one serious bug fix over 7.4.4.

E.3.1. Migration to version 7.4.5

A dump/restore is not required for those running 7.4.X.

E.3.2. Changes

- Repair possible crash during concurrent B-tree index insertions

This patch fixes a rare case in which concurrent insertions into a B-tree index could result in a server panic. No permanent damage would result, but it's still worth a re-release. The bug does not exist in pre-7.4 releases.

E.4. Release 7.4.4

Release date: 2004-08-16

This release contains a variety of fixes from 7.4.3.

E.4.1. Migration to version 7.4.4

A dump/restore is not required for those running 7.4.X.

E.4.2. Changes

- Prevent possible loss of committed transactions during crash

Due to insufficient interlocking between transaction commit and checkpointing, it was possible for transactions committed just before the most recent checkpoint to be lost, in whole or in part, following a database crash and restart. This is a serious bug that has existed since PostgreSQL 7.1.

- Check HAVING restriction before evaluating result list of an aggregate plan
- Avoid crash when session's current user ID is deleted
- Fix hashed crosstab for zero-rows case (Joe)
- Force cache update after renaming a column in a foreign key
- Pretty-print UNION queries correctly
- Make psql handle `\r\n` newlines properly in COPY IN
- `pg_dump` handled ACLs with grant options incorrectly
- Fix thread support for OS X and Solaris
- Updated JDBC driver (build 215) with various fixes
- ECPG fixes
- Translation updates (various contributors)

E.5. Release 7.4.3

Release date: 2004-06-14

This release contains a variety of fixes from 7.4.2.

E.5.1. Migration to version 7.4.3

A dump/restore is not required for those running 7.4.X.

E.5.2. Changes

- Fix temporary memory leak when using non-hashed aggregates (Tom)
- ECPG fixes, including some for Informix compatibility (Michael)
- Fixes for compiling with thread-safety, particularly Solaris (Bruce)
- Fix error in COPY IN termination when using the old network protocol (ljb)
- Several important fixes in pg_autovacuum, including fixes for large tables, unsigned oids, stability, temp tables, and debug mode (Matthew T. O'Connor)
- Fix problem with reading tar-format dumps on NetBSD and BSD/OS (Bruce)
- Several JDBC fixes
- Fix ALTER SEQUENCE RESTART where last_value equals the restart value (Tom)
- Repair failure to recalculate nested sub-selects (Tom)
- Fix problems with non-constant expressions in LIMIT/OFFSET
- Support FULL JOIN with no join clause, such as X FULL JOIN Y ON TRUE (Tom)
- Fix another zero-column table bug (Tom)
- Improve handling of non-qualified identifiers in GROUP BY clauses in sub-selects (Tom)
Select-list aliases within the sub-select will now take precedence over names from outer query levels.
- Do not generate "NATURAL CROSS JOIN" when decompiling rules (Tom)
- Add checks for invalid field length in binary COPY (Tom)
This fixes a difficult-to-exploit security hole.
- Avoid locking conflict between ANALYZE and LISTEN/NOTIFY
- Numerous translation updates (various contributors)

E.6. Release 7.4.2

Release date: 2004-03-08

This release contains a variety of fixes from 7.4.1.

E.6.1. Migration to version 7.4.2

A dump/restore is not required for those running 7.4.X. However, it may be advisable as the easiest method of incorporating fixes for two errors that have been found in the initial contents of 7.4.X system catalogs. A dump/initdb/reload sequence using 7.4.2's initdb will automatically correct these problems.

The more severe of the two errors is that data type `anyarray` has the wrong alignment label; this is a problem because the `pg_statistic` system catalog uses `anyarray` columns. The mislabeling can cause planner misestimations and even crashes when planning queries that involve `WHERE` clauses on double-aligned columns (such as `float8` and `timestamp`). It is strongly recommended that all installations repair this error, either by `initdb` or by following the manual repair procedure given below.

The lesser error is that the system view `pg_settings` ought to be marked as having public update access, to allow `UPDATE pg_settings` to be used as a substitute for `SET`. This can also be fixed either by `initdb` or manually, but it is not necessary to fix unless you want to use `UPDATE pg_settings`.

If you wish not to do an `initdb`, the following procedure will work for fixing `pg_statistic`. As the database superuser, do:

```
-- clear out old data in pg_statistic:
DELETE FROM pg_statistic;
VACUUM pg_statistic;
-- this should update 1 row:
UPDATE pg_type SET typalign = 'd' WHERE oid = 2277;
-- this should update 6 rows:
UPDATE pg_attribute SET attalign = 'd' WHERE atttypid = 2277;
--
-- At this point you MUST start a fresh backend to avoid a crash!
--
-- repopulate pg_statistic:
ANALYZE;
```

This can be done in a live database, but beware that all backends running in the altered database must be restarted before it is safe to repopulate `pg_statistic`.

To repair the `pg_settings` error, simply do:

```
GRANT SELECT, UPDATE ON pg_settings TO PUBLIC;
```

The above procedures must be carried out in *each* database of an installation, including `template1`, and ideally including `template0` as well. If you do not fix the template databases then any subsequently created databases will contain the same errors. `template1` can be fixed in the same way as any other database, but fixing `template0` requires additional steps. First, from any database issue

```
UPDATE pg_database SET datallowconn = true WHERE datname = 'template0';
```

Next connect to `template0` and perform the above repair procedures. Finally, do

```
-- re-freeze template0:
VACUUM FREEZE;
-- and protect it against future alterations:
UPDATE pg_database SET datallowconn = false WHERE datname = 'template0';
```

E.6.2. Changes

Release 7.4.2 incorporates all the fixes included in release 7.3.6, plus the following fixes:

- Fix `pg_statistics` alignment bug that could crash optimizer
See above for details about this problem.
- Allow non-super users to update `pg_settings`
- Fix several optimizer bugs, most of which led to “variable not found in subplan target lists” errors
- Avoid out-of-memory failure during startup of large multiple index scan
- Fix multibyte problem that could lead to “out of memory” error during `COPY IN`
- Fix problems with `SELECT INTO / CREATE TABLE AS` from tables without OIDs
- Fix problems with `alter_table` regression test during parallel testing
- Fix problems with hitting open file limit, especially on OS X (Tom)
- Partial fix for Turkish-locale issues
`initdb` will succeed now in Turkish locale, but there are still some inconveniences associated with the `i/I` problem.
- Make `pg_dump` set client encoding on restore
- Other minor `pg_dump` fixes
- Allow `ecpg` to again use C keywords as column names (Michael)
- Added `ecpg` `WHENEVER NOT_FOUND` to `SELECT/INSERT/UPDATE/DELETE` (Michael)
- Fix `ecpg` crash for queries calling set-returning functions (Michael)
- Various other `ecpg` fixes (Michael)
- Fixes for Borland compiler
- Thread build improvements (Bruce)
- Various other build fixes
- Various JDBC fixes

E.7. Release 7.4.1

Release date: 2003-12-22

This release contains a variety of fixes from 7.4.

E.7.1. Migration to version 7.4.1

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 7.4.

If you want to install the fixes in the information schema you need to reload it into the database. This is either accomplished by initializing a new cluster by running `initdb`, or by running the following sequence of SQL commands in each database (ideally including `template1`) as a superuser in `psql`, after installing the new release:

```
DROP SCHEMA information_schema CASCADE;
\i /usr/local/pgsql/share/information_schema.sql
```

Substitute your installation path in the second command.

E.7.2. Changes

- Fixed bug in `CREATE SCHEMA` parsing in ECPG (Michael)
- Fix compile error when `--enable-thread-safety` and `--with-perl` are used together (Peter)
- Fix for subqueries that used hash joins (Tom)

Certain subqueries that used hash joins would crash because of improperly shared structures.

- Fix free space map compaction bug (Tom)

This fixes a bug where compaction of the free space map could lead to a database server shutdown.

- Fix for Borland compiler build of `libpq` (Bruce)
- Fix `netmask()` and `hostmask()` to return the maximum-length masklen (Tom)

Fix these functions to return values consistent with pre-7.4 releases.

- Several `contrib/pg_autovacuum` fixes

Fixes include improper variable initialization, missing vacuum after `TRUNCATE`, and duration computation overflow for long vacuums.

- Allow compile of `contrib/cube` under Cygwin (Jason Tishler)
- Fix Solaris use of password file when no passwords are defined (Tom)

Fix crash on Solaris caused by use of any type of password authentication when no passwords were defined.

- JDBC fix for thread problems, other fixes
- Fix for `bytea` index lookups (Joe)
- Fix information schema for bit data types (Peter)
- Force `zero_damaged_pages` to be on during recovery from WAL
- Prevent some obscure cases of “variable not in subplan target lists”
- Make `PQescapeBytea` and `byteaout` consistent with each other (Joe)
- Escape `bytea` output for bytes > 0x7e (Joe)

If different client encodings are used for `bytea` output and input, it is possible for `bytea` values to be corrupted by the differing encodings. This fix escapes all bytes that might be affected.

- Added missing `SPI_finish()` calls to `dblink`'s `get_tuple_of_interest()` (Joe)
- New Czech FAQ
- Fix information schema view `constraint_column_usage` for foreign keys (Peter)
- ECPG fixes (Michael)
- Fix bug with multiple `IN` subqueries and joins in the subqueries (Tom)
- Allow `COUNT('x')` to work (Tom)
- Install ECPG include files for Informix compatibility into separate directory (Peter)

Some names of ECPG include files for Informix compatibility conflicted with operating system include files. By installing them in their own directory, name conflicts have been reduced.

- Fix SSL memory leak (Neil)

This release fixes a bug in 7.4 where SSL didn't free all memory it allocated.

- Prevent `pg_service.conf` from using service name as default dbname (Bruce)
- Fix local ident authentication on FreeBSD (Tom)

E.8. Release 7.4

Release date: 2003-11-17

E.8.1. Overview

Major changes in this release:

`IN` / `NOT IN` subqueries are now much more efficient

In previous releases, `IN`/`NOT IN` subqueries were joined to the upper query by sequentially scanning the subquery looking for a match. The 7.4 code uses the same sophisticated techniques used by ordinary joins and so is much faster. An `IN` will now usually be as fast as or faster than an equivalent `EXISTS` subquery; this reverses the conventional wisdom that applied to previous releases.

Improved `GROUP BY` processing by using hash buckets

In previous releases, rows to be grouped had to be sorted first. The 7.4 code can do `GROUP BY` without sorting, by accumulating results into a hash table with one entry per group. It will still use the sort technique, however, if the hash table is estimated to be too large to fit in `sort_mem`.

New multikey hash join capability

In previous releases, hash joins could only occur on single keys. This release allows multicolumn hash joins.

Queries using the explicit `JOIN` syntax are now better optimized

Prior releases evaluated queries using the explicit `JOIN` syntax only in the order implied by the syntax. 7.4 allows full optimization of these queries, meaning the optimizer considers all possible join orderings and chooses the most efficient. Outer joins, however, must still follow the declared ordering.

Faster and more powerful regular expression code

The entire regular expression module has been replaced with a new version by Henry Spencer, originally written for Tcl. The code greatly improves performance and supports several flavors of regular expressions.

Function-inlining for simple SQL functions

Simple SQL functions can now be inlined by including their SQL in the main query. This improves performance by eliminating per-call overhead. That means simple SQL functions now behave like macros.

Full support for IPv6 connections and IPv6 address data types

Previous releases allowed only IPv4 connections, and the IP data types only supported IPv4 addresses. This release adds full IPv6 support in both of these areas.

Major improvements in SSL performance and reliability

Several people very familiar with the SSL API have overhauled our SSL code to improve SSL key negotiation and error recovery.

Make free space map efficiently reuse empty index pages, and other free space management improvements

In previous releases, B-tree index pages that were left empty because of deleted rows could only be reused by rows with index values similar to the rows originally indexed on that page. In 7.4, `VACUUM` records empty index pages and allows them to be reused for any future index rows.

SQL-standard information schema

The information schema provides a standardized and stable way to access information about the schema objects defined in a database.

Cursors conform more closely to the SQL standard

The commands `FETCH` and `MOVE` have been overhauled to conform more closely to the SQL standard.

Cursors can exist outside transactions

These cursors are also called holdable cursors.

New client-to-server protocol

The new protocol adds error codes, more status information, faster startup, better support for binary data transmission, parameter values separated from SQL commands, prepared statements available at the protocol level, and cleaner recovery from `COPY` failures. The older protocol is still supported by both server and clients.

libpq and ECPG applications are now fully thread-safe

While previous libpq releases already supported threads, this release improves thread safety by fixing some non-thread-safe code that was used during database connection startup. The `configure` option `--enable-thread-safety` must be used to enable this feature.

New version of full-text indexing

A new full-text indexing suite is available in `contrib/tsearch2`.

New autovacuum tool

The new autovacuum tool in `contrib/autovacuum` monitors the database statistics tables for `INSERT/UPDATE/DELETE` activity and automatically vacuums tables when needed.

Array handling has been improved and moved into the server core

Many array limitations have been removed, and arrays behave more like fully-supported data types.

E.8.2. Migration to version 7.4

A dump/restore using `pg_dump` is required for those wishing to migrate data from any previous release.

Observe the following incompatibilities:

- The server-side autocommit setting was removed and reimplemented in client applications and languages. Server-side autocommit was causing too many problems with languages and applications that wanted to control their own autocommit behavior, so autocommit was removed from the server and added to individual client APIs as appropriate.
- Error message wording has changed substantially in this release. Significant effort was invested to make the messages more consistent and user-oriented. If your applications try to detect different error conditions by parsing the error message, you are strongly encouraged to use the new error code facility instead.

- Inner joins using the explicit `JOIN` syntax may behave differently because they are now better optimized.
- A number of server configuration parameters have been renamed for clarity, primarily those related to logging.
- `FETCH 0` or `MOVE 0` now does nothing. In prior releases, `FETCH 0` would fetch all remaining rows, and `MOVE 0` would move to the end of the cursor.
- `FETCH` and `MOVE` now return the actual number of rows fetched/moved, or zero if at the beginning/end of the cursor. Prior releases would return the row count passed to the command, not the number of rows actually fetched or moved.
- `COPY` now can process files that use carriage-return or carriage-return/line-feed end-of-line sequences. Literal carriage-returns and line-feeds are no longer accepted in data values; use `\r` and `\n` instead.
- Trailing spaces are now trimmed when converting from type `char(n)` to `varchar(n)` or `text`. This is what most people always expected to happen anyway.
- The data type `float(p)` now measures `p` in binary digits, not decimal digits. The new behavior follows the SQL standard.
- Ambiguous date values now must match the ordering specified by the `datestyle` setting. In prior releases, a date specification of `10/20/03` was interpreted as a date in October even if `datestyle` specified that the day should be first. 7.4 will throw an error if a date specification is invalid for the current setting of `datestyle`.
- The functions `oidrand`, `oidsrand`, and `userfntest` have been removed. These functions were determined to be no longer useful.
- String literals specifying time-varying date/time values, such as `'now'` or `'today'` will no longer work as expected in column default expressions; they now cause the time of the table creation to be the default, not the time of the insertion. Functions such as `now()`, `current_timestamp`, or `current_date` should be used instead.

In previous releases, there was special code so that strings such as `'now'` were interpreted at `INSERT` time and not at table creation time, but this work around didn't cover all cases. Release 7.4 now requires that defaults be defined properly using functions such as `now()` or `current_timestamp`. These will work in all situations.

- The dollar sign (`$`) is no longer allowed in operator names. It can instead be a non-first character in identifiers. This was done to improve compatibility with other database systems, and to avoid syntax problems when parameter placeholders (`$n`) are written adjacent to operators.

E.8.3. Changes

Below you will find a detailed account of the changes between release 7.4 and the previous major release.

E.8.3.1. Server Operation Changes

- Allow IPv6 server connections (Nigel Kukard, Johan Jordaan, Bruce, Tom, Kurt Roeckx, Andrew Dunstan)
- Fix SSL to handle errors cleanly (Nathan Mueller)
In prior releases, certain SSL API error reports were not handled correctly. This release fixes those problems.
- SSL protocol security and performance improvements (Sean Chittenden)
SSL key renegotiation was happening too frequently, causing poor SSL performance. Also, initial key handling was improved.
- Print lock information when a deadlock is detected (Tom)
This allows easier debugging of deadlock situations.
- Update `/tmp` socket modification times regularly to avoid their removal (Tom)
This should help prevent `/tmp` directory cleaner administration scripts from removing server socket files.
- Enable PAM for Mac OS X (Aaron Hillegass)
- Make B-tree indexes fully WAL-safe (Tom)
In prior releases, under certain rare cases, a server crash could cause B-tree indexes to become corrupt. This release removes those last few rare cases.
- Allow B-tree index compaction and empty page reuse (Tom)
- Fix inconsistent index lookups during split of first root page (Tom)
In prior releases, when a single-page index split into two pages, there was a brief period when another database session could miss seeing an index entry. This release fixes that rare failure case.
- Improve free space map allocation logic (Tom)
- Preserve free space information between server restarts (Tom)
In prior releases, the free space map was not saved when the postmaster was stopped, so newly started servers had no free space information. This release saves the free space map, and reloads it when the server is restarted.
- Add start time to `pg_stat_activity` (Neil)
- New code to detect corrupt disk pages; erase with `zero_damaged_pages` (Tom)

- New client/server protocol: faster, no username length limit, allow clean exit from COPY (Tom)
- Add transaction status, table ID, column ID to client/server protocol (Tom)
- Add binary I/O to client/server protocol (Tom)
- Remove autocommit server setting; move to client applications (Tom)
- New error message wording, error codes, and three levels of error detail (Tom, Joe, Peter)

E.8.3.2. Performance Improvements

- Add hashing for GROUP BY aggregates (Tom)
- Make nested-loop joins be smarter about multicolumn indexes (Tom)
- Allow multikey hash joins (Tom)
- Improve constant folding (Tom)
- Add ability to inline simple SQL functions (Tom)
- Reduce memory usage for queries using complex functions (Tom)

In prior releases, functions returning allocated memory would not free it until the query completed. This release allows the freeing of function-allocated memory when the function call completes, reducing the total memory used by functions.

- Improve GEQO optimizer performance (Tom)

This release fixes several inefficiencies in the way the GEQO optimizer manages potential query paths.

- Allow IN/NOT IN to be handled via hash tables (Tom)
- Improve NOT IN (*subquery*) performance (Tom)
- Allow most IN subqueries to be processed as joins (Tom)
- Pattern matching operations can use indexes regardless of locale (Peter)

There is no way for non-ASCII locales to use the standard indexes for LIKE comparisons. This release adds a way to create a special index for LIKE.

- Allow the postmaster to preload libraries using `preload_libraries` (Joe)

For shared libraries that require a long time to load, this option is available so the library can be preloaded in the postmaster and inherited by all database sessions.

- Improve optimizer cost computations, particularly for subqueries (Tom)
- Avoid sort when subquery ORDER BY matches upper query (Tom)
- Deduce that WHERE `a.x = b.y AND b.y = 42` also means `a.x = 42` (Tom)
- Allow hash/merge joins on complex joins (Tom)

- Allow hash joins for more data types (Tom)
- Allow join optimization of explicit inner joins, disable with `join_collapse_limit` (Tom)
- Add parameter `from_collapse_limit` to control conversion of subqueries to joins (Tom)
- Use faster and more powerful regular expression code from Tcl (Henry Spencer, Tom)
- Use bit-mapped relation sets in the optimizer (Tom)
- Improve connection startup time (Tom)

The new client/server protocol requires fewer network packets to start a database session.

- Improve trigger/constraint performance (Stephan)
- Improve speed of `col IN (const, const, const, ...)` (Tom)
- Fix hash indexes which were broken in rare cases (Tom)
- Improve hash index concurrency and speed (Tom)

Prior releases suffered from poor hash index performance, particularly for high concurrency situations. This release fixes that, and the development group is interested in reports comparing B-tree and hash index performance.

- Align shared buffers on 32-byte boundary for copy speed improvement (Manfred Spraul)

Certain CPU's perform faster data copies when addresses are 32-byte aligned.

- Data type `numeric` reimplemented for better performance (Tom)

`numeric` used to be stored in base 100. The new code uses base 10000, for significantly better performance.

E.8.3.3. Server Configuration Changes

- Rename server parameter `server_min_messages` to `log_min_messages` (Bruce)

This was done so most parameters that control the server logs begin with `log_`.

- Rename `show_*_stats` to `log_*_stats` (Bruce)
- Rename `show_source_port` to `log_source_port` (Bruce)
- Rename `hostname_lookup` to `log_hostname` (Bruce)
- Add `checkpoint_warning` to warn of excessive checkpointing (Bruce)

In prior releases, it was difficult to determine if checkpoint was happening too frequently. This feature adds a warning to the server logs when excessive checkpointing happens.

- New read-only server parameters for localization (Tom)
- Change debug server log messages to output as `DEBUG` rather than `LOG` (Bruce)
- Prevent server log variables from being turned off by non-superusers (Bruce)
This is a security feature so non-superusers cannot disable logging that was enabled by the administrator.
- `log_min_messages/client_min_messages` now controls `debug_*` output (Bruce)
This centralizes client debug information so all debug output can be sent to either the client or server logs.
- Add Mac OS X Rendezvous server support (Chris Campbell)
This allows Mac OS X hosts to query the network for available PostgreSQL servers.
- Add ability to print only slow statements using `log_min_duration_statement` (Christopher)
This is an often requested debugging feature that allows administrators to see only slow queries in their server logs.
- Allow `pg_hba.conf` to accept netmasks in CIDR format (Andrew Dunstan)
This allows administrators to merge the host IP address and netmask fields into a single CIDR field in `pg_hba.conf`.
- New read-only parameter `is_superuser` (Tom)
- New parameter `log_error_verbosity` to control error detail (Tom)
This works with the new error reporting feature to supply additional error information like hints, file names and line numbers.
- `postgres --describe-config` now dumps server config variables (Aizaz Ahmed, Peter)
This option is useful for administration tools that need to know the configuration variable names and their minimums, maximums, defaults, and descriptions.
- Add new columns in `pg_settings`: `context`, `type`, `source`, `min_val`, `max_val` (Joe)
- Make default `shared_buffers` 1000 and `max_connections` 100, if possible (Tom)
Prior versions defaulted to 64 shared buffers so PostgreSQL would start on even very old systems. This release tests the amount of shared memory allowed by the platform and selects more reasonable default values if possible. Of course, users are still encouraged to evaluate their resource load and size `shared_buffers` accordingly.

- New `pg_hba.conf` record type `hostnossl` to prevent SSL connections (Jon Jensen)

In prior releases, there was no way to prevent SSL connections if both the client and server supported SSL. This option allows that capability.

- Remove parameter `geqo_random_seed` (Tom)
- Add server parameter `regex_flavor` to control regular expression processing (Tom)
- Make `pg_ctl` better handle nonstandard ports (Greg)

E.8.3.4. Query Changes

- New SQL-standard information schema (Peter)
- Add read-only transactions (Peter)
- Print key name and value in foreign-key violation messages (Dmitry Tkach)
- Allow users to see their own queries in `pg_stat_activity` (Kevin Brown)

In prior releases, only the superuser could see query strings using `pg_stat_activity`. Now ordinary users can see their own query strings.

- Fix aggregates in subqueries to match SQL standard (Tom)

The SQL standard says that an aggregate function appearing within a nested subquery belongs to the outer query if its argument contains only outer-query variables. Prior PostgreSQL releases did not handle this fine point correctly.

- Add option to prevent auto-addition of tables referenced in query (Nigel J. Andrews)

By default, tables mentioned in the query are automatically added to the `FROM` clause if they are not already there. This is compatible with historic POSTGRES behavior but is contrary to the SQL standard. This option allows selecting standard-compatible behavior.

- Allow `UPDATE ... SET col = DEFAULT` (Rod)

This allows `UPDATE` to set a column to its declared default value.

- Allow expressions to be used in `LIMIT/OFFSET` (Tom)

In prior releases, `LIMIT/OFFSET` could only use constants, not expressions.

- Implement `CREATE TABLE AS EXECUTE` (Neil, Peter)

E.8.3.5. Object Manipulation Changes

- Make `CREATE SEQUENCE` grammar more conforming to SQL:2003 (Neil)
- Add statement-level triggers (Neil)

While this allows a trigger to fire at the end of a statement, it does not allow the trigger to access all rows modified by the statement. This capability is planned for a future release.
- Add check constraints for domains (Rod)

This greatly increases the usefulness of domains by allowing them to use check constraints.
- Add `ALTER DOMAIN` (Rod)

This allows manipulation of existing domains.
- Fix several zero-column table bugs (Tom)

PostgreSQL supports zero-column tables. This fixes various bugs that occur when using such tables.
- Have `ALTER TABLE ... ADD PRIMARY KEY` add not-null constraint (Rod)

In prior releases, `ALTER TABLE ... ADD PRIMARY` would add a unique index, but not a not-null constraint. That is fixed in this release.
- Add `ALTER TABLE ... WITHOUT OIDS` (Rod)

This allows control over whether new and updated rows will have an OID column. This is most useful for saving storage space.
- Add `ALTER SEQUENCE` to modify minimum, maximum, increment, cache, cycle values (Rod)
- Add `ALTER TABLE ... CLUSTER ON` (Alvaro Herrera)

This command is used by `pg_dump` to record the cluster column for each table previously clustered. This information is used by database-wide cluster to cluster all previously clustered tables.
- Improve automatic type casting for domains (Rod, Tom)
- Allow dollar signs in identifiers, except as first character (Tom)
- Disallow dollar signs in operator names, so `x=$1` works (Tom)
- Allow copying table schema using `LIKE subtable`, also SQL:2003 feature `INCLUDING DEFAULTS` (Rod)
- Add `WITH GRANT OPTION` clause to `GRANT` (Peter)

This enabled `GRANT` to give other users the ability to grant privileges on a object.

E.8.3.6. Utility Command Changes

- Add `ON COMMIT` clause to `CREATE TABLE` for temporary tables (Gavin)

This adds the ability for a table to be dropped or all rows deleted on transaction commit.

- Allow cursors outside transactions using `WITH HOLD` (Neil)

In previous releases, cursors were removed at the end of the transaction that created them. Cursors can now be created with the `WITH HOLD` option, which allows them to continue to be accessed after the creating transaction has committed.

- `FETCH 0` and `MOVE 0` now do nothing (Bruce)

In previous releases, `FETCH 0` fetched all remaining rows, and `MOVE 0` moved to the end of the cursor.

- Cause `FETCH` and `MOVE` to return the number of rows fetched/moved, or zero if at the beginning/end of cursor, per SQL standard (Bruce)

In prior releases, the row count returned by `FETCH` and `MOVE` did not accurately reflect the number of rows processed.

- Properly handle `SCROLL` with cursors, or report an error (Neil)

Allowing random access (both forward and backward scrolling) to some kinds of queries cannot be done without some additional work. If `SCROLL` is specified when the cursor is created, this additional work will be performed. Furthermore, if the cursor has been created with `NO SCROLL`, no random access is allowed.

- Implement SQL-compatible options `FIRST`, `LAST`, `ABSOLUTE n`, `RELATIVE n` for `FETCH` and `MOVE` (Tom)

- Allow `EXPLAIN ON DECLARE CURSOR` (Tom)

- Allow `CLUSTER` to use index marked as pre-clustered by default (Alvaro Herrera)

- Allow `CLUSTER` to cluster all tables (Alvaro Herrera)

This allows all previously clustered tables in a database to be reclustered with a single command.

- Prevent `CLUSTER` on partial indexes (Tom)

- Allow DOS and Mac line-endings in `COPY` files (Bruce)

- Disallow literal carriage return as a data value, backslash-carriage-return and `\r` are still allowed (Bruce)

- COPY changes (binary, \.) (Tom)
- Recover from COPY failure cleanly (Tom)
- Prevent possible memory leaks in COPY (Tom)
- Make TRUNCATE transaction-safe (Rod)

TRUNCATE can now be used inside a transaction. If the transaction aborts, the changes made by the TRUNCATE are automatically rolled back.

- Allow prepare/bind of utility commands like FETCH and EXPLAIN (Tom)
- Add EXPLAIN EXECUTE (Neil)
- Improve VACUUM performance on indexes by reducing WAL traffic (Tom)
- Functional indexes have been generalized into indexes on expressions (Tom)

In prior releases, functional indexes only supported a simple function applied to one or more column names. This release allows any type of scalar expression.

- Have SHOW TRANSACTION ISOLATION match input to SET TRANSACTION ISOLATION (Tom)
- Have COMMENT ON DATABASE on nonlocal database generate a warning, rather than an error (Rod)

Database comments are stored in database-local tables so comments on a database have to be stored in each database.

- Improve reliability of LISTEN/NOTIFY (Tom)
- Allow REINDEX to reliably reindex nonshared system catalog indexes (Tom)

This allows system tables to be reindexed without the requirement of a standalone session, which was necessary in previous releases. The only tables that now require a standalone session for reindexing are the global system tables `pg_database`, `pg_shadow`, and `pg_group`.

E.8.3.7. Data Type and Function Changes

- New server parameter `extra_float_digits` to control precision display of floating-point numbers (Pedro Ferreira, Tom)

This controls output precision which was causing regression testing problems.

- Allow +1300 as a numeric time-zone specifier, for FJST (Tom)
- Remove rarely used functions `oidrand`, `oidsrand`, and `userfntest` functions (Neil)
- Add `md5()` function to main server, already in `contrib/pgcrypto` (Joe)

An MD5 function was frequently requested. For more complex encryption capabilities, use `contrib/pgcrypto`.

- Increase date range of `timestamp` (John Cochran)
- Change `EXTRACT(EPOCH FROM timestamp)` so `timestamp` without time zone is assumed to be in local time, not GMT (Tom)
- Trap division by zero in case the operating system doesn't prevent it (Tom)
- Change the `numeric` data type internally to base 10000 (Tom)
- New `hostmask()` function (Greg Wickham)
- Fixes for `to_char()` and `to_timestamp()` (Karel)
- Allow functions that can take any argument data type and return any data type, using `anyelement` and `anyarray` (Joe)

This allows the creation of functions that can work with any data type.

- Arrays may now be specified as `ARRAY[1,2,3]`, `ARRAY[['a','b'],['c','d']]`, or `ARRAY[ARRAY[ARRAY[2]]]` (Joe)
- Allow proper comparisons for arrays, including `ORDER BY` and `DISTINCT` support (Joe)
- Allow indexes on array columns (Joe)
- Allow array concatenation with `||` (Joe)
- Allow `WHERE` qualification `expr op ANY/SOME/ALL (array_expr)` (Joe)

This allows arrays to behave like a list of values, for purposes like `SELECT * FROM tab WHERE col IN (array_val)`.

- New array functions `array_append`, `array_cat`, `array_lower`, `array_prepend`, `array_to_string`, `array_upper`, `string_to_array` (Joe)
- Allow user defined aggregates to use polymorphic functions (Joe)
- Allow assignments to empty arrays (Joe)
- Allow 60 in seconds fields of `time`, `timestamp`, and `interval` input values (Tom)

Sixty-second values are needed for leap seconds.

- Allow `cidr` data type to be cast to `text` (Tom)
- Disallow invalid time zone names in `SET TIMEZONE`
- Trim trailing spaces when `char` is cast to `varchar` or `text` (Tom)
- Make `float(p)` measure the precision `p` in binary digits, not decimal digits (Tom)
- Add IPv6 support to the `inet` and `cidr` data types (Michael Graff)
- Add `family()` function to report whether address is IPv4 or IPv6 (Michael Graff)
- Have `SHOW datestyle` generate output similar to that used by `SET datestyle` (Tom)

- Make `EXTRACT(TIMEZONE)` and `SET/SHOW TIME ZONE` follow the SQL convention for the sign of time zone offsets, i.e., positive is east from UTC (Tom)
- Fix `date_trunc('quarter', ...)` (Böjthe Zoltán)
Prior releases returned an incorrect value for this function call.
- Make `initcap()` more compatible with Oracle (Mike Nolan)
`initcap()` now uppercases a letter appearing after any non-alphanumeric character, rather than only after whitespace.
- Allow only `datestyle` field order for date values not in ISO-8601 format (Greg)
- Add new `datestyle` values `MDY`, `DMY`, and `YMD` to set input field order; honor `US` and `European` for backward compatibility (Tom)
- String literals like `'now'` or `'today'` will no longer work as a column default. Use functions such as `now()`, `current_timestamp` instead. (change required for prepared statements) (Tom)
- Treat `NaN` as larger than any other value in `min()/max()` (Tom)
`NaN` was already sorted after ordinary numeric values for most purposes, but `min()` and `max()` didn't get this right.
- Prevent interval from suppressing `:00` seconds display
- New functions `pg_get_triggerdef(prettyprint)` and `pg_conversion_is_visible()` (Christopher)
- Allow time to be specified as `040506` or `0405` (Tom)
- Input date order must now be `YYYY-MM-DD` (with 4-digit year) or match `datestyle`
- Make `pg_get_constraintdef` support unique, primary-key, and check constraints (Christopher)

E.8.3.8. Server-Side Language Changes

- Prevent PL/pgSQL crash when `RETURN NEXT` is used on a zero-row record variable (Tom)
- Make PL/Python's `spi_execute` interface handle null values properly (Andrew Bosma)
- Allow PL/pgSQL to declare variables of composite types without `%ROWTYPE` (Tom)
- Fix PL/Python's `_quote()` function to handle big integers
- Make PL/Python an untrusted language, now called `plpythonu` (Kevin Jacobs, Tom)
The Python language no longer supports a restricted execution environment, so the trusted version of PL/Python was removed. If this situation changes, a version of PL/Python that can be used by non-superusers will be readded.
- Allow polymorphic PL/pgSQL functions (Joe, Tom)

- Allow polymorphic SQL functions (Joe)
- Improved compiled function caching mechanism in PL/pgSQL with full support for polymorphism (Joe)
- Add new parameter `$0` in PL/pgSQL representing the function's actual return type (Joe)
- Allow PL/Tcl and PL/Python to use the same trigger on multiple tables (Tom)
- Fixed PL/Tcl's `spi_prepare` to accept fully qualified type names in the parameter type list (Jan)

E.8.3.9. psql Changes

- Add `\pset pager always` to always use pager (Greg)

This forces the pager to be used even if the number of rows is less than the screen height. This is valuable for rows that wrap across several screen rows.
- Improve tab completion (Rod, Ross Reedstrom, Ian Barwick)
- Reorder `\? help` into groupings (Harald Armin Massa, Bruce)
- Add backslash commands for listing schemas, casts, and conversions (Christopher)
- `\encoding` now changes based on the server parameter `client_encoding` (Tom)

In previous versions, `\encoding` was not aware of encoding changes made using `SET client_encoding`.
- Save editor buffer into readline history (Ross)

When `\e` is used to edit a query, the result is saved in the readline history for retrieval using the up arrow.
- Improve `\d display` (Christopher)
- Enhance HTML mode to be more standards-conforming (Greg)
- New `\set AUTOCOMMIT off` capability (Tom)

This takes the place of the removed server parameter `autocommit`.
- New `\set VERBOSITY` to control error detail (Tom)

This controls the new error reporting details.
- New prompt escape sequence `%x` to show transaction status (Tom)
- Long options for psql are now available on all platforms

E.8.3.10. pg_dump Changes

- Multiple `pg_dump` fixes, including tar format and large objects
- Allow `pg_dump` to dump specific schemas (Neil)
- Make `pg_dump` preserve column storage characteristics (Christopher)
This preserves `ALTER TABLE . . . SET STORAGE` information.
- Make `pg_dump` preserve `CLUSTER` characteristics (Christopher)
- Have `pg_dumpall` use `GRANT/REVOKE` to dump database-level privileges (Tom)
- Allow `pg_dumpall` to support the options `-a`, `-s`, `-x` of `pg_dump` (Tom)
- Prevent `pg_dump` from lowercasing identifiers specified on the command line (Tom)
- `pg_dump` options `--use-set-session-authorization` and `--no-reconnect` now do nothing, all dumps use `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION`
`pg_dump` no longer reconnects to switch users, but instead always uses `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION`. This will reduce password prompting during restores.
- Long options for `pg_dump` are now available on all platforms
PostgreSQL now includes its own long-option processing routines.

E.8.3.11. libpq Changes

- Add function `PQfreemem` for freeing memory on Windows, suggested for `NOTIFY` (Bruce)
Windows requires that memory allocated in a library be freed by a function in the same library, hence `free()` doesn't work for freeing memory allocated by `libpq`. `PQfreemem` is the proper way to free `libpq` memory, especially on Windows, and is recommended for other platforms as well.
- Document service capability, and add sample file (Bruce)
This allows clients to look up connection information in a central file on the client machine.
- Make `PQsetdbLogin` have the same defaults as `PQconnectdb` (Tom)
- Allow `libpq` to cleanly fail when result sets are too large (Tom)
- Improve performance of function `PQunescapeBytea` (Ben Lamb)
- Allow thread-safe `libpq` with `configure` option `--enable-thread-safety` (Lee Kindness, Philip Yarra)
- Allow function `pqInternalNotice` to accept a format string and arguments instead of just a preformatted message (Tom, Sean Chittenden)

- Control SSL negotiation with `sslmode` values `disable`, `allow`, `prefer`, and `require` (Jon Jensen)
- Allow new error codes and levels of text (Tom)
- Allow access to the underlying table and column of a query result (Tom)

This is helpful for query-builder applications that want to know the underlying table and column names associated with a specific result set.

- Allow access to the current transaction status (Tom)
- Add ability to pass binary data directly to the server (Tom)
- Add function `PQexecPrepared` and `PQsendQueryPrepared` functions which perform bind/execute of previously prepared statements (Tom)

E.8.3.12. JDBC Changes

- Allow `setNull` on updateable result sets
- Allow `executeBatch` on a prepared statement (Barry)
- Support SSL connections (Barry)
- Handle schema names in result sets (Paul Sorenson)
- Add refcursor support (Nic Ferrier)

E.8.3.13. Miscellaneous Interface Changes

- Prevent possible memory leak or core dump during `libpq` shutdown (Tom)
- Add Informix compatibility to ECPG (Michael)

This allows ECPG to process embedded C programs that were written using certain Informix extensions.

- Add type `decimal` to ECPG that is fixed length, for Informix (Michael)
- Allow thread-safe embedded SQL programs with `configure` option `--enable-thread-safety` (Lee Kindness, Bruce)

This allows multiple threads to access the database at the same time.

- Moved Python client PyGreSQL to <http://www.pygresql.org> (Marc)

E.8.3.14. Source Code Changes

- Prevent need for separate platform geometry regression result files (Tom)
- Improved PPC locking primitive (Reinhard Max)

- New function `palloc0` to allocate and clear memory (Bruce)
- Fix locking code for s390x CPU (64-bit) (Tom)
- Allow OpenBSD to use local ident credentials (William Ahern)
- Make query plan trees read-only to executor (Tom)
- Add Darwin startup scripts (David Wheeler)
- Allow libpq to compile with Borland C++ compiler (Lester Godwin, Karl Waclawek)
- Use our own version of `getopt_long()` if needed (Peter)
- Convert administration scripts to C (Peter)
- Bison >= 1.85 is now required to build the PostgreSQL grammar, if building from CVS
- Merge documentation into one book (Peter)
- Add Windows compatibility functions (Bruce)
- Allow client interfaces to compile under MinGW (Bruce)
- New `ereport()` function for error reporting (Tom)
- Support Intel compiler on Linux (Peter)
- Improve Linux startup scripts (Slawomir Sudnik, Darko Prenosil)
- Add support for AMD Opteron and Itanium (Jeffrey W. Baker, Bruce)
- Remove `--enable-recode` option from `configure`

This was no longer needed now that we have `CREATE CONVERSION`.

- Generate a compile error if spinlock code is not found (Bruce)

Platforms without spinlock code will now fail to compile, rather than silently using semaphores. This failure can be disabled with a new `configure` option.

E.8.3.15. Contrib Changes

- Change dbmirror license to BSD
- Improve earthdistance (Bruno Wolff III)
- Portability improvements to pgcrypto (Marko Kreen)
- Prevent crash in xml (John Gray, Michael Richards)
- Update oracle
- Update mysql
- Update cube (Bruno Wolff III)
- Update earthdistance to use cube (Bruno Wolff III)
- Update btree_gist (Oleg)

- New tsearch2 full-text search module (Oleg, Teodor)
- Add hash-based crosstab function to tablefuncs (Joe)
- Add serial column to order `connectby()` siblings in tablefuncs (Nabil Sayegh,Joe)
- Add named persistent connections to dblink (Shridhar Daithanka)
- New `pg_autovacuum` allows automatic `VACUUM` (Matthew T. O'Connor)
- Make `pgbench` honor environment variables `PGHOST`, `PGPORT`, `PGUSER` (Tatsuo)
- Improve `intarray` (Teodor Sigaev)
- Improve `pgstattuple` (Rod)
- Fix bug in `metaphone()` in `fuzzystrmatch`
- Improve `adddepend` (Rod)
- Update `spi/timetravel` (Böjthe Zoltán)
- Fix `dbase -s` option and improve non-ASCII handling (Thomas Behr, Márcio Smiderle)
- Remove `array` module because features now included by default (Joe)

E.9. Release 7.3.8

Release date: 2004-10-22

This release contains a variety of fixes from 7.3.7.

E.9.1. Migration to version 7.3.8

A dump/restore is not required for those running 7.3.X.

E.9.2. Changes

- Repair possible failure to update hint bits on disk
Under rare circumstances this oversight could lead to “could not access transaction status” failures, which qualifies it as a potential-data-loss bug.
- Ensure that hashed outer join does not miss tuples
Very large left joins using a hash join plan could fail to output unmatched left-side rows given just the right data distribution.
- Disallow running `pg_ctl` as root

This is to guard against any possible security issues.

- Avoid using temp files in /tmp in `make_oidjoins_check`

This has been reported as a security issue, though it's hardly worthy of concern since there is no reason for non-developers to use this script anyway.

E.10. Release 7.3.7

Release date: 2004-08-16

This release contains one critical fix over 7.3.6, and some minor items.

E.10.1. Migration to version 7.3.7

A dump/restore is not required for those running 7.3.X.

E.10.2. Changes

- Prevent possible loss of committed transactions during crash

Due to insufficient interlocking between transaction commit and checkpointing, it was possible for transactions committed just before the most recent checkpoint to be lost, in whole or in part, following a database crash and restart. This is a serious bug that has existed since PostgreSQL 7.1.

- Remove asymmetrical word processing in `tsearch` (Teodor)
- Properly schema-qualify function names when `pg_dump`'ing a CAST

E.11. Release 7.3.6

Release date: 2004-03-02

This release contains a variety of fixes from 7.3.5.

E.11.1. Migration to version 7.3.6

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 7.3.*.

E.11.2. Changes

- Revert erroneous changes in rule permissions checking

A patch applied in 7.3.3 to fix a corner case in rule permissions checks turns out to have disabled rule-related permissions checks in many not-so-corner cases. This would for example allow users to insert into views they weren't supposed to have permission to insert into. We have therefore reverted the 7.3.3 patch. The original bug will be fixed in 8.0.

- Repair incorrect order of operations in GetNewTransactionId()

This bug could result in failure under out-of-disk-space conditions, including inability to restart even after disk space is freed.

- Ensure configure selects -fno-strict-aliasing even when an external value for CFLAGS is supplied

On some platforms, building with -fstrict-aliasing causes bugs.

- Make pg_restore handle 64-bit off_t correctly

This bug prevented proper restoration from archive files exceeding 4Gb.

- Make contrib/dblink not assume that local and remote type OIDs match (Joe)

- Quote connectby()'s start_with argument properly (Joe)

- Don't crash when a rowtype argument to a plpgsql function is NULL

- Avoid generating invalid character encoding sequences in corner cases when planning LIKE operations

- Ensure text_position() cannot scan past end of source string in multibyte cases (Korea PostgreSQL Users' Group)

- Fix index optimization and selectivity estimates for LIKE operations on bytea columns (Joe)

E.12. Release 7.3.5

Release date: 2003-12-03

This has a variety of fixes from 7.3.4.

E.12.1. Migration to version 7.3.5

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 7.3.*.

E.12.2. Changes

- Force zero_damaged_pages to be on during recovery from WAL
- Prevent some obscure cases of “variable not in subplan target lists”
- Force stats processes to detach from shared memory, ensuring cleaner shutdown
- Make PQescapeBytea and byteaout consistent with each other (Joe)
- Added missing SPI_finish() calls to dblink’s get_tuple_of_interest() (Joe)
- Fix for possible foreign key violation when rule rewrites INSERT (Jan)
- Support qualified type names in PL/Tcl’s spi_prepare command (Jan)
- Make pg_dump handle a procedural language handler located in pg_catalog
- Make pg_dump handle cases where a custom opclass is in another schema
- Make pg_dump dump binary-compatible casts correctly (Jan)
- Fix insertion of expressions containing subqueries into rule bodies
- Fix incorrect argument processing in clusterdb script (Anand Ranganathan)
- Fix problems with dropped columns in ppython triggers
- Repair problems with to_char() reading past end of its input string (Karel)
- Fix GB18030 mapping errors (Tatsuo)
- Fix several problems with SSL error handling and asynchronous SSL I/O
- Remove ability to bind a list of values to a single parameter in JDBC (prevents possible SQL-injection attacks)
- Fix some errors in HAVE_INT64_TIMESTAMP code paths
- Fix corner case for btree search in parallel with first root page split

E.13. Release 7.3.4

Release date: 2003-07-24

This has a variety of fixes from 7.3.3.

E.13.1. Migration to version 7.3.4

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 7.3.*.

E.13.2. Changes

- Repair breakage in timestamp-to-date conversion for dates before 2000
- Prevent rare possibility of server startup failure (Tom)
- Fix bugs in interval-to-time conversion (Tom)
- Add constraint names in a few places in `pg_dump` (Rod)
- Improve performance of functions with many parameters (Tom)
- Fix `to_ascii()` buffer overruns (Tom)
- Prevent restore of database comments from throwing an error (Tom)
- Work around buggy `strxfrm()` present in some Solaris releases (Tom)
- Properly escape jdbc `setObject()` strings to improve security (Barry)

E.14. Release 7.3.3

Release date: 2003-05-22

This release contains a variety of fixes for version 7.3.2.

E.14.1. Migration to version 7.3.3

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running version 7.3.*.

E.14.2. Changes

- Repair sometimes-incorrect computation of `StartUpID` after a crash
- Avoid slowness with lots of deferred triggers in one transaction (Stephan)
- Don't lock referenced row when `UPDATE` doesn't change foreign key's value (Jan)
- Use `-fPIC` not `-fpic` on Sparc (Tom Callaway)
- Repair lack of schema-awareness in `contrib/reindexdb`
- Fix `contrib/intarray` error for zero-element result array (Teodor)
- Ensure `createuser` script will exit on control-C (Oliver)
- Fix errors when the type of a dropped column has itself been dropped

- CHECKPOINT does not cause database panic on failure in noncritical steps
- Accept 60 in seconds fields of timestamp, time, interval input values
- Issue notice, not error, if `TIMESTAMP`, `TIME`, or `INTERVAL` precision too large
- Fix `abstime-to-time` cast function (fix is not applied unless you `initdb`)
- Fix `pg_proc` entry for `timestamp_tz_izone` (fix is not applied unless you `initdb`)
- Make `EXTRACT(EPOCH FROM timestamp without time zone)` treat input as local time
- `'now'::timestamp_tz` gave wrong answer if timezone changed earlier in transaction
- `HAVE_INT64_TIMESTAMP` code for time with timezone overwrote its input
- Accept `GLOBAL TEMP/TEMPORARY` as a synonym for `TEMPORARY`
- Avoid improper schema-privilege-check failure in foreign-key triggers
- Fix bugs in foreign-key triggers for `SET DEFAULT` action
- Fix incorrect time-qual check in row fetch for `UPDATE` and `DELETE` triggers
- Foreign-key clauses were parsed but ignored in `ALTER TABLE ADD COLUMN`
- Fix `createlang` script breakage for case where handler function already exists
- Fix misbehavior on zero-column tables in `pg_dump`, `COPY`, `ANALYZE`, other places
- Fix misbehavior of `func_error()` on type names containing `'%'`
- Fix misbehavior of `replace()` on strings containing `'%'`
- Regular-expression patterns containing certain multibyte characters failed
- Account correctly for `NULLs` in more cases in join size estimation
- Avoid conflict with system definition of `isblank()` function or macro
- Fix failure to convert large code point values in `EUC_TW` conversions (Tatsuo)
- Fix error recovery for `SSL_read/SSL_write` calls
- Don't do early constant-folding of type coercion expressions
- Validate page header fields immediately after reading in any page
- Repair incorrect check for ungrouped variables in unnamed joins
- Fix buffer overrun in `to_ascii` (Guido Notari)
- `contrib/ltree` fixes (Teodor)
- Fix core dump in deadlock detection on machines where `char` is unsigned
- Avoid running out of buffers in many-way `indexscan` (bug introduced in 7.3)
- Fix planner's selectivity estimation functions to handle domains properly
- Fix `dbmirror` memory-allocation bug (Steven Singer)
- Prevent infinite loop in `ln(numeric)` due to roundoff error
- `GROUP BY` got confused if there were multiple equal `GROUP BY` items
- Fix bad plan when inherited `UPDATE/DELETE` references another inherited table
- Prevent clustering on incomplete (partial or non-`NULL`-storing) indexes

- Service shutdown request at proper time if it arrives while still starting up
- Fix left-links in temporary indexes (could make backwards scans miss entries)
- Fix incorrect handling of `client_encoding` setting in `postgresql.conf` (Tatsuo)
- Fix failure to respond to `pg_ctl stop -m fast` after `Async_NotifyHandler` runs
- Fix SPI for case where rule contains multiple statements of the same type
- Fix problem with checking for wrong type of access privilege in rule query
- Fix problem with `EXCEPT` in `CREATE RULE`
- Prevent problem with dropping temp tables having serial columns
- Fix `replace_vars_with_subplan_refs` failure in complex views
- Fix regexp slowness in single-byte encodings (Tatsuo)
- Allow qualified type names in `CREATE CAST` and `DROP CAST`
- Accept `SETOF type[]`, which formerly had to be written `SETOF _type`
- Fix `pg_dump` core dump in some cases with procedural languages
- Force ISO datestyle in `pg_dump` output, for portability (Oliver)
- `pg_dump` failed to handle error return from `lo_read` (Oleg Drokin)
- `pg_dumpall` failed with groups having no members (Nick Eskelinen)
- `pg_dumpall` failed to recognize `--globals-only` switch
- `pg_restore` failed to restore blobs if `-X disable-triggers` is specified
- Repair intrafunction memory leak in `plpgsql`
- `pltcl`'s `elog` command dumped core if given wrong parameters (Ian Harding)
- `plpython` used wrong value of `atttypmod` (Brad McLean)
- Fix improper quoting of boolean values in Python interface (D'Arcy)
- Added `addDataType()` method to `PGConnection` interface for JDBC
- Fixed various problems with updateable `ResultSet`s for JDBC (Shawn Green)
- Fixed various problems with `DatabaseMetaData` for JDBC (Kris Jurka, Peter Royal)
- Fixed problem with parsing table ACLs in JDBC
- Better error message for character set conversion problems in JDBC

E.15. Release 7.3.2

Release date: 2003-02-04

This release contains a variety of fixes for version 7.3.1.

E.15.1. Migration to version 7.3.2

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running version 7.3.*.

E.15.2. Changes

- Restore creation of OID column in CREATE TABLE AS / SELECT INTO
- Fix pg_dump core dump when dumping views having comments
- Dump DEFERRABLE/INITIALLY DEFERRED constraints properly
- Fix UPDATE when child table's column numbering differs from parent
- Increase default value of max_fsm_relations
- Fix problem when fetching backwards in a cursor for a single-row query
- Make backward fetch work properly with cursor on SELECT DISTINCT query
- Fix problems with loading pg_dump files containing contrib/lo usage
- Fix problem with all-numeric user names
- Fix possible memory leak and core dump during disconnect in libpqtc1
- Make plpython's spi_execute command handle nulls properly (Andrew Bosma)
- Adjust plpython error reporting so that its regression test passes again
- Work with bison 1.875
- Handle mixed-case names properly in plpgsql's %type (Neil)
- Fix core dump in pltcl when executing a query rewritten by a rule
- Repair array subscript overruns (per report from Yichen Xie)
- Reduce MAX_TIME_PRECISION from 13 to 10 in floating-point case
- Correctly case-fold variable names in per-database and per-user settings
- Fix coredump in plpgsql's RETURN NEXT when SELECT into record returns no rows
- Fix outdated use of pg_type.typprtlen in python client interface
- Correctly handle fractional seconds in timestamps in JDBC driver
- Improve performance of getImportedKeys() in JDBC
- Make shared-library symlinks work standardly on HPUX (Giles)
- Repair inconsistent rounding behavior for timestamp, time, interval
- SSL negotiation fixes (Nathan Mueller)
- Make libpq's ~/.pgpass feature work when connecting with PQconnectDB
- Update my2pg, ora2pg
- Translation updates
- Add casts between types lo and oid in contrib/lo
- fastpath code now checks for privilege to call function

E.16. Release 7.3.1

Release date: 2002-12-18

This release contains a variety of fixes for version 7.3.

E.16.1. Migration to version 7.3.1

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running version 7.3. However, it should be noted that the main PostgreSQL interface library, libpq, has a new major version number for this release, which may require recompilation of client code in certain cases.

E.16.2. Changes

- Fix a core dump of COPY TO when client/server encodings don't match (Tom)
- Allow pg_dump to work with pre-7.2 servers (Philip)
- contrib/adddepend fixes (Tom)
- Fix problem with deletion of per-user/per-database config settings (Tom)
- contrib/vacuumlo fix (Tom)
- Allow 'password' encryption even when pg_shadow contains MD5 passwords (Bruce)
- contrib/dbmirror fix (Steven Singer)
- Optimizer fixes (Tom)
- contrib/tsearch fixes (Teodor Sigaev, Magnus)
- Allow locale names to be mixed case (Nicolai Tufar)
- Increment libpq library's major version number (Bruce)
- pg_hba.conf error reporting fixes (Bruce, Neil)
- Add SCO Openserver 5.0.4 as a supported platform (Bruce)
- Prevent EXPLAIN from crashing server (Tom)
- SSL fixes (Nathan Mueller)
- Prevent composite column creation via ALTER TABLE (Tom)

E.17. Release 7.3

Release date: 2002-11-27

E.17.1. Overview

Major changes in this release:

Schemas

Schemas allow users to create objects in separate namespaces, so two people or applications can have tables with the same name. There is also a public schema for shared tables. Table/index creation can be restricted by removing privileges on the public schema.

Drop Column

PostgreSQL now supports the `ALTER TABLE . . . DROP COLUMN` functionality.

Table Functions

Functions returning multiple rows and/or multiple columns are now much easier to use than before. You can call such a “table function” in the `SELECT FROM` clause, treating its output like a table. Also, PL/pgSQL functions can now return sets.

Prepared Queries

PostgreSQL now supports prepared queries, for improved performance.

Dependency Tracking

PostgreSQL now records object dependencies, which allows improvements in many areas. `DROP` statements now take either `CASCADE` or `RESTRICT` to control whether dependent objects are also dropped.

Privileges

Functions and procedural languages now have privileges, and functions can be defined to run with the privileges of their creator.

Internationalization

Both multibyte and locale support are now always enabled.

Logging

A variety of logging options have been enhanced.

Interfaces

A large number of interfaces have been moved to <http://gborg.postgresql.org> where they can be developed and released independently.

Functions/Identifiers

By default, functions can now take up to 32 parameters, and identifiers can be up to 63 bytes long. Also, `OPAQUE` is now deprecated: there are specific “pseudo-datatypes” to represent each of the former meanings of `OPAQUE` in function argument and result types.

E.17.2. Migration to version 7.3

A dump/restore using `pg_dump` is required for those wishing to migrate data from any previous release. If your application examines the system catalogs, additional changes will be required due to the introduction of schemas in 7.3; for more information, see: http://developer.postgresql.org/~momjian/upgrade_tips_7.3⁶.

Observe the following incompatibilities:

- Pre-6.3 clients are no longer supported.
- `pg_hba.conf` now has a column for the user name and additional features. Existing files need to be adjusted.
- Several `postgresql.conf` logging parameters have been renamed.
- `LIMIT #, #` has been disabled; use `LIMIT # OFFSET #`.
- `INSERT` statements with column lists must specify a value for each specified column. For example, `INSERT INTO tab (col1, col2) VALUES ('vall')` is now invalid. It's still allowed to supply fewer columns than expected if the `INSERT` does not have a column list.
- `serial` columns are no longer automatically `UNIQUE`; thus, an index will not automatically be created.
- A `SET` command inside an aborted transaction is now rolled back.
- `COPY` no longer considers missing trailing columns to be null. All columns need to be specified. (However, one may achieve a similar effect by specifying a column list in the `COPY` command.)
- The data type `timestamp` is now equivalent to `timestamp without time zone`, instead of `timestamp with time zone`.
- Pre-7.3 databases loaded into 7.3 will not have the new object dependencies for `serial` columns, unique constraints, and foreign keys. See the directory `contrib/adddepend/` for a detailed description and a script that will add such dependencies.
- An empty string (`"`) is no longer allowed as the input into an integer field. Formerly, it was silently interpreted as 0.

E.17.3. Changes

E.17.3.1. Server Operation

- Add `pg_locks` view to show locks (Neil)
- Security fixes for password negotiation memory allocation (Neil)
- Remove support for version 0 FE/BE protocol (PostgreSQL 6.2 and earlier) (Tom)
- Reserve the last few backend slots for superusers, add parameter `superuser_reserved_connections` to control this (Nigel J. Andrews)

6. http://developer.postgresql.org/~momjian/upgrade_tips_7.3

E.17.3.2. Performance

- Improve startup by calling `localtime()` only once (Tom)
- Cache system catalog information in flat files for faster startup (Tom)
- Improve caching of index information (Tom)
- Optimizer improvements (Tom, Fernando Nasser)
- Catalog caches now store failed lookups (Tom)
- Hash function improvements (Neil)
- Improve performance of query tokenization and network handling (Peter)
- Speed improvement for large object restore (Mario Weilguni)
- Mark expired index entries on first lookup, saving later heap fetches (Tom)
- Avoid excessive NULL bitmap padding (Manfred Koizar)
- Add BSD-licensed `qsort()` for Solaris, for performance (Bruce)
- Reduce per-row overhead by four bytes (Manfred Koizar)
- Fix GEQO optimizer bug (Neil Conway)
- Make `WITHOUT OID` actually save four bytes per row (Manfred Koizar)
- Add `default_statistics_target` variable to specify `ANALYZE` buckets (Neil)
- Use local buffer cache for temporary tables so no WAL overhead (Tom)
- Improve free space map performance on large tables (Stephen Marshall, Tom)
- Improved WAL write concurrency (Tom)

E.17.3.3. Privileges

- Add privileges on functions and procedural languages (Peter)
- Add `OWNER` to `CREATE DATABASE` so superusers can create databases on behalf of unprivileged users (Gavin Sherry, Tom)
- Add new object privilege bits `EXECUTE` and `USAGE` (Tom)
- Add `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION DEFAULT` and `RESET SESSION AUTHORIZATION` (Tom)
- Allow functions to be executed with the privilege of the function owner (Peter)

E.17.3.4. Server Configuration

- Server log messages now tagged with `LOG`, not `DEBUG` (Bruce)
- Add `user` column to `pg_hba.conf` (Bruce)
- Have `log_connections` output two lines in log file (Tom)
- Remove `debug_level` from `postgresql.conf`, now `server_min_messages` (Bruce)

- New ALTER DATABASE/USER ... SET command for per-user/database initialization (Peter)
- New parameters server_min_messages and client_min_messages to control which messages are sent to the server logs or client applications (Bruce)
- Allow pg_hba.conf to specify lists of users/databases separated by commas, group names prepended with +, and file names prepended with @ (Bruce)
- Remove secondary password file capability and pg_password utility (Bruce)
- Add variable db_user_namespace for database-local user names (Bruce)
- SSL improvements (Bear Giles)
- Make encryption of stored passwords the default (Bruce)
- Allow pg_statistics to be reset by calling pg_stat_reset() (Christopher)
- Add log_duration parameter (Bruce)
- Rename debug_print_query to log_statement (Bruce)
- Rename show_query_stats to show_statement_stats (Bruce)
- Add param log_min_error_statement to print commands to logs on error (Gavin)

E.17.3.5. Queries

- Make cursors insensitive, meaning their contents do not change (Tom)
- Disable LIMIT #,# syntax; now only LIMIT # OFFSET # supported (Bruce)
- Increase identifier length to 63 (Neil, Bruce)
- UNION fixes for merging ≥ 3 columns of different lengths (Tom)
- Add DEFAULT key word to INSERT, e.g., INSERT ... (... , DEFAULT, ...) (Rod)
- Allow views to have default values using ALTER COLUMN ... SET DEFAULT (Neil)
- Fail on INSERTs with column lists that don't supply all column values, e.g., INSERT INTO tab (col1, col2) VALUES ('val1'); (Rod)
- Fix for join aliases (Tom)
- Fix for FULL OUTER JOINS (Tom)
- Improve reporting of invalid identifier and location (Tom, Gavin)
- Fix OPEN cursor(args) (Tom)
- Allow 'ctid' to be used in a view and currtid(viewname) (Hiroshi)
- Fix for CREATE TABLE AS with UNION (Tom)
- SQL99 syntax improvements (Thomas)
- Add statement_timeout variable to cancel queries (Bruce)
- Allow prepared queries with PREPARE/EXECUTE (Neil)
- Allow FOR UPDATE to appear after LIMIT/OFFSET (Bruce)
- Add variable autocommit (Tom, David Van Wie)

E.17.3.6. Object Manipulation

- Make equals signs optional in CREATE DATABASE (Gavin Sherry)
- Make ALTER TABLE OWNER change index ownership too (Neil)
- New ALTER TABLE tablename ALTER COLUMN colname SET STORAGE controls TOAST storage, compression (John Gray)
- Add schema support, CREATE/DROP SCHEMA (Tom)
- Create schema for temporary tables (Tom)
- Add variable search_path for schema search (Tom)
- Add ALTER TABLE SET/DROP NOT NULL (Christopher)
- New CREATE FUNCTION volatility levels (Tom)
- Make rule names unique only per table (Tom)
- Add 'ON tablename' clause to DROP RULE and COMMENT ON RULE (Tom)
- Add ALTER TRIGGER RENAME (Joe)
- New current_schema() and current_schemas() inquiry functions (Tom)
- Allow functions to return multiple rows (table functions) (Joe)
- Make WITH optional in CREATE DATABASE, for consistency (Bruce)
- Add object dependency tracking (Rod, Tom)
- Add RESTRICT/CASCADE to DROP commands (Rod)
- Add ALTER TABLE DROP for non-CHECK CONSTRAINT (Rod)
- Autodestroy sequence on DROP of table with SERIAL (Rod)
- Prevent column dropping if column is used by foreign key (Rod)
- Automatically drop constraints/functions when object is dropped (Rod)
- Add CREATE/DROP OPERATOR CLASS (Bill Studenmund, Tom)
- Add ALTER TABLE DROP COLUMN (Christopher, Tom, Hiroshi)
- Prevent inherited columns from being removed or renamed (Alvaro Herrera)
- Fix foreign key constraints to not error on intermediate database states (Stephan)
- Propagate column or table renaming to foreign key constraints
- Add CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW (Gavin, Neil, Tom)
- Add CREATE OR REPLACE RULE (Gavin, Neil, Tom)
- Have rules execute alphabetically, returning more predictable values (Tom)
- Triggers are now fired in alphabetical order (Tom)
- Add /contrib/adddepend to handle pre-7.3 object dependencies (Rod)
- Allow better casting when inserting/updating values (Tom)

E.17.3.7. Utility Commands

- Have COPY TO output embedded carriage returns and newlines as \r and \n (Tom)
- Allow DELIMITER in COPY FROM to be 8-bit clean (Tatsuo)
- Make pg_dump use ALTER TABLE ADD PRIMARY KEY, for performance (Neil)
- Disable brackets in multistatement rules (Bruce)
- Disable VACUUM from being called inside a function (Bruce)
- Allow dropdb and other scripts to use identifiers with spaces (Bruce)
- Restrict database comment changes to the current database
- Allow comments on operators, independent of the underlying function (Rod)
- Rollback SET commands in aborted transactions (Tom)
- EXPLAIN now outputs as a query (Tom)
- Display condition expressions and sort keys in EXPLAIN (Tom)
- Add 'SET LOCAL var = value' to set configuration variables for a single transaction (Tom)
- Allow ANALYZE to run in a transaction (Bruce)
- Improve COPY syntax using new WITH clauses, keep backward compatibility (Bruce)
- Fix pg_dump to consistently output tags in non-ASCII dumps (Bruce)
- Make foreign key constraints clearer in dump file (Rod)
- Add COMMENT ON CONSTRAINT (Rod)
- Allow COPY TO/FROM to specify column names (Brent Verner)
- Dump UNIQUE and PRIMARY KEY constraints as ALTER TABLE (Rod)
- Have SHOW output a query result (Joe)
- Generate failure on short COPY lines rather than pad NULLs (Neil)
- Fix CLUSTER to preserve all table attributes (Alvaro Herrera)
- New pg_settings table to view/modify GUC settings (Joe)
- Add smart quoting, portability improvements to pg_dump output (Peter)
- Dump serial columns out as SERIAL (Tom)
- Enable large file support, >2G for pg_dump (Peter, Philip Warner, Bruce)
- Disallow TRUNCATE on tables that are involved in referential constraints (Rod)
- Have TRUNCATE also auto-truncate the toast table of the relation (Tom)
- Add clusterdb utility that will auto-cluster an entire database based on previous CLUSTER operations (Alvaro Herrera)
- Overhaul pg_dumpall (Peter)
- Allow REINDEX of TOAST tables (Tom)
- Implemented START TRANSACTION, per SQL99 (Neil)

- Fix rare index corruption when a page split affects bulk delete (Tom)
- Fix ALTER TABLE ... ADD COLUMN for inheritance (Alvaro Herrera)

E.17.3.8. Data Types and Functions

- Fix factorial(0) to return 1 (Bruce)
- Date/time/timezone improvements (Thomas)
- Fix for array slice extraction (Tom)
- Fix extract/date_part to report proper microseconds for timestamp (Tatsuo)
- Allow text_substr() and bytea_substr() to read TOAST values more efficiently (John Gray)
- Add domain support (Rod)
- Make WITHOUT TIME ZONE the default for TIMESTAMP and TIME data types (Thomas)
- Allow alternate storage scheme of 64-bit integers for date/time types using --enable-integer-datetimes in configure (Thomas)
- Make timezone(timestamptz) return timestamp rather than a string (Thomas)
- Allow fractional seconds in date/time types for dates prior to 1BC (Thomas)
- Limit timestamp data types to 6 decimal places of precision (Thomas)
- Change timezone conversion functions from timetz() to timezone() (Thomas)
- Add configuration variables datestyle and timezone (Tom)
- Add OVERLAY(), which allows substitution of a substring in a string (Thomas)
- Add SIMILAR TO (Thomas, Tom)
- Add regular expression SUBSTRING(string FROM pat FOR escape) (Thomas)
- Add LOCALTIME and LOCALTIMESTAMP functions (Thomas)
- Add named composite types using CREATE TYPE typename AS (column) (Joe)
- Allow composite type definition in the table alias clause (Joe)
- Add new API to simplify creation of C language table functions (Joe)
- Remove ODBC-compatible empty parentheses from calls to SQL99 functions for which these parentheses do not match the standard (Thomas)
- Allow macaddr data type to accept 12 hex digits with no separators (Mike Wyer)
- Add CREATE/DROP CAST (Peter)
- Add IS DISTINCT FROM operator (Thomas)
- Add SQL99 TREAT() function, synonym for CAST() (Thomas)
- Add pg_backend_pid() to output backend pid (Bruce)
- Add IS OF / IS NOT OF type predicate (Thomas)
- Allow bit string constants without fully-specified length (Thomas)
- Allow conversion between 8-byte integers and bit strings (Thomas)

- Implement hex literal conversion to bit string literal (Thomas)
- Allow table functions to appear in the FROM clause (Joe)
- Increase maximum number of function parameters to 32 (Bruce)
- No longer automatically create index for SERIAL column (Tom)
- Add current_database() (Rod)
- Fix cash_words() to not overflow buffer (Tom)
- Add functions replace(), split_part(), to_hex() (Joe)
- Fix LIKE for bytea as a right-hand argument (Joe)
- Prevent crashes caused by SELECT cash_out(2) (Tom)
- Fix to_char(1,'FM999.99') to return a period (Karel)
- Fix trigger/type/language functions returning OPAQUE to return proper type (Tom)

E.17.3.9. Internationalization

- Add additional encodings: Korean (JOHAB), Thai (WIN874), Vietnamese (TCVN), Arabic (WIN1256), Simplified Chinese (GBK), Korean (UHC) (Eiji Tokuya)
- Enable locale support by default (Peter)
- Add locale variables (Peter)
- Escape bytes $\geq 0x7f$ for multibyte in PQescapeBytea/PQunescapeBytea (Tatsuo)
- Add locale awareness to regular expression character classes
- Enable multibyte support by default (Tatsuo)
- Add GB18030 multibyte support (Bill Huang)
- Add CREATE/DROP CONVERSION, allowing loadable encodings (Tatsuo, Kaori)
- Add pg_conversion table (Tatsuo)
- Add SQL99 CONVERT() function (Tatsuo)
- pg_dumpall, pg_controldata, and pg_resetxlog now national-language aware (Peter)
- New and updated translations

E.17.3.10. Server-side Languages

- Allow recursive SQL function (Peter)
- Change PL/Tcl build to use configured compiler and Makefile.shlib (Peter)
- Overhaul the PL/pgSQL FOUND variable to be more Oracle-compatible (Neil, Tom)
- Allow PL/pgSQL to handle quoted identifiers (Tom)
- Allow set-returning PL/pgSQL functions (Neil)
- Make PL/pgSQL schema-aware (Joe)

- Remove some memory leaks (Nigel J. Andrews, Tom)

E.17.3.11. psql

- Don't lowercase psql \connect database name for 7.2.0 compatibility (Tom)
- Add psql \timing to time user queries (Greg Sabino Mullane)
- Have psql \d show index information (Greg Sabino Mullane)
- New psql \dD shows domains (Jonathan Eisler)
- Allow psql to show rules on views (Paul ?)
- Fix for psql variable substitution (Tom)
- Allow psql \d to show temporary table structure (Tom)
- Allow psql \d to show foreign keys (Rod)
- Fix \? to honor \pset pager (Bruce)
- Have psql reports its version number on startup (Tom)
- Allow \copy to specify column names (Tom)

E.17.3.12. libpq

- Add ~/.pgpass to store host/user password combinations (Alvaro Herrera)
- Add PQunescapeBytea() function to libpq (Patrick Welche)
- Fix for sending large queries over non-blocking connections (Bernhard Herzog)
- Fix for libpq using timers on Win9X (David Ford)
- Allow libpq notify to handle servers with different-length identifiers (Tom)
- Add libpq PQescapeString() and PQescapeBytea() to Windows (Bruce)
- Fix for SSL with non-blocking connections (Jack Bates)
- Add libpq connection timeout parameter (Denis A Ustimenko)

E.17.3.13. JDBC

- Allow JDBC to compile with JDK 1.4 (Dave)
- Add JDBC 3 support (Barry)
- Allows JDBC to set loglevel by adding ?loglevel=X to the connection URL (Barry)
- Add Driver.info() message that prints out the version number (Barry)
- Add updateable result sets (Raghu Nidagal, Dave)
- Add support for callable statements (Paul Bethe)
- Add query cancel capability

- Add refresh row (Dave)
- Fix MD5 encryption handling for multibyte servers (Jun Kawai)
- Add support for prepared statements (Barry)

E.17.3.14. Miscellaneous Interfaces

- Fixed ECPG bug concerning octal numbers in single quotes (Michael)
- Move src/interfaces/libpgeasy to <http://gborg.postgresql.org> (Marc, Bruce)
- Improve Python interface (Elliot Lee, Andrew Johnson, Greg Copeland)
- Add libpgtcl connection close event (Gerhard Hintermayer)
- Move src/interfaces/libpq++ to <http://gborg.postgresql.org> (Marc, Bruce)
- Move src/interfaces/odbc to <http://gborg.postgresql.org> (Marc)
- Move src/interfaces/libpgeasy to <http://gborg.postgresql.org> (Marc, Bruce)
- Move src/interfaces/perl5 to <http://gborg.postgresql.org> (Marc, Bruce)
- Remove src/bin/pgaccess from main tree, now at <http://www.pgaccess.org> (Bruce)
- Add pg_on_connection_loss command to libpgtcl (Gerhard Hintermayer, Tom)

E.17.3.15. Source Code

- Fix for parallel make (Peter)
- AIX fixes for linking Tcl (Andreas Zeugswetter)
- Allow PL/Perl to build under Cygwin (Jason Tishler)
- Improve MIPS compiles (Peter, Oliver Elphick)
- Require Autoconf version 2.53 (Peter)
- Require readline and zlib by default in configure (Peter)
- Allow Solaris to use Intimate Shared Memory (ISM), for performance (Scott Brunza, P.J. Josh Rovero)
- Always enable syslog in compile, remove --enable-syslog option (Tatsuo)
- Always enable multibyte in compile, remove --enable-multibyte option (Tatsuo)
- Always enable locale in compile, remove --enable-locale option (Peter)
- Fix for Win9x DLL creation (Magnus Naeslund)
- Fix for link() usage by WAL code on Windows, BeOS (Jason Tishler)
- Add sys/types.h to c.h, remove from main files (Peter, Bruce)
- Fix AIX hang on SMP machines (Tomoyuki Nijima)
- AIX SMP hang fix (Tomoyuki Nijima)
- Fix pre-1970 date handling on newer glibc libraries (Tom)

- Fix PowerPC SMP locking (Tom)
- Prevent gcc -ffast-math from being used (Peter, Tom)
- Bison >= 1.50 now required for developer builds
- Kerberos 5 support now builds with Heimdal (Peter)
- Add appendix in the User's Guide which lists SQL features (Thomas)
- Improve loadable module linking to use RTLD_NOW (Tom)
- New error levels WARNING, INFO, LOG, DEBUG[1-5] (Bruce)
- New src/port directory holds replaced libc functions (Peter, Bruce)
- New pg_namespace system catalog for schemas (Tom)
- Add pg_class.relnamespace for schemas (Tom)
- Add pg_type.typnamespace for schemas (Tom)
- Add pg_proc.pronamespace for schemas (Tom)
- Restructure aggregates to have pg_proc entries (Tom)
- System relations now have their own namespace, pg_* test not required (Fernando Nasser)
- Rename TOAST index names to be *_index rather than *_idx (Neil)
- Add namespaces for operators, opclasses (Tom)
- Add additional checks to server control file (Thomas)
- New Polish FAQ (Marcin Mazurek)
- Add Posix semaphore support (Tom)
- Document need for reindex (Bruce)
- Rename some internal identifiers to simplify Windows compile (Jan, Katherine Ward)
- Add documentation on computing disk space (Bruce)
- Remove KSQO from GUC (Bruce)
- Fix memory leak in rtree (Kenneth Been)
- Modify a few error messages for consistency (Bruce)
- Remove unused system table columns (Peter)
- Make system columns NOT NULL where appropriate (Tom)
- Clean up use of sprintf in favor of snprintf() (Neil, Jukka Holappa)
- Remove OPAQUE and create specific subtypes (Tom)
- Cleanups in array internal handling (Joe, Tom)
- Disallow pg_atoi("") (Bruce)
- Remove parameter wal_files because WAL files are now recycled (Bruce)
- Add version numbers to heap pages (Tom)

E.17.3.16. Contrib

- Allow inet arrays in /contrib/array (Neil)
- GiST fixes (Teodor Sigaev, Neil)
- Upgrade /contrib/mysql
- Add /contrib/dbsize which shows table sizes without vacuum (Peter)
- Add /contrib/intagg, integer aggregator routines (mlw)
- Improve /contrib/oid2name (Neil, Bruce)
- Improve /contrib/tsearch (Oleg, Teodor Sigaev)
- Cleanups of /contrib/rserver (Alexey V. Borzov)
- Update /contrib/oracle conversion utility (Gilles Darold)
- Update /contrib/dblink (Joe)
- Improve options supported by /contrib/vacuumlo (Mario Weilguni)
- Improvements to /contrib/intarray (Oleg, Teodor Sigaev, Andrey Oktyabrski)
- Add /contrib/reindexdb utility (Shaun Thomas)
- Add indexing to /contrib/isbn_issn (Dan Weston)
- Add /contrib/dbmirror (Steven Singer)
- Improve /contrib/pgbench (Neil)
- Add /contrib/tablefunc table function examples (Joe)
- Add /contrib/ltree data type for tree structures (Teodor Sigaev, Oleg Bartunov)
- Move /contrib/pg_controldata, pg_resetxlog into main tree (Bruce)
- Fixes to /contrib/cube (Bruno Wolff)
- Improve /contrib/fulltextindex (Christopher)

E.18. Release 7.2.6

Release date: 2004-10-22

This release contains a variety of fixes from 7.2.5.

E.18.1. Migration to version 7.2.6

A dump/restore is not required for those running 7.2.X.

E.18.2. Changes

- Repair possible failure to update hint bits on disk

Under rare circumstances this oversight could lead to “could not access transaction status” failures, which qualifies it as a potential-data-loss bug.

- Ensure that hashed outer join does not miss tuples

Very large left joins using a hash join plan could fail to output unmatched left-side rows given just the right data distribution.

- Disallow running `pg_ctl` as root

This is to guard against any possible security issues.

- Avoid using temp files in `/tmp` in `make_oidjoins_check`

This has been reported as a security issue, though it’s hardly worthy of concern since there is no reason for non-developers to use this script anyway.

- Update to newer versions of Bison

E.19. Release 7.2.5

Release date: 2004-08-16

This release contains a variety of fixes from 7.2.4.

E.19.1. Migration to version 7.2.5

A dump/restore is not required for those running 7.2.X.

E.19.2. Changes

- Prevent possible loss of committed transactions during crash

Due to insufficient interlocking between transaction commit and checkpointing, it was possible for transactions committed just before the most recent checkpoint to be lost, in whole or in part, following a database crash and restart. This is a serious bug that has existed since PostgreSQL 7.1.

- Fix corner case for btree search in parallel with first root page split
- Fix buffer overrun in `to_ascii` (Guido Notari)
- Fix core dump in deadlock detection on machines where `char` is unsigned
- Fix failure to respond to `pg_ctl stop -m fast` after `Async_NotifyHandler` runs
- Repair memory leaks in `pg_dump`
- Avoid conflict with system definition of `isblank()` function or macro

E.20. Release 7.2.4

Release date: 2003-01-30

This release contains a variety of fixes for version 7.2.3, including fixes to prevent possible data loss.

E.20.1. Migration to version 7.2.4

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running version 7.2.*.

E.20.2. Changes

- Fix some additional cases of VACUUM "No one parent tuple was found" error
- Prevent VACUUM from being called inside a function (Bruce)
- Ensure `pg_clog` updates are sync'd to disk before marking checkpoint complete
- Avoid integer overflow during large hash joins
- Make GROUP commands work when `pg_group.grolist` is large enough to be toasted
- Fix errors in datetime tables; some timezone names weren't being recognized
- Fix integer overflows in `circle_poly()`, `path_encode()`, `path_add()` (Neil)
- Repair long-standing logic errors in `lseg_eq()`, `lseg_ne()`, `lseg_center()`

E.21. Release 7.2.3

Release date: 2002-10-01

This release contains a variety of fixes for version 7.2.2, including fixes to prevent possible data loss.

E.21.1. Migration to version 7.2.3

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running version 7.2.*.

E.21.2. Changes

- Prevent possible compressed transaction log loss (Tom)
- Prevent non-superuser from increasing most recent vacuum info (Tom)
- Handle pre-1970 date values in newer versions of glibc (Tom)
- Fix possible hang during server shutdown
- Prevent spinlock hangs on SMP PPC machines (Tomoyuki Niijima)
- Fix pg_dump to properly dump FULL JOIN USING (Tom)

E.22. Release 7.2.2

Release date: 2002-08-23

This release contains a variety of fixes for version 7.2.1.

E.22.1. Migration to version 7.2.2

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running version 7.2.*.

E.22.2. Changes

- Allow EXECUTE of "CREATE TABLE AS ... SELECT" in PL/pgSQL (Tom)
- Fix for compressed transaction log id wraparound (Tom)
- Fix PQescapeBytea/PQunescapeBytea so that they handle bytes > 0x7f (Tatsuo)
- Fix for psql and pg_dump crashing when invoked with non-existent long options (Tatsuo)
- Fix crash when invoking geometric operators (Tom)
- Allow OPEN cursor(args) (Tom)
- Fix for rtree_gist index build (Teodor)
- Fix for dumping user-defined aggregates (Tom)
- contrib/intarray fixes (Oleg)
- Fix for complex UNION/EXCEPT/INTERSECT queries using parens (Tom)
- Fix to pg_convert (Tatsuo)

- Fix for crash with long DATA strings (Thomas, Neil)
- Fix for repeat(), lpad(), rpad() and long strings (Neil)

E.23. Release 7.2.1

Release date: 2002-03-21

This release contains a variety of fixes for version 7.2.

E.23.1. Migration to version 7.2.1

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running version 7.2.

E.23.2. Changes

- Ensure that sequence counters do not go backwards after a crash (Tom)
- Fix pgaccess kanji-conversion key binding (Tatsuo)
- Optimizer improvements (Tom)
- Cash I/O improvements (Tom)
- New Russian FAQ
- Compile fix for missing AuthBlockSig (Heiko)
- Additional time zones and time zone fixes (Thomas)
- Allow psql \connect to handle mixed case database and user names (Tom)
- Return proper OID on command completion even with ON INSERT rules (Tom)
- Allow COPY FROM to use 8-bit DELIMITERS (Tatsuo)
- Fix bug in extract/date_part for milliseconds/microseconds (Tatsuo)
- Improve handling of multiple UNIONs with different lengths (Tom)
- contrib/btree_gist improvements (Teodor Sigaev)
- contrib/tsearch dictionary improvements, see README.tsearch for an additional installation step (Thomas T. Thai, Teodor Sigaev)
- Fix for array subscripts handling (Tom)
- Allow EXECUTE of "CREATE TABLE AS ... SELECT" in PL/pgSQL (Tom)

E.24. Release 7.2

Release date: 2002-02-04

E.24.1. Overview

This release improves PostgreSQL for use in high-volume applications.

Major changes in this release:

VACUUM

Vacuuming no longer locks tables, thus allowing normal user access during the vacuum. A new `VACUUM FULL` command does old-style vacuum by locking the table and shrinking the on-disk copy of the table.

Transactions

There is no longer a problem with installations that exceed four billion transactions.

OIDs

OIDs are now optional. Users can now create tables without OIDs for cases where OID usage is excessive.

Optimizer

The system now computes histogram column statistics during `ANALYZE`, allowing much better optimizer choices.

Security

A new MD5 encryption option allows more secure storage and transfer of passwords. A new Unix-domain socket authentication option is available on Linux and BSD systems.

Statistics

Administrators can use the new table access statistics module to get fine-grained information about table and index usage.

Internationalization

Program and library messages can now be displayed in several languages.

E.24.2. Migration to version 7.2

A dump/restore using `pg_dump` is required for those wishing to migrate data from any previous release.

Observe the following incompatibilities:

- The semantics of the `VACUUM` command have changed in this release. You may wish to update your maintenance procedures accordingly.

- In this release, comparisons using `= NULL` will always return false (or `NULL`, more precisely). Previous releases automatically transformed this syntax to `IS NULL`. The old behavior can be re-enabled using a `postgresql.conf` parameter.
- The `pg_hba.conf` and `pg_ident.conf` configuration is now only reloaded after receiving a `SIGHUP` signal, not with each connection.
- The function `octet_length()` now returns the uncompressed data length.
- The date/time value `'current'` is no longer available. You will need to rewrite your applications.
- The `timestamp()`, `time()`, and `interval()` functions are no longer available. Instead of `timestamp()`, use `timestamp 'string'` or `CAST`.

The `SELECT ... LIMIT #,#` syntax will be removed in the next release. You should change your queries to use separate `LIMIT` and `OFFSET` clauses, e.g. `LIMIT 10 OFFSET 20`.

E.24.3. Changes

E.24.3.1. Server Operation

- Create temporary files in a separate directory (Bruce)
- Delete orphaned temporary files on postmaster startup (Bruce)
- Added unique indexes to some system tables (Tom)
- System table operator reorganization (Oleg Bartunov, Teodor Sigaev, Tom)
- Renamed `pg_log` to `pg_clog` (Tom)
- Enable `SIGTERM`, `SIGQUIT` to kill backends (Jan)
- Removed compile-time limit on number of backends (Tom)
- Better cleanup for semaphore resource failure (Tatsuo, Tom)
- Allow safe transaction ID wraparound (Tom)
- Removed OIDs from some system tables (Tom)
- Removed "triggered data change violation" error check (Tom)
- SPI portal creation of prepared/saved plans (Jan)
- Allow SPI column functions to work for system columns (Tom)
- Long value compression improvement (Tom)
- Statistics collector for table, index access (Jan)
- Truncate extra-long sequence names to a reasonable value (Tom)
- Measure transaction times in milliseconds (Thomas)
- Fix TID sequential scans (Hiroshi)
- Superuser ID now fixed at 1 (Peter E)

- New `pg_ctl "reload"` option (Tom)

E.24.3.2. Performance

- Optimizer improvements (Tom)
- New histogram column statistics for optimizer (Tom)
- Reuse write-ahead log files rather than discarding them (Tom)
- Cache improvements (Tom)
- IS NULL, IS NOT NULL optimizer improvement (Tom)
- Improve lock manager to reduce lock contention (Tom)
- Keep relcache entries for index access support functions (Tom)
- Allow better selectivity with NaN and infinities in NUMERIC (Tom)
- R-tree performance improvements (Kenneth Been)
- B-tree splits more efficient (Tom)

E.24.3.3. Privileges

- Change UPDATE, DELETE privileges to be distinct (Peter E)
- New REFERENCES, TRIGGER privileges (Peter E)
- Allow GRANT/REVOKE to/from more than one user at a time (Peter E)
- New `has_table_privilege()` function (Joe Conway)
- Allow non-superuser to vacuum database (Tom)
- New SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION command (Peter E)
- Fix bug in privilege modifications on newly created tables (Tom)
- Disallow access to `pg_statistic` for non-superuser, add user-accessible views (Tom)

E.24.3.4. Client Authentication

- Fork postmaster before doing authentication to prevent hangs (Peter E)
- Add ident authentication over Unix domain sockets on Linux, *BSD (Helge Bahmann, Oliver Elphick, Teodor Sigaev, Bruce)
- Add a password authentication method that uses MD5 encryption (Bruce)
- Allow encryption of stored passwords using MD5 (Bruce)
- PAM authentication (Dominic J. Eidson)
- Load `pg_hba.conf` and `pg_ident.conf` only on startup and SIGHUP (Bruce)

E.24.3.5. Server Configuration

- Interpretation of some time zone abbreviations as Australian rather than North American now settable at run time (Bruce)
- New parameter to set default transaction isolation level (Peter E)
- New parameter to enable conversion of "expr = NULL" into "expr IS NULL", off by default (Peter E)
- New parameter to control memory usage by VACUUM (Tom)
- New parameter to set client authentication timeout (Tom)
- New parameter to set maximum number of open files (Tom)

E.24.3.6. Queries

- Statements added by INSERT rules now execute after the INSERT (Jan)
- Prevent unadorned relation names in target list (Bruce)
- NULLs now sort after all normal values in ORDER BY (Tom)
- New IS UNKNOWN, IS NOT UNKNOWN Boolean tests (Tom)
- New SHARE UPDATE EXCLUSIVE lock mode (Tom)
- New EXPLAIN ANALYZE command that shows run times and row counts (Martijn van Oosterhout)
- Fix problem with LIMIT and subqueries (Tom)
- Fix for LIMIT, DISTINCT ON pushed into subqueries (Tom)
- Fix nested EXCEPT/INTERSECT (Tom)

E.24.3.7. Schema Manipulation

- Fix SERIAL in temporary tables (Bruce)
- Allow temporary sequences (Bruce)
- Sequences now use int8 internally (Tom)
- New SERIAL8 creates int8 columns with sequences, default still SERIAL4 (Tom)
- Make OIDs optional using WITHOUT OIDS (Tom)
- Add %TYPE syntax to CREATE TYPE (Ian Lance Taylor)
- Add ALTER TABLE / DROP CONSTRAINT for CHECK constraints (Christopher Kings-Lynne)
- New CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION to alter existing function (preserving the function OID) (Gavin Sherry)
- Add ALTER TABLE / ADD [UNIQUE | PRIMARY] (Christopher Kings-Lynne)
- Allow column renaming in views
- Make ALTER TABLE / RENAME COLUMN update column names of indexes (Brent Verner)

- Fix for ALTER TABLE / ADD CONSTRAINT ... CHECK with inherited tables (Stephan Szabo)
- ALTER TABLE RENAME update foreign-key trigger arguments correctly (Brent Verner)
- DROP AGGREGATE and COMMENT ON AGGREGATE now accept an aggtype (Tom)
- Add automatic return type data casting for SQL functions (Tom)
- Allow GiST indexes to handle NULLs and multikey indexes (Oleg Bartunov, Teodor Sigaev, Tom)
- Enable partial indexes (Martijn van Oosterhout)

E.24.3.8. Utility Commands

- Add RESET ALL, SHOW ALL (Marko Kreen)
- CREATE/ALTER USER/GROUP now allow options in any order (Vince)
- Add LOCK A, B, C functionality (Neil Padgett)
- New ENCRYPTED/UNENCRYPTED option to CREATE/ALTER USER (Bruce)
- New light-weight VACUUM does not lock table; old semantics are available as VACUUM FULL (Tom)
- Disable COPY TO/FROM on views (Bruce)
- COPY DELIMITERS string must be exactly one character (Tom)
- VACUUM warning about index tuples fewer than heap now only appears when appropriate (Martijn van Oosterhout)
- Fix privilege checks for CREATE INDEX (Tom)
- Disallow inappropriate use of CREATE/DROP INDEX/TRIGGER/VIEW (Tom)

E.24.3.9. Data Types and Functions

- SUM(), AVG(), COUNT() now uses int8 internally for speed (Tom)
- Add convert(), convert2() (Tatsuo)
- New function bit_length() (Peter E)
- Make the "n" in CHAR(n)/VARCHAR(n) represents letters, not bytes (Tatsuo)
- CHAR(), VARCHAR() now reject strings that are too long (Peter E)
- BIT VARYING now rejects bit strings that are too long (Peter E)
- BIT now rejects bit strings that do not match declared size (Peter E)
- INET, CIDR text conversion functions (Alex Pilosov)
- INET, CIDR operators << and <<= indexable (Alex Pilosov)
- Bytea \### now requires valid three digit octal number
- Bytea comparison improvements, now supports =, <>, >, >=, <, and <=
- Bytea now supports B-tree indexes
- Bytea now supports LIKE, LIKE...ESCAPE, NOT LIKE, NOT LIKE...ESCAPE

- Bytea now supports concatenation
- New bytea functions: position, substring, trim, btrim, and length
- New encode() function mode, "escaped", converts minimally escaped bytea to/from text
- Add pg_database_encoding_max_length() (Tatsuo)
- Add pg_client_encoding() function (Tatsuo)
- now() returns time with millisecond precision (Thomas)
- New TIMESTAMP WITHOUT TIMEZONE data type (Thomas)
- Add ISO date/time specification with "T", yyyy-mm-ddThh:mm:ss (Thomas)
- New xid/int comparison functions (Hiroshi)
- Add precision to TIME, TIMESTAMP, and INTERVAL data types (Thomas)
- Modify type coercion logic to attempt binary-compatible functions first (Tom)
- New encode() function installed by default (Marko Kreen)
- Improved to_*(*) conversion functions (Karel Zak)
- Optimize LIKE/ILIKE when using single-byte encodings (Tatsuo)
- New functions in contrib/pgcrypto: crypt(), hmac(), encrypt(), gen_salt() (Marko Kreen)
- Correct description of translate() function (Bruce)
- Add INTERVAL argument for SET TIME ZONE (Thomas)
- Add INTERVAL YEAR TO MONTH (etc.) syntax (Thomas)
- Optimize length functions when using single-byte encodings (Tatsuo)
- Fix path_inter, path_distance, path_length, dist_ppath to handle closed paths (Curtis Barrett, Tom)
- octet_length(text) now returns non-compressed length (Tatsuo, Bruce)
- Handle "July" full name in date/time literals (Greg Sabino Mullane)
- Some datatype() function calls now evaluated differently
- Add support for Julian and ISO time specifications (Thomas)

E.24.3.10. Internationalization

- National language support in psql, pg_dump, libpq, and server (Peter E)
- Message translations in Chinese (simplified, traditional), Czech, French, German, Hungarian, Russian, Swedish (Peter E, Serguei A. Mokhov, Karel Zak, Weiping He, Zhenbang Wei, Kovacs Zoltan)
- Make trim, ltrim, rtrim, btrim, lpad, rpad, translate multibyte aware (Tatsuo)
- Add LATIN5,6,7,8,9,10 support (Tatsuo)
- Add ISO 8859-5,6,7,8 support (Tatsuo)
- Correct LATIN5 to mean ISO-8859-9, not ISO-8859-5 (Tatsuo)
- Make mic2ascii() non-ASCII aware (Tatsuo)

- Reject invalid multibyte character sequences (Tatsuo)

E.24.3.11. PL/pgSQL

- Now uses portals for SELECT loops, allowing huge result sets (Jan)
- CURSOR and REFCURSOR support (Jan)
- Can now return open cursors (Jan)
- Add ELSEIF (Klaus Reger)
- Improve PL/pgSQL error reporting, including location of error (Tom)
- Allow IS or FOR key words in cursor declaration, for compatibility (Bruce)
- Fix for SELECT ... FOR UPDATE (Tom)
- Fix for PERFORM returning multiple rows (Tom)
- Make PL/pgSQL use the server's type coercion code (Tom)
- Memory leak fix (Jan, Tom)
- Make trailing semicolon optional (Tom)

E.24.3.12. PL/Perl

- New untrusted PL/Perl (Alex Pilosov)
- PL/Perl is now built on some platforms even if libperl is not shared (Peter E)

E.24.3.13. PL/Tcl

- Now reports errorInfo (Vsevolod Lobko)
- Add spi_lastoid function (bob@redivi.com)

E.24.3.14. PL/Python

- ...is new (Andrew Bosma)

E.24.3.15. psql

- \d displays indexes in unique, primary groupings (Christopher Kings-Lynne)
- Allow trailing semicolons in backslash commands (Greg Sabino Mullane)
- Read password from /dev/tty if possible
- Force new password prompt when changing user and database (Tatsuo, Tom)

- Format the correct number of columns for Unicode (Patrice)

E.24.3.16. libpq

- New function PQescapeString() to escape quotes in command strings (Florian Weimer)
- New function PQescapeBytea() escapes binary strings for use as SQL string literals

E.24.3.17. JDBC

- Return OID of INSERT (Ken K)
- Handle more data types (Ken K)
- Handle single quotes and newlines in strings (Ken K)
- Handle NULL variables (Ken K)
- Fix for time zone handling (Barry Lind)
- Improved Druid support
- Allow eight-bit characters with non-multibyte server (Barry Lind)
- Support BIT, BINARY types (Ned Wolpert)
- Reduce memory usage (Michael Stephens, Dave Cramer)
- Update DatabaseMetaData (Peter E)
- Add DatabaseMetaData.getCatalogs() (Peter E)
- Encoding fixes (Anders Bengtsson)
- Get/setCatalog methods (Jason Davies)
- DatabaseMetaData.getColumns() now returns column defaults (Jason Davies)
- DatabaseMetaData.getColumns() performance improvement (Jeroen van Vianen)
- Some JDBC1 and JDBC2 merging (Anders Bengtsson)
- Transaction performance improvements (Barry Lind)
- Array fixes (Greg Zoller)
- Serialize addition
- Fix batch processing (Rene Pijlman)
- ExecSQL method reorganization (Anders Bengtsson)
- GetColumn() fixes (Jeroen van Vianen)
- Fix isWritable() function (Rene Pijlman)
- Improved passage of JDBC2 conformance tests (Rene Pijlman)
- Add bytea type capability (Barry Lind)
- Add isNullable() (Rene Pijlman)

- JDBC date/time test suite fixes (Liam Stewart)
- Fix for SELECT 'id' AS xxx FROM table (Dave Cramer)
- Fix DatabaseMetaData to show precision properly (Mark Lillywhite)
- New getImported/getExported keys (Jason Davies)
- MD5 password encryption support (Jeremy Wohl)
- Fix to actually use type cache (Ned Wolpert)

E.24.3.18. ODBC

- Remove query size limit (Hiroshi)
- Remove text field size limit (Hiroshi)
- Fix for SQLPrimaryKeys in multibyte mode (Hiroshi)
- Allow ODBC procedure calls (Hiroshi)
- Improve boolean handing (Aidan Mountford)
- Most configuration options now settable via DSN (Hiroshi)
- Multibyte, performance fixes (Hiroshi)
- Allow driver to be used with iODBC or unixODBC (Peter E)
- MD5 password encryption support (Bruce)
- Add more compatibility functions to odbc.sql (Peter E)

E.24.3.19. ECPG

- EXECUTE ... INTO implemented (Christof Petig)
- Multiple row descriptor support (e.g. CARDINALITY) (Christof Petig)
- Fix for GRANT parameters (Lee Kindness)
- Fix INITIALLY DEFERRED bug
- Various bug fixes (Michael, Christof Petig)
- Auto allocation for indicator variable arrays (int *ind_p=NULL)
- Auto allocation for string arrays (char **foo_pp=NULL)
- ECPGfree_auto_mem fixed
- All function names with external linkage are now prefixed by ECPG
- Fixes for arrays of structures (Michael)

E.24.3.20. Misc. Interfaces

- Python fix fetchone() (Gerhard Haring)
- Use UTF, Unicode in Tcl where appropriate (Vsevolod Lobko, Reinhard Max)
- Add Tcl COPY TO/FROM (ljb)
- Prevent output of default index op class in pg_dump (Tom)
- Fix libpgeasy memory leak (Bruce)

E.24.3.21. Build and Install

- Configure, dynamic loader, and shared library fixes (Peter E)
- Fixes in QNX 4 port (Bernd Tegge)
- Fixes in Cygwin and Windows ports (Jason Tishler, Gerhard Haring, Dmitry Yurtaev, Darko Prenosil, Mikhail Terekhov)
- Fix for Windows socket communication failures (Magnus, Mikhail Terekhov)
- Hurd compile fix (Oliver Elphick)
- BeOS fixes (Cyril Velter)
- Remove configure --enable-unicode-conversion, now enabled by multibyte (Tatsuo)
- AIX fixes (Tatsuo, Andreas)
- Fix parallel make (Peter E)
- Install SQL language manual pages into OS-specific directories (Peter E)
- Rename config.h to pg_config.h (Peter E)
- Reorganize installation layout of header files (Peter E)

E.24.3.22. Source Code

- Remove SEP_CHAR (Bruce)
- New GUC hooks (Tom)
- Merge GUC and command line handling (Marko Kreen)
- Remove EXTEND INDEX (Martijn van Oosterhout, Tom)
- New pgjindent utility to indent java code (Bruce)
- Remove define of true/false when compiling under C++ (Leandro Fanzone, Tom)
- pgindent fixes (Bruce, Tom)
- Replace strcasecmp() with strcmp() where appropriate (Peter E)
- Dynahash portability improvements (Tom)
- Add 'volatile' usage in spinlock structures

- Improve signal handling logic (Tom)

E.24.3.23. Contrib

- New contrib/rtree_gist (Oleg Bartunov, Teodor Sigaev)
- New contrib/tsearch full-text indexing (Oleg, Teodor Sigaev)
- Add contrib/dblink for remote database access (Joe Conway)
- contrib/ora2pg Oracle conversion utility (Gilles Darold)
- contrib/xml XML conversion utility (John Gray)
- contrib/fulltextindex fixes (Christopher Kings-Lynne)
- New contrib/fuzzystmatch with levenshtein and metaphone, soundex merged (Joe Conway)
- Add contrib/intarray boolean queries, binary search, fixes (Oleg Bartunov)
- New pg_upgrade utility (Bruce)
- Add new pg_resetxlog options (Bruce, Tom)

E.25. Release 7.1.3

Release date: 2001-08-15

E.25.1. Migration to version 7.1.3

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 7.1.X.

E.25.2. Changes

Remove unused WAL segments of large transactions (Tom)
Multiaction rule fix (Tom)
PL/pgSQL memory allocation fix (Jan)
VACUUM buffer fix (Tom)
Regression test fixes (Tom)
pg_dump fixes for GRANT/REVOKE/comments on views, user-defined types (Tom)
Fix subselects with DISTINCT ON or LIMIT (Tom)
BeOS fix
Disable COPY TO/FROM a view (Tom)
Cygwin build (Jason Tishler)

E.26. Release 7.1.2

Release date: 2001-05-11

This has one fix from 7.1.1.

E.26.1. Migration to version 7.1.2

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 7.1.X.

E.26.2. Changes

Fix PL/pgSQL SELECTs when returning no rows
Fix for psql backslash core dump
Referential integrity privilege fix
Optimizer fixes
pg_dump cleanups

E.27. Release 7.1.1

Release date: 2001-05-05

This has a variety of fixes from 7.1.

E.27.1. Migration to version 7.1.1

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 7.1.

E.27.2. Changes

Fix for numeric MODULO operator (Tom)
pg_dump fixes (Philip)
pg_dump can dump 7.0 databases (Philip)
readline 4.2 fixes (Peter E)
JOIN fixes (Tom)
AIX, MSWIN, VAX, N32K fixes (Tom)
Multibytes fixes (Tom)
Unicode fixes (Tatsuo)
Optimizer improvements (Tom)

Fix for whole rows in functions (Tom)
Fix for pg_ctl and option strings with spaces (Peter E)
ODBC fixes (Hiroshi)
EXTRACT can now take string argument (Thomas)
Python fixes (Darcy)

E.28. Release 7.1

Release date: 2001-04-13

This release focuses on removing limitations that have existed in the PostgreSQL code for many years.

Major changes in this release:

Write-ahead Log (WAL)

To maintain database consistency in case of an operating system crash, previous releases of PostgreSQL have forced all data modifications to disk before each transaction commit. With WAL, only one log file must be flushed to disk, greatly improving performance. If you have been using `-F` in previous releases to disable disk flushes, you may want to consider discontinuing its use.

TOAST

TOAST - Previous releases had a compiled-in row length limit, typically 8k - 32k. This limit made storage of long text fields difficult. With TOAST, long rows of any length can be stored with good performance.

Outer Joins

We now support outer joins. The UNION/NOT IN workaround for outer joins is no longer required. We use the SQL92 outer join syntax.

Function Manager

The previous C function manager did not handle null values properly, nor did it support 64-bit CPU's (Alpha). The new function manager does. You can continue using your old custom functions, but you may want to rewrite them in the future to use the new function manager call interface.

Complex Queries

A large number of complex queries that were unsupported in previous releases now work. Many combinations of views, aggregates, UNION, LIMIT, cursors, subqueries, and inherited tables now work properly. Inherited tables are now accessed by default. Subqueries in FROM are now supported.

E.28.1. Migration to version 7.1

A dump/restore using `pg_dump` is required for those wishing to migrate data from any previous release.

E.28.2. Changes

Bug Fixes

Many multibyte/Unicode/locale fixes (Tatsuo and others)
 More reliable ALTER TABLE RENAME (Tom)
 Kerberos V fixes (David Wragg)
 Fix for INSERT INTO...SELECT where targetlist has subqueries (Tom)
 Prompt username/password on standard error (Bruce)
 Large objects inv_read/inv_write fixes (Tom)
 Fixes for to_char(), to_date(), to_ascii(), and to_timestamp() (Karel, Daniel Baldoni)
 Prevent query expressions from leaking memory (Tom)
 Allow UPDATE of arrays elements (Tom)
 Wake up lock waiters during cancel (Hiroshi)
 Fix rare cursor crash when using hash join (Tom)
 Fix for DROP TABLE/INDEX in rolled-back transaction (Hiroshi)
 Fix psql crash from \l+ if MULTIBYTE enabled (Peter E)
 Fix truncation of rule names during CREATE VIEW (Ross Reedstrom)
 Fix PL/perl (Alex Kapranoff)
 Disallow LOCK on views (Mark Hollomon)
 Disallow INSERT/UPDATE/DELETE on views (Mark Hollomon)
 Disallow DROP RULE, CREATE INDEX, TRUNCATE on views (Mark Hollomon)
 Allow PL/pgSQL accept non-ASCII identifiers (Tatsuo)
 Allow views to properly handle GROUP BY, aggregates, DISTINCT (Tom)
 Fix rare failure with TRUNCATE command (Tom)
 Allow UNION/INTERSECT/EXCEPT to be used with ALL, subqueries, views, DISTINCT, ORDER BY, SELECT...INTO (Tom)
 Fix parser failures during aborted transactions (Tom)
 Allow temporary relations to properly clean up indexes (Bruce)
 Fix VACUUM problem with moving rows in same page (Tom)
 Modify pg_dump to better handle user-defined items in templatel (Philip)
 Allow LIMIT in VIEW (Tom)
 Require cursor FETCH to honor LIMIT (Tom)
 Allow PRIMARY/FOREIGN Key definitions on inherited columns (Stephan)
 Allow ORDER BY, LIMIT in subqueries (Tom)
 Allow UNION in CREATE RULE (Tom)
 Make ALTER/DROP TABLE rollback-able (Vadim, Tom)
 Store initdb collation in pg_control so collation cannot be changed (Tom)
 Fix INSERT...SELECT with rules (Tom)
 Fix FOR UPDATE inside views and subselects (Tom)
 Fix OVERLAPS operators conform to SQL92 spec regarding NULLs (Tom)
 Fix lpad() and rpad() to handle length less than input string (Tom)
 Fix use of NOTIFY in some rules (Tom)
 Overhaul btree code (Tom)
 Fix NOT NULL use in Pl/pgSQL variables (Tom)
 Overhaul GIST code (Oleg)
 Fix CLUSTER to preserve constraints and column default (Tom)

Improved deadlock detection handling (Tom)
Allow multiple SERIAL columns in a table (Tom)
Prevent occasional index corruption (Vadim)

Enhancements

Add OUTER JOINS (Tom)
Function manager overhaul (Tom)
Allow ALTER TABLE RENAME on indexes (Tom)
Improve CLUSTER (Tom)
Improve ps status display for more platforms (Peter E, Marc)
Improve CREATE FUNCTION failure message (Ross)
JDBC improvements (Peter, Travis Bauer, Christopher Cain, William Webber,
Gunnar)
Grand Unified Configuration scheme/GUC. Many options can now be set in
data/postgresql.conf, postmaster/postgres flags, or SET commands (Peter E)
Improved handling of file descriptor cache (Tom)
New warning code about auto-created table alias entries (Bruce)
Overhaul initdb process (Tom, Peter E)
Overhaul of inherited tables; inherited tables now accessed by default;
new ONLY key word prevents it (Chris Bitmead, Tom)
ODBC cleanups/improvements (Nick Gorham, Stephan Szabo, Zoltan Kovacs,
Michael Fork)
Allow renaming of temp tables (Tom)
Overhaul memory manager contexts (Tom)
pg_dumpall uses CREATE USER or CREATE GROUP rather using COPY (Peter E)
Overhaul pg_dump (Philip Warner)
Allow pg_hba.conf secondary password file to specify only username (Peter E)
Allow TEMPORARY or TEMP key word when creating temporary tables (Bruce)
New memory leak checker (Karel)
New SET SESSION CHARACTERISTICS (Thomas)
Allow nested block comments (Thomas)
Add WITHOUT TIME ZONE type qualifier (Thomas)
New ALTER TABLE ADD CONSTRAINT (Stephan)
Use NUMERIC accumulators for INTEGER aggregates (Tom)
Overhaul aggregate code (Tom)
New VARIANCE and STDDEV() aggregates
Improve dependency ordering of pg_dump (Philip)
New pg_restore command (Philip)
New pg_dump tar output option (Philip)
New pg_dump of large objects (Philip)
New ESCAPE option to LIKE (Thomas)
New case-insensitive LIKE - ILIKE (Thomas)
Allow functional indexes to use binary-compatible type (Tom)
Allow SQL functions to be used in more contexts (Tom)
New pg_config utility (Peter E)
New PL/pgSQL EXECUTE command which allows dynamic SQL and utility statements
(Jan)
New PL/pgSQL GET DIAGNOSTICS statement for SPI value access (Jan)
New quote_identifiers() and quote_literal() functions (Jan)
New ALTER TABLE table OWNER TO user command (Mark Hollomon)
Allow subselects in FROM, i.e. FROM (SELECT ...) [AS] alias (Tom)
Update PyGreSQL to version 3.1 (D'Arcy)

Store tables as files named by OID (Vadim)
New SQL function setval(seq,val,bool) for use in pg_dump (Philip)
Require DROP VIEW to remove views, no DROP TABLE (Mark)
Allow DROP VIEW view1, view2 (Mark)
Allow multiple objects in DROP INDEX, DROP RULE, and DROP TYPE (Tom)
Allow automatic conversion to/from Unicode (Tatsuo, Eiji)
New /contrib/pgcrypto hashing functions (Marko Kreen)
New pg_dumpall --globals-only option (Peter E)
New CHECKPOINT command for WAL which creates new WAL log file (Vadim)
New AT TIME ZONE syntax (Thomas)
Allow location of Unix domain socket to be configurable (David J. MacKenzie)
Allow postmaster to listen on a specific IP address (David J. MacKenzie)
Allow socket path name to be specified in hostname by using leading slash
(David J. MacKenzie)
Allow CREATE DATABASE to specify template database (Tom)
New utility to convert MySQL schema dumps to SQL92 and PostgreSQL (Thomas)
New /contrib/rserv replication toolkit (Vadim)
New file format for COPY BINARY (Tom)
New /contrib/oid2name to map numeric files to table names (B Palmer)
New "idle in transaction" ps status message (Marc)
Update to pgaccess 0.98.7 (Constantin Teodorescu)
pg_ctl now defaults to -w (wait) on shutdown, new -l (log) option
Add rudimentary dependency checking to pg_dump (Philip)

Types

Fix INET/CIDR type ordering and add new functions (Tom)
Make OID behave as an unsigned type (Tom)
Allow BIGINT as synonym for INT8 (Peter E)
New int2 and int8 comparison operators (Tom)
New BIT and BIT VARYING types (Adriaan Joubert, Tom, Peter E)
CHAR() no longer faster than VARCHAR() because of TOAST (Tom)
New GIST seg/cube examples (Gene Selkov)
Improved round(numeric) handling (Tom)
Fix CIDR output formatting (Tom)
New CIDR abbrev() function (Tom)

Performance

Write-Ahead Log (WAL) to provide crash recovery with less performance
overhead (Vadim)
ANALYZE stage of VACUUM no longer exclusively locks table (Bruce)
Reduced file seeks (Denis Perchine)
Improve BTREE code for duplicate keys (Tom)
Store all large objects in a single table (Denis Perchine, Tom)
Improve memory allocation performance (Karel, Tom)

Source Code

New function manager call conventions (Tom)
SGI portability fixes (David Kaelbling)
New configure --enable-syslog option (Peter E)
New BSDI README (Bruce)

configure script moved to top level, not /src (Peter E)
Makefile/configuration/compilation overhaul (Peter E)
New configure --with-python option (Peter E)
Solaris cleanups (Peter E)
Overhaul /contrib Makefiles (Karel)
New OpenSSL configuration option (Magnus, Peter E)
AIX fixes (Andreas)
QNX fixes (Maurizio)
New heap_open(), heap_openr() API (Tom)
Remove colon and semi-colon operators (Thomas)
New pg_class.relkind value for views (Mark Hollomon)
Rename ichar() to chr() (Karel)
New documentation for btrim(), ascii(), chr(), repeat() (Karel)
Fixes for NT/Cygwin (Pete Forman)
AIX port fixes (Andreas)
New BeOS port (David Reid, Cyril Velter)
Add proofreader's changes to docs (Addison-Wesley, Bruce)
New Alpha spinlock code (Adriaan Joubert, Compaq)
UnixWare port overhaul (Peter E)
New Darwin/MacOS X port (Peter Bierman, Bruce Hartzler)
New FreeBSD Alpha port (Alfred)
Overhaul shared memory segments (Tom)
Add IBM S/390 support (Neale Ferguson)
Moved macmanuf to /contrib (Larry Rosenman)
Syslog improvements (Larry Rosenman)
New template0 database that contains no user additions (Tom)
New /contrib/cube and /contrib/seg GIST sample code (Gene Selkov)
Allow NetBSD's libedit instead of readline (Peter)
Improved assembly language source code format (Bruce)
New contrib/pg_logger
New --template option to createdb
New contrib/pg_control utility (Oliver)
New FreeBSD tools ipc_check, start-scripts/freebsd

E.29. Release 7.0.3

Release date: 2000-11-11

This has a variety of fixes from 7.0.2.

E.29.1. Migration to version 7.0.3

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 7.0.*.

E.29.2. Changes

Jdbc fixes (Peter)
 Large object fix (Tom)
 Fix lean in COPY WITH OIDS leak (Tom)
 Fix backwards-index-scan (Tom)
 Fix SELECT ... FOR UPDATE so it checks for duplicate keys (Hiroshi)
 Add --enable-syslog to configure (Marc)
 Fix abort transaction at backend exit in rare cases (Tom)
 Fix for psql \l+ when multibyte enabled (Tatsuo)
 Allow PL/pgSQL to accept non ascii identifiers (Tatsuo)
 Make vacuum always flush buffers (Tom)
 Fix to allow cancel while waiting for a lock (Hiroshi)
 Fix for memory allocation problem in user authentication code (Tom)
 Remove bogus use of int4out() (Tom)
 Fixes for multiple subqueries in COALESCE or BETWEEN (Tom)
 Fix for failure of triggers on heap open in certain cases (Jeroen van Vianen)
 Fix for erroneous selectivity of not-equals (Tom)
 Fix for erroneous use of strcmp() (Tom)
 Fix for bug where storage manager accesses items beyond end of file (Tom)
 Fix to include kernel errno message in all smgr elog messages (Tom)
 Fix for '.' not in PATH at build time (SL Baur)
 Fix for out-of-file-descriptors error (Tom)
 Fix to make pg_dump dump 'iscachable' flag for functions (Tom)
 Fix for subselect in targetlist of Append node (Tom)
 Fix for mergejoin plans (Tom)
 Fix TRUNCATE failure on relations with indexes (Tom)
 Avoid database-wide restart on write error (Hiroshi)
 Fix nodeMaterial to honor chgParam by recomputing its output (Tom)
 Fix VACUUM problem with moving chain of update row versions when source and destination of a row version lie on the same page (Tom)
 Fix user.c CommandCounterIncrement (Tom)
 Fix for AM/PM boundary problem in to_char() (Karel Zak)
 Fix TIME aggregate handling (Tom)
 Fix to_char() to avoid coredump on NULL input (Tom)
 Buffer fix (Tom)
 Fix for inserting/copying longer multibyte strings into char() data types (Tatsuo)
 Fix for crash of backend, on abort (Tom)

E.30. Release 7.0.2

Release date: 2000-06-05

This is a repackaging of 7.0.1 with added documentation.

E.30.1. Migration to version 7.0.2

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 7.*.

E.30.2. Changes

Added documentation to tarball.

E.31. Release 7.0.1

Release date: 2000-06-01

This is a cleanup release for 7.0.

E.31.1. Migration to version 7.0.1

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 7.0.

E.31.2. Changes

Fix many CLUSTER failures (Tom)
Allow ALTER TABLE RENAME works on indexes (Tom)
Fix plpgsql to handle datetime->timestamp and timespan->interval (Bruce)
New configure --with-setproctitle switch to use setproctitle() (Marc, Bruce)
Fix the off by one errors in ResultSet from 6.5.3, and more.
jdbc ResultSet fixes (Joseph Shraibman)
optimizer tunings (Tom)
Fix create user for pgaccess
Fix for UNLISTEN failure
IRIX fixes (David Kaelbling)
QNX fixes (Andreas Kardos)
Reduce COPY IN lock level (Tom)
Change libpqeasy to use PQconnectdb() style parameters (Bruce)
Fix pg_dump to handle OID indexes (Tom)
Fix small memory leak (Tom)
Solaris fix for createdb/dropdb (Tatsuo)
Fix for non-blocking connections (Alfred Perlstein)
Fix improper recovery after RENAME TABLE failures (Tom)
Copy pg_ident.conf.sample into /lib directory in install (Bruce)

Add SJIS UDC (NEC selection IBM kanji) support (Eiji Tokuya)
Fix too long syslog message (Tatsuo)
Fix problem with quoted indexes that are too long (Tom)
JDBC ResultSet.getTimestamp() fix (Gregory Krasnow & Floyd Marinescu)
ecpg changes (Michael)

E.32. Release 7.0

Release date: 2000-05-08

This release contains improvements in many areas, demonstrating the continued growth of PostgreSQL. There are more improvements and fixes in 7.0 than in any previous release. The developers have confidence that this is the best release yet; we do our best to put out only solid releases, and this one is no exception.

Major changes in this release:

Foreign Keys

Foreign keys are now implemented, with the exception of `PARTIAL MATCH` foreign keys. Many users have been asking for this feature, and we are pleased to offer it.

Optimizer Overhaul

Continuing on work started a year ago, the optimizer has been improved, allowing better query plan selection and faster performance with less memory usage.

Updated psql

psql, our interactive terminal monitor, has been updated with a variety of new features. See the psql manual page for details.

Join Syntax

SQL92 join syntax is now supported, though only as `INNER JOIN` for this release. `JOIN`, `NATURAL JOIN`, `JOIN/USING`, and `JOIN/ON` are available, as are column correlation names.

E.32.1. Migration to version 7.0

A dump/restore using `pg_dump` is required for those wishing to migrate data from any previous release of PostgreSQL. For those upgrading from 6.5.*, you may instead use `pg_upgrade` to upgrade to this release; however, a full dump/reload installation is always the most robust method for upgrades.

Interface and compatibility issues to consider for the new release include:

- The date/time types `datetime` and `timespan` have been superseded by the SQL92-defined types `timestamp` and `interval`. Although there has been some effort to ease the transition by allowing PostgreSQL to recognize the deprecated type names and translate them to the new type names, this mechanism may not be completely transparent to your existing application.
- The optimizer has been substantially improved in the area of query cost estimation. In some cases, this will result in decreased query times as the optimizer makes a better choice for the preferred plan. However, in a small number of cases, usually involving pathological distributions of data, your query times may go up. If you are dealing with large amounts of data, you may want to check your queries to verify performance.
- The JDBC and ODBC interfaces have been upgraded and extended.
- The string function `CHAR_LENGTH` is now a native function. Previous versions translated this into a call to `LENGTH`, which could result in ambiguity with other types implementing `LENGTH` such as the geometric types.

E.32.2. Changes

Bug Fixes

Prevent function calls exceeding maximum number of arguments (Tom)
 Improve CASE construct (Tom)
 Fix SELECT coalesce(f1,0) FROM int4_tbl GROUP BY f1 (Tom)
 Fix SELECT sentence.words[0] FROM sentence GROUP BY sentence.words[0] (Tom)
 Fix GROUP BY scan bug (Tom)
 Improvements in SQL grammar processing (Tom)
 Fix for views involved in INSERT ... SELECT ... (Tom)
 Fix for SELECT a/2, a/2 FROM test_missing_target GROUP BY a/2 (Tom)
 Fix for subselects in INSERT ... SELECT (Tom)
 Prevent INSERT ... SELECT ... ORDER BY (Tom)
 Fixes for relations greater than 2GB, including vacuum
 Improve propagating system table changes to other backends (Tom)
 Improve propagating user table changes to other backends (Tom)
 Fix handling of temp tables in complex situations (Bruce, Tom)
 Allow table locking at table open, improving concurrent reliability (Tom)
 Properly quote sequence names in pg_dump (Ross J. Reedstrom)
 Prevent DROP DATABASE while others accessing
 Prevent any rows from being returned by GROUP BY if no rows processed (Tom)
 Fix SELECT COUNT(1) FROM table WHERE ...' if no rows matching WHERE (Tom)
 Fix pg_upgrade so it works for MVCC (Tom)
 Fix for SELECT ... WHERE x IN (SELECT ... HAVING SUM(x) > 1) (Tom)
 Fix for "f1 datetime DEFAULT 'now'" (Tom)
 Fix problems with CURRENT_DATE used in DEFAULT (Tom)
 Allow comment-only lines, and ;;; lines too. (Tom)
 Improve recovery after failed disk writes, disk full (Hiroshi)
 Fix cases where table is mentioned in FROM but not joined (Tom)
 Allow HAVING clause without aggregate functions (Tom)
 Fix for "--" comment and no trailing newline, as seen in perl interface
 Improve pg_dump failure error reports (Bruce)

Allow sorts and hashes to exceed 2GB file sizes (Tom)
 Fix for pg_dump dumping of inherited rules (Tom)
 Fix for NULL handling comparisons (Tom)
 Fix inconsistent state caused by failed CREATE/DROP commands (Hiroshi)
 Fix for dbname with dash
 Prevent DROP INDEX from interfering with other backends (Tom)
 Fix file descriptor leak in verify_password()
 Fix for "Unable to identify an operator = \$" problem
 Fix ODBC so no segfault if CommLog and Debug enabled (Dirk Niggemann)
 Fix for recursive exit call (Massimo)
 Fix for extra-long timezones (Jeroen van Vianen)
 Make pg_dump preserve primary key information (Peter E)
 Prevent databases with single quotes (Peter E)
 Prevent DROP DATABASE inside transaction (Peter E)
 ecpg memory leak fixes (Stephen Birch)
 Fix for SELECT null::text, SELECT int4fac(null) and SELECT 2 + (null) (Tom)
 Y2K timestamp fix (Massimo)
 Fix for VACUUM 'HEAP_MOVED_IN was not expected' errors (Tom)
 Fix for views with tables/columns containing spaces (Tom)
 Prevent privileges on indexes (Peter E)
 Fix for spinlock stuck problem when error is generated (Hiroshi)
 Fix ipcclean on Linux
 Fix handling of NULL constraint conditions (Tom)
 Fix memory leak in odbc driver (Nick Gorham)
 Fix for privilege check on UNION tables (Tom)
 Fix to allow SELECT 'a' LIKE 'a' (Tom)
 Fix for SELECT 1 + NULL (Tom)
 Fixes to CHAR
 Fix log() on numeric type (Tom)
 Deprecate ':' and ';' operators
 Allow vacuum of temporary tables
 Disallow inherited columns with the same name as new columns
 Recover or force failure when disk space is exhausted (Hiroshi)
 Fix INSERT INTO ... SELECT with AS columns matching result columns
 Fix INSERT ... SELECT ... GROUP BY groups by target columns not source columns (Tom)
 Fix CREATE TABLE test (a char(5) DEFAULT text ", b int4) with INSERT (Tom)
 Fix UNION with LIMIT
 Fix CREATE TABLE x AS SELECT 1 UNION SELECT 2
 Fix CREATE TABLE test(col char(2) DEFAULT user)
 Fix mismatched types in CREATE TABLE ... DEFAULT
 Fix SELECT * FROM pg_class where oid in (0,-1)
 Fix SELECT COUNT('asdf') FROM pg_class WHERE oid=12
 Prevent user who can create databases can modifying pg_database table (Peter E)
 Fix btree to give a useful elog when key > 1/2 (page - overhead) (Tom)
 Fix INSERT of 0.0 into DECIMAL(4,4) field (Tom)

Enhancements

New CLI interface include file sqlcli.h, based on SQL3/SQL98
 Remove all limits on query length, row length limit still exists (Tom)
 Update jdbc protocol to 2.0 (Jens Glaser <jens@jens.de>)
 Add TRUNCATE command to quickly truncate relation (Mike Mascari)
 Fix to give super user and createdb user proper update catalog rights (Peter E)

Allow ecpg bool variables to have NULL values (Christof)
 Issue ecpg error if NULL value for variable with no NULL indicator (Christof)
 Allow ^C to cancel COPY command (Massimo)
 Add SET FSYNC and SHOW PG_OPTIONS commands (Massimo)
 Function name overloading for dynamically-loaded C functions (Frankpitt)
 Add CmdTuples() to libpq++ (Vince)
 New CREATE CONSTRAINT TRIGGER and SET CONSTRAINTS commands (Jan)
 Allow CREATE FUNCTION/WITH clause to be used for all language types
 configure --enable-debug adds -g (Peter E)
 configure --disable-debug removes -g (Peter E)
 Allow more complex default expressions (Tom)
 First real FOREIGN KEY constraint trigger functionality (Jan)
 Add FOREIGN KEY ... MATCH FULL ... ON DELETE CASCADE (Jan)
 Add FOREIGN KEY ... MATCH <unspecified> referential actions (Don Baccus)
 Allow WHERE restriction on ctid (physical heap location) (Hiroshi)
 Move pginterface from contrib to interface directory, rename to pgeasy (Bruce)
 Change pgeasy connectdb() parameter ordering (Bruce)
 Require SELECT DISTINCT target list to have all ORDER BY columns (Tom)
 Add Oracle's COMMENT ON command (Mike Mascari <mascari@yahoo.com>)
 libpq's PQsetNoticeProcessor function now returns previous hook (Peter E)
 Prevent PQsetNoticeProcessor from being set to NULL (Peter E)
 Make USING in COPY optional (Bruce)
 Allow subselects in the target list (Tom)
 Allow subselects on the left side of comparison operators (Tom)
 New parallel regression test (Jan)
 Change backend-side COPY to write files with permissions 644 not 666 (Tom)
 Force permissions on PGDATA directory to be secure, even if it exists (Tom)
 Added psql LASTOID variable to return last inserted oid (Peter E)
 Allow concurrent vacuum and remove pg_vlock vacuum lock file (Tom)
 Add privilege check for vacuum (Peter E)
 New libpq functions to allow asynchronous connections: PQconnectStart(),
 PQconnectPoll(), PQresetStart(), PQresetPoll(), PQsetenvStart(),
 PQsetenvPoll(), PQsetenvAbort (Ewan Mellor)
 New libpq PQsetenv() function (Ewan Mellor)
 create/alter user extension (Peter E)
 New postmaster.pid and postmaster.opts under \$PGDATA (Tatsuo)
 New scripts for create/drop user/db (Peter E)
 Major psql overhaul (Peter E)
 Add const to libpq interface (Peter E)
 New libpq function PQoidValue (Peter E)
 Show specific non-aggregate causing problem with GROUP BY (Tom)
 Make changes to pg_shadow recreate pg_pwd file (Peter E)
 Add aggregate(DISTINCT ...) (Tom)
 Allow flag to control COPY input/output of NULLs (Peter E)
 Make postgres user have a password by default (Peter E)
 Add CREATE/ALTER/DROP GROUP (Peter E)
 All administration scripts now support --long options (Peter E, Karel)
 Vacuumdb script now supports --all option (Peter E)
 ecpg new portable FETCH syntax
 Add ecpg EXEC SQL IFDEF, EXEC SQL IFNDEF, EXEC SQL ELSE, EXEC SQL ELIF
 and EXEC SQL ENDIF directives
 Add pg_ctl script to control backend start-up (Tatsuo)
 Add postmaster.opts.default file to store start-up flags (Tatsuo)

Allow --with-mb=SQL_ASCII
 Increase maximum number of index keys to 16 (Bruce)
 Increase maximum number of function arguments to 16 (Bruce)
 Allow configuration of maximum number of index keys and arguments (Bruce)
 Allow unprivileged users to change their passwords (Peter E)
 Password authentication enabled; required for new users (Peter E)
 Disallow dropping a user who owns a database (Peter E)
 Change initdb option --with-mb to --enable-multibyte
 Add option for initdb to prompts for superuser password (Peter E)
 Allow complex type casts like col::numeric(9,2) and col::int2::float8 (Tom)
 Updated user interfaces on initdb, initlocation, pg_dump, ipcclean (Peter E)
 New pg_char_to_encoding() and pg_encoding_to_char() functions (Tatsuo)
 libpq non-blocking mode (Alfred Perlstein)
 Improve conversion of types in casts that don't specify a length
 New plperl internal programming language (Mark Hollomon)
 Allow COPY IN to read file that do not end with a newline (Tom)
 Indicate when long identifiers are truncated (Tom)
 Allow aggregates to use type equivalency (Peter E)
 Add Oracle's to_char(), to_date(), to_datetime(), to_timestamp(), to_number()
 conversion functions (Karel Zak <zakkr@zf.jcu.cz>)
 Add SELECT DISTINCT ON (expr [, expr ...]) targetlist ... (Tom)
 Check to be sure ORDER BY is compatible with the DISTINCT operation (Tom)
 Add NUMERIC and int8 types to ODBC
 Improve EXPLAIN results for Append, Group, Agg, Unique (Tom)
 Add ALTER TABLE ... ADD FOREIGN KEY (Stephan Szabo)
 Allow SELECT .. FOR UPDATE in PL/pgSQL (Hiroshi)
 Enable backward sequential scan even after reaching EOF (Hiroshi)
 Add btree indexing of boolean values, >= and <= (Don Baccus)
 Print current line number when COPY FROM fails (Massimo)
 Recognize POSIX time zone e.g. "PST+8" and "GMT-8" (Thomas)
 Add DEC as synonym for DECIMAL (Thomas)
 Add SESSION_USER as SQL92 key word, same as CURRENT_USER (Thomas)
 Implement SQL92 column aliases (aka correlation names) (Thomas)
 Implement SQL92 join syntax (Thomas)
 Make INTERVAL reserved word allowed as a column identifier (Thomas)
 Implement REINDEX command (Hiroshi)
 Accept ALL in aggregate function SUM(ALL col) (Tom)
 Prevent GROUP BY from using column aliases (Tom)
 New psql \encoding option (Tatsuo)
 Allow PQrequestCancel() to terminate when in waiting-for-lock state (Hiroshi)
 Allow negation of a negative number in all cases
 Add ecpg descriptors (Christof, Michael)
 Allow CREATE VIEW v AS SELECT f1::char(8) FROM tbl
 Allow casts with length, like foo::char(8)
 New libpq functions PQsetClientEncoding(), PQclientEncoding() (Tatsuo)
 Add support for SJIS user defined characters (Tatsuo)
 Larger views/rules supported
 Make libpq's PQconndefaults() thread-safe (Tom)
 Disable // as comment to be ANSI conforming, should use -- (Tom)
 Allow column aliases on views CREATE VIEW name (collist)
 Fixes for views with subqueries (Tom)
 Allow UPDATE table SET fld = (SELECT ...) (Tom)
 SET command options no longer require quotes

Update pgaccess to 0.98.6
 New SET SEED command
 New pg_options.sample file
 New SET FSYNC command (Massimo)
 Allow pg_descriptions when creating tables
 Allow pg_descriptions when creating types, columns, and functions
 Allow psql \copy to allow delimiters (Peter E)
 Allow psql to print nulls as distinct from "" [null] (Peter E)

Types

Many array fixes (Tom)
 Allow bare column names to be subscripted as arrays (Tom)
 Improve type casting of int and float constants (Tom)
 Cleanups for int8 inputs, range checking, and type conversion (Tom)
 Fix for SELECT timespan('21:11:26'::time) (Tom)
 netmask('x.x.x.x/0') is 255.255.255.255 instead of 0.0.0.0 (Oleg Sharoiko)
 Add btree index on NUMERIC (Jan)
 Perl fix for large objects containing NUL characters (Douglas Thomson)
 ODBC fix for for large objects (free)
 Fix indexing of cidr data type
 Fix for Ethernet MAC addresses (macaddr type) comparisons
 Fix for date/time types when overflows happened in computations (Tom)
 Allow array on int8 (Peter E)
 Fix for rounding/overflow of NUMERIC type, like NUMERIC(4,4) (Tom)
 Allow NUMERIC arrays
 Fix bugs in NUMERIC ceil() and floor() functions (Tom)
 Make char_length()/octet_length including trailing blanks (Tom)
 Made abstime/reftime use int4 instead of time_t (Peter E)
 New lztext data type for compressed text fields
 Revise code to handle coercion of int and float constants (Tom)
 Start at new code to implement a BIT and BIT VARYING type (Adriaan Joubert)
 NUMERIC now accepts scientific notation (Tom)
 NUMERIC to int4 rounds (Tom)
 Convert float4/8 to NUMERIC properly (Tom)
 Allow type conversion with NUMERIC (Thomas)
 Make ISO date style (2000-02-16 09:33) the default (Thomas)
 Add NATIONAL CHAR [VARYING] (Thomas)
 Allow NUMERIC round and trunc to accept negative scales (Tom)
 New TIME WITH TIME ZONE type (Thomas)
 Add MAX()/MIN() on time type (Thomas)
 Add abs(), mod(), fac() for int8 (Thomas)
 Rename functions to round(), sqrt(), cbrt(), pow() for float8 (Thomas)
 Add transcendental math functions (e.g. sin(), acos()) for float8 (Thomas)
 Add exp() and ln() for NUMERIC type
 Rename NUMERIC power() to pow() (Thomas)
 Improved TRANSLATE() function (Edwin Ramirez, Tom)
 Allow X=-Y operators (Tom)
 Allow SELECT float8(COUNT(*))/(SELECT COUNT(*) FROM t) FROM t GROUP BY f1; (Tom)
 Allow LOCALE to use indexes in regular expression searches (Tom)
 Allow creation of functional indexes to use default types

Performance

 Prevent exponential space consumption with many AND's and OR's (Tom)
 Collect attribute selectivity values for system columns (Tom)
 Reduce memory usage of aggregates (Tom)
 Fix for LIKE optimization to use indexes with multibyte encodings (Tom)
 Fix r-tree index optimizer selectivity (Thomas)
 Improve optimizer selectivity computations and functions (Tom)
 Optimize btree searching for cases where many equal keys exist (Tom)
 Enable fast LIKE index processing only if index present (Tom)
 Re-use free space on index pages with duplicates (Tom)
 Improve hash join processing (Tom)
 Prevent descending sort if result is already sorted (Hiroshi)
 Allow commuting of index scan query qualifications (Tom)
 Prefer index scans in cases where ORDER BY/GROUP BY is required (Tom)
 Allocate large memory requests in fix-sized chunks for performance (Tom)
 Fix vacuum's performance by reducing memory allocation requests (Tom)
 Implement constant-expression simplification (Bernard Frankpitt, Tom)
 Use secondary columns to be used to determine start of index scan (Hiroshi)
 Prevent quadruple use of disk space when doing internal sorting (Tom)
 Faster sorting by calling fewer functions (Tom)
 Create system indexes to match all system caches (Bruce, Hiroshi)
 Make system caches use system indexes (Bruce)
 Make all system indexes unique (Bruce)
 Improve pg_statistics management for VACUUM speed improvement (Tom)
 Flush backend cache less frequently (Tom, Hiroshi)
 COPY now reuses previous memory allocation, improving performance (Tom)
 Improve optimization cost estimation (Tom)
 Improve optimizer estimate of range queries $x > \text{lowbound}$ AND $x < \text{highbound}$ (Tom)
 Use DNF instead of CNF where appropriate (Tom, Taral)
 Further cleanup for OR-of-AND WHERE-clauses (Tom)
 Make use of index in OR clauses ($x = 1$ AND $y = 2$) OR ($x = 2$ AND $y = 4$) (Tom)
 Smarter optimizer computations for random index page access (Tom)
 New SET variable to control optimizer costs (Tom)
 Optimizer queries based on LIMIT, OFFSET, and EXISTS qualifications (Tom)
 Reduce optimizer internal housekeeping of join paths for speedup (Tom)
 Major subquery speedup (Tom)
 Fewer fsync writes when fsync is not disabled (Tom)
 Improved LIKE optimizer estimates (Tom)
 Prevent fsync in SELECT-only queries (Vadim)
 Make index creation use psort code, because it is now faster (Tom)
 Allow creation of sort temp tables > 1 Gig

Source Tree Changes

 Fix for linux PPC compile
 New generic expression-tree-walker subroutine (Tom)
 Change form() to varargform() to prevent portability problems
 Improved range checking for large integers on Alphas
 Clean up #include in /include directory (Bruce)
 Add scripts for checking includes (Bruce)
 Remove un-needed #include's from *.c files (Bruce)
 Change #include's to use <> and " " as appropriate (Bruce)
 Enable Windows compilation of libpq

Alpha spinlock fix from Uncle George <gatgul@voicenet.com>
Overhaul of optimizer data structures (Tom)
Fix to cygipc library (Yutaka Tanida)
Allow pgsq1 to work on newer Cygwin snapshots (Dan)
New catalog version number (Tom)
Add Linux ARM
Rename heap_replace to heap_update
Update for QNX (Dr. Andreas Kardos)
New platform-specific regression handling (Tom)
Rename oid8 -> oidvector and int28 -> int2vector (Bruce)
Included all yacc and lex files into the distribution (Peter E.)
Remove lextest, no longer needed (Peter E)
Fix for libpq and psql on Windows (Magnus)
Internally change datetime and timespan into timestamp and interval (Thomas)
Fix for plpgsql on BSD/OS
Add SQL_ASCII test case to the regression test (Tatsuo)
configure --with-mb now deprecated (Tatsuo)
NT fixes
NetBSD fixes (Johnny C. Lam <lamj@stat.cmu.edu>)
Fixes for Alpha compiles
New multibyte encodings

E.33. Release 6.5.3

Release date: 1999-10-13

This is basically a cleanup release for 6.5.2. We have added a new PgAccess that was missing in 6.5.2, and installed an NT-specific fix.

E.33.1. Migration to version 6.5.3

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 6.5.*.

E.33.2. Changes

Updated version of pgaccess 0.98
NT-specific patch
Fix dumping rules on inherited tables

E.34. Release 6.5.2

Release date: 1999-09-15

This is basically a cleanup release for 6.5.1. We have fixed a variety of problems reported by 6.5.1 users.

E.34.1. Migration to version 6.5.2

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 6.5.*.

E.34.2. Changes

```

subselect+CASE fixes(Tom)
Add SHLIB_LINK setting for solaris_i386 and solaris_sparc ports(Daren Sefcik)
Fixes for CASE in WHERE join clauses(Tom)
Fix BTScan abort(Tom)
Repair the check for redundant UNIQUE and PRIMARY KEY indexes(Thomas)
Improve it so that it checks for multicolumn constraints(Thomas)
Fix for Windows making problem with MB enabled(Hiroki Kataoka)
Allow BSD yacc and bison to compile pl code(Bruce)
Fix SET NAMES working
int8 fixes(Thomas)
Fix vacuum's memory consumption(Hiroshi,Tatsuo)
Reduce the total memory consumption of vacuum(Tom)
Fix for timestamp(datetime)
Rule deparsing bugfixes(Tom)
Fix quoting problems in mkMakefile.tcldefs.sh.in and mkMakefile.tkdefs.sh.in(Tom)
This is to re-use space on index pages freed by vacuum(Vadim)
document -x for pg_dump(Bruce)
Fix for unary operators in rule deparser(Tom)
Comment out FileUnlink of excess segments during mdtruncate()(Tom)
IRIX linking fix from Yu Cao >yucao@falcon.kla-tencor.com<
Repair logic error in LIKE: should not return LIKE_ABORT
    when reach end of pattern before end of text(Tom)
Repair incorrect cleanup of heap memory allocation during transaction abort(Tom)
Updated version of pgaccess 0.98

```

E.35. Release 6.5.1

Release date: 1999-07-15

This is basically a cleanup release for 6.5. We have fixed a variety of problems reported by 6.5 users.

E.35.1. Migration to version 6.5.1

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 6.5.

E.35.2. Changes

- Add NT README file
- Portability fixes for linux_ppc, IRIX, linux_alpha, OpenBSD, alpha
- Remove QUERY_LIMIT, use SELECT...LIMIT
- Fix for EXPLAIN on inheritance(Tom)
- Patch to allow vacuum on multisegment tables(Hiroshi)
- R-Tree optimizer selectivity fix(Tom)
- ACL file descriptor leak fix(Atsushi Ogawa)
- New expression subtree code(Tom)
- Avoid disk writes for read-only transactions(Vadim)
- Fix for removal of temp tables if last transaction was aborted(Bruce)
- Fix to prevent too large row from being created(Bruce)
- plpgsql fixes
- Allow port numbers 32k - 64k(Bruce)
- Add ^ precedence(Bruce)
- Rename sort files called pg_temp to pg_sorttemp(Bruce)
- Fix for microseconds in time values(Tom)
- Tutorial source cleanup
- New linux_m68k port
- Fix for sorting of NULL's in some cases(Tom)
- Shared library dependencies fixed (Tom)
- Fixed glitches affecting GROUP BY in subselects(Tom)
- Fix some compiler warnings (Tomoaki Nishiyama)
- Add Win1250 (Czech) support (Pavel Behal)

E.36. Release 6.5

Release date: 1999-06-09

This release marks a major step in the development team's mastery of the source code we inherited from Berkeley. You will see we are now easily adding major features, thanks to the increasing size and experience of our world-wide development team.

Here is a brief summary of the more notable changes:

Multiversion concurrency control(MVCC)

This removes our old table-level locking, and replaces it with a locking system that is superior to most commercial database systems. In a traditional system, each row that is modified is locked until committed, preventing reads by other users. MVCC uses the natural multiversion nature of PostgreSQL to allow readers to continue reading consistent data during writer activity. Writers continue to use the compact `pg_log` transaction system. This is all performed without having to allocate a lock for every row like traditional database systems. So, basically, we no longer are restricted by simple table-level locking; we have something better than row-level locking.

Hot backups from `pg_dump`

`pg_dump` takes advantage of the new MVCC features to give a consistent database dump/backup while the database stays online and available for queries.

Numeric data type

We now have a true numeric data type, with user-specified precision.

Temporary tables

Temporary tables are guaranteed to have unique names within a database session, and are destroyed on session exit.

New SQL features

We now have CASE, INTERSECT, and EXCEPT statement support. We have new LIMIT/OFFSET, SET TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL, SELECT ... FOR UPDATE, and an improved LOCK TABLE command.

Speedups

We continue to speed up PostgreSQL, thanks to the variety of talents within our team. We have sped up memory allocation, optimization, table joins, and row transfer routines.

Ports

We continue to expand our port list, this time including Windows NT/ix86 and NetBSD/arm32.

Interfaces

Most interfaces have new versions, and existing functionality has been improved.

Documentation

New and updated material is present throughout the documentation. New FAQs have been contributed for SGI and AIX platforms. The *Tutorial* has introductory information on SQL from Stefan Simkovics. For the *User's Guide*, there are reference pages covering the postmaster and more utility programs, and a new appendix contains details on date/time behavior. The *Administrator's Guide* has a new chapter on troubleshooting from Tom Lane. And the *Programmer's Guide* has a description of query processing, also from Stefan, and details on obtaining the PostgreSQL source tree via anonymous CVS and CVSup.

E.36.1. Migration to version 6.5

A dump/restore using `pg_dump` is required for those wishing to migrate data from any previous release of PostgreSQL. `pg_upgrade` can *not* be used to upgrade to this release because the on-disk structure of the tables has changed compared to previous releases.

The new Multiversion Concurrency Control (MVCC) features can give somewhat different behaviors in multiuser environments. *Read and understand the following section to ensure that your existing applications will give you the behavior you need.*

E.36.1.1. Multiversion Concurrency Control

Because readers in 6.5 don't lock data, regardless of transaction isolation level, data read by one transaction can be overwritten by another. In other words, if a row is returned by `SELECT` it doesn't mean that this row really exists at the time it is returned (i.e. sometime after the statement or transaction began) nor that the row is protected from being deleted or updated by concurrent transactions before the current transaction does a commit or rollback.

To ensure the actual existence of a row and protect it against concurrent updates one must use `SELECT FOR UPDATE` or an appropriate `LOCK TABLE` statement. This should be taken into account when porting applications from previous releases of PostgreSQL and other environments.

Keep the above in mind if you are using `contrib/refint.*` triggers for referential integrity. Additional techniques are required now. One way is to use `LOCK parent_table IN SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE MODE` command if a transaction is going to update/delete a primary key and use `LOCK parent_table IN SHARE MODE` command if a transaction is going to update/insert a foreign key.

Note: Note that if you run a transaction in `SERIALIZABLE` mode then you must execute the `LOCK` commands above before execution of any DML statement (`SELECT/INSERT/DELETE/UPDATE/FETCH/COPY_TO`) in the transaction.

These inconveniences will disappear in the future when the ability to read dirty (uncommitted) data (regardless of isolation level) and true referential integrity will be implemented.

E.36.2. Changes

Bug Fixes

Fix text<->float8 and text<->float4 conversion functions(Thomas)
 Fix for creating tables with mixed-case constraints(Billy)
 Change `exp()/pow()` behavior to generate error on underflow/overflow(Jan)
 Fix bug in `pg_dump -z`
 Memory overrun cleanups(Tatsuo)
 Fix for `lo_import` crash(Tatsuo)
 Adjust handling of data type names to suppress double quotes(Thomas)
 Use type coercion for matching columns and `DEFAULT`(Thomas)
 Fix deadlock so it only checks once after one second of sleep(Bruce)

Fixes for aggregates and PL/pgsql(Hiroshi)
Fix for subquery crash(Vadim)
Fix for libpq function PQfnumber and case-insensitive names(Bahman Rafatjoo)
Fix for large object write-in-middle, no extra block, memory consumption(Tatsuo)
Fix for pg_dump -d or -D and quote special characters in INSERT
Repair serious problems with dynahash(Tom)
Fix INET/CIDR portability problems
Fix problem with selectivity error in ALTER TABLE ADD COLUMN(Bruce)
Fix executor so mergejoin of different column types works(Tom)
Fix for Alpha OR selectivity bug
Fix OR index selectivity problem(Bruce)
Fix so \d shows proper length for char()/varchar()(Ryan)
Fix tutorial code(Clark)
Improve destroyuser checking(Oliver)
Fix for Kerberos(Rodney McDuff)
Fix for dropping database while dirty buffers(Bruce)
Fix so sequence nextval() can be case-sensitive(Bruce)
Fix != operator
Drop buffers before destroying database files(Bruce)
Fix case where executor evaluates functions twice(Tatsuo)
Allow sequence nextval actions to be case-sensitive(Bruce)
Fix optimizer indexing not working for negative numbers(Bruce)
Fix for memory leak in executor with fjIsNull
Fix for aggregate memory leaks(Erik Riedel)
Allow user name containing a dash to grant privileges
Cleanup of NULL in inet types
Clean up system table bugs(Tom)
Fix problems of PAGER and \? command(Masaaki Sakaida)
Reduce default multisegment file size limit to 1GB(Peter)
Fix for dumping of CREATE OPERATOR(Tom)
Fix for backward scanning of cursors(Hiroshi Inoue)
Fix for COPY FROM STDIN when using \i(Tom)
Fix for subselect is compared inside an expression(Jan)
Fix handling of error reporting while returning rows(Tom)
Fix problems with reference to array types(Tom,Jan)
Prevent UPDATE SET oid(Jan)
Fix pg_dump so -t option can handle case-sensitive tablenamees
Fixes for GROUP BY in special cases(Tom, Jan)
Fix for memory leak in failed queries(Tom)
DEFAULT now supports mixed-case identifiers(Tom)
Fix for multisegment uses of DROP/RENAME table, indexes(Ole Gjerde)
Disable use of pg_dump with both -o and -d options(Bruce)
Allow pg_dump to properly dump group privileges(Bruce)
Fix GROUP BY in INSERT INTO table SELECT * FROM table2(Jan)
Fix for computations in views(Jan)
Fix for aggregates on array indexes(Tom)
Fix for DEFAULT handles single quotes in value requiring too many quotes
Fix security problem with non-super users importing/exporting large objects(Tom)
Rollback of transaction that creates table cleaned up properly(Tom)
Fix to allow long table and column names to generate proper serial names(Tom)

Enhancements

Add "vacuumdb" utility
 Speed up libpq by allocating memory better(Tom)
 EXPLAIN all indexes used(Tom)
 Implement CASE, COALESCE, NULLIF expression(Thomas)
 New pg_dump table output format(Constantin)
 Add string min()/max() functions(Thomas)
 Extend new type coercion techniques to aggregates(Thomas)
 New moddatetime contrib(Terry)
 Update to pgaccess 0.96(Constantin)
 Add routines for single-byte "char" type(Thomas)
 Improved substr() function(Thomas)
 Improved multibyte handling(Tatsuo)
 Multiversion concurrency control/MVCC(Vadim)
 New Serialized mode(Vadim)
 Fix for tables over 2gigs(Peter)
 New SET TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL(Vadim)
 New LOCK TABLE IN ... MODE(Vadim)
 Update ODBC driver(Byron)
 New NUMERIC data type(Jan)
 New SELECT FOR UPDATE(Vadim)
 Handle "NaN" and "Infinity" for input values(Jan)
 Improved date/year handling(Thomas)
 Improved handling of backend connections(Magnus)
 New options ELOG_TIMESTAMPS and USE_SYSLOG options for log files(Massimo)
 New TCL_ARRAYS option(Massimo)
 New INTERSECT and EXCEPT(Stefan)
 New pg_index.indisprimary for primary key tracking(D'Arcy)
 New pg_dump option to allow dropping of tables before creation(Brook)
 Speedup of row output routines(Tom)
 New READ COMMITTED isolation level(Vadim)
 New TEMP tables/indexes(Bruce)
 Prevent sorting if result is already sorted(Jan)
 New memory allocation optimization(Jan)
 Allow psql to do \p\g(Bruce)
 Allow multiple rule actions(Jan)
 Added LIMIT/OFFSET functionality(Jan)
 Improve optimizer when joining a large number of tables(Bruce)
 New intro to SQL from S. Simkovics' Master's Thesis (Stefan, Thomas)
 New intro to backend processing from S. Simkovics' Master's Thesis (Stefan)
 Improved int8 support(Ryan Bradetich, Thomas, Tom)
 New routines to convert between int8 and text/varchar types(Thomas)
 New bushy plans, where meta-tables are joined(Bruce)
 Enable right-hand queries by default(Bruce)
 Allow reliable maximum number of backends to be set at configure time
 (--with-maxbackends and postmaster switch (-N backends))(Tom)
 GEQO default now 10 tables because of optimizer speedups(Tom)
 Allow NULL=Var for MS-SQL portability(Michael, Bruce)
 Modify contrib check_primary_key() so either "automatic" or "dependent"(Anand)
 Allow psql \d on a view show query(Ryan)
 Speedup for LIKE(Bruce)
 Ecpq fixes/features, see src/interfaces/ecpg/ChangeLog file(Michael)
 JDBC fixes/features, see src/interfaces/jdbc/CHANGELOG(Peter)
 Make % operator have precedence like /(Bruce)

Add new postgres -O option to allow system table structure changes(Bruce)
Update contrib/pginterface/findoidjoins script(Tom)
Major speedup in vacuum of deleted rows with indexes(Vadim)
Allow non-SQL functions to run different versions based on arguments(Tom)
Add -E option that shows actual queries sent by \dt and friends(Masaaki Sakaida)
Add version number in start-up banners for psql(Masaaki Sakaida)
New contrib/vacuumlo removes large objects not referenced(Peter)
New initialization for table sizes so non-vacuumed tables perform better(Tom)
Improve error messages when a connection is rejected(Tom)
Support for arrays of char() and varchar() fields(Massimo)
Overhaul of hash code to increase reliability and performance(Tom)
Update to PyGreSQL 2.4(D'Arcy)
Changed debug options so -d4 and -d5 produce different node displays(Jan)
New pg_options: pretty_plan, pretty_parse, pretty_rewritten(Jan)
Better optimization statistics for system table access(Tom)
Better handling of non-default block sizes(Massimo)
Improve GEQO optimizer memory consumption(Tom)
UNION now supports ORDER BY of columns not in target list(Jan)
Major libpq++ improvements(Vince Vielhaber)
pg_dump now uses -z(ACL's) as default(Bruce)
backend cache, memory speedups(Tom)
have pg_dump do everything in one snapshot transaction(Vadim)
fix for large object memory leakage, fix for pg_dumping(Tom)
INET type now respects netmask for comparisons
Make VACUUM ANALYZE only use a readlock(Vadim)
Allow VIEWS on UNIONS(Jan)
pg_dump now can generate consistent snapshots on active databases(Vadim)

Source Tree Changes

Improve port matching(Tom)
Portability fixes for SunOS
Add Windows NT backend port and enable dynamic loading(Magnus and Daniel Horak)
New port to Cobalt Qube(Mips) running Linux(Tatsuo)
Port to NetBSD/m68k(Mr. Mutsuki Nakajima)
Port to NetBSD/sun3(Mr. Mutsuki Nakajima)
Port to NetBSD/macppc(Toshimi Aoki)
Fix for tcl/tk configuration(Vince)
Removed CURRENT key word for rule queries(Jan)
NT dynamic loading now works(Daniel Horak)
Add ARM32 support(Andrew McMurry)
Better support for HP-UX 11 and UnixWare
Improve file handling to be more uniform, prevent file descriptor leak(Tom)
New install commands for plpgsql(Jan)

E.37. Release 6.4.2

Release date: 1998-12-20

The 6.4.1 release was improperly packaged. This also has one additional bug fix.

E.37.1. Migration to version 6.4.2

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 6.4.*.

E.37.2. Changes

Fix for datetime constant problem on some platforms(Thomas)

E.38. Release 6.4.1

Release date: 1998-12-18

This is basically a cleanup release for 6.4. We have fixed a variety of problems reported by 6.4 users.

E.38.1. Migration to version 6.4.1

A dump/restore is *not* required for those running 6.4.

E.38.2. Changes

Add `pg_dump -N` flag to force double quotes around identifiers. This is the default(Thomas)

Fix for NOT in where clause causing crash(Bruce)

EXPLAIN VERBOSE coredump fix(Vadim)

Fix shared-library problems on Linux

Fix test for table existence to allow mixed-case and whitespace in the table name(Thomas)

Fix a couple of `pg_dump` bugs

Configure matches `template/.similar` entries better(Tom)

Change builtin function names from `SPI_*` to `spi_*`

OR WHERE clause fix(Vadim)

Fixes for mixed-case table names(Billy)

`contrib/linux/postgres.init.csh/sh` fix(Thomas)

`libpq` memory overrun fix

SunOS fixes(Tom)
 Change exp() behavior to generate error on underflow(Thomas)
 pg_dump fixes for memory leak, inheritance constraints, layout change
 update pgaccess to 0.93
 Fix prototype for 64-bit platforms
 Multibyte fixes(Tatsuo)
 New ecpg man page
 Fix memory overruns(Tatsuo)
 Fix for lo_import() crash(Bruce)
 Better search for install program(Tom)
 Timezone fixes(Tom)
 HP-UX fixes(Tom)
 Use implicit type coercion for matching DEFAULT values(Thomas)
 Add routines to help with single-byte (internal) character type(Thomas)
 Compilation of libpq for Windows fixes(Magnus)
 Upgrade to PyGreSQL 2.2(D'Arcy)

E.39. Release 6.4

Release date: 1998-10-30

There are *many* new features and improvements in this release. Thanks to our developers and maintainers, nearly every aspect of the system has received some attention since the previous release. Here is a brief, incomplete summary:

- Views and rules are now functional thanks to extensive new code in the rewrite rules system from Jan Wieck. He also wrote a chapter on it for the *Programmer's Guide*.
- Jan also contributed a second procedural language, PL/pgSQL, to go with the original PL/pgTCL procedural language he contributed last release.
- We have optional multiple-byte character set support from Tatsuo Ishii to complement our existing locale support.
- Client/server communications has been cleaned up, with better support for asynchronous messages and interrupts thanks to Tom Lane.
- The parser will now perform automatic type coercion to match arguments to available operators and functions, and to match columns and expressions with target columns. This uses a generic mechanism which supports the type extensibility features of PostgreSQL. There is a new chapter in the *User's Guide* which covers this topic.
- Three new data types have been added. Two types, `inet` and `cidr`, support various forms of IP network, subnet, and machine addressing. There is now an 8-byte integer type available on some platforms. See the chapter on data types in the *User's Guide* for details. A fourth type, `serial`, is now supported by the parser as an amalgam of the `int4` type, a sequence, and a unique index.

- Several more SQL92-compatible syntax features have been added, including INSERT DEFAULT VALUES
- The automatic configuration and installation system has received some attention, and should be more robust for more platforms than it has ever been.

E.39.1. Migration to version 6.4

A dump/restore using `pg_dump` or `pg_dumpall` is required for those wishing to migrate data from any previous release of PostgreSQL.

E.39.2. Changes

Bug Fixes

Fix for a tiny memory leak in PQsetdb/PQfinish(Bryan)
 Remove char2-16 data types, use char/varchar(Darren)
 Pqfn not handles a NOTICE message(Anders)
 Reduced busywaiting overhead for spinlocks with many backends (dg)
 Stuck spinlock detection (dg)
 Fix up "ISO-style" timespan decoding and encoding(Thomas)
 Fix problem with table drop after rollback of transaction(Vadim)
 Change error message and remove non-functional update message(Vadim)
 Fix for COPY array checking
 Fix for SELECT 1 UNION SELECT NULL
 Fix for buffer leaks in large object calls(Pascal)
 Change owner from oid to int4 type(Bruce)
 Fix a bug in the oracle compatibility functions btrim() ltrim() and rtrim()
 Fix for shared invalidation cache overflow(Massimo)
 Prevent file descriptor leaks in failed COPY's(Bruce)
 Fix memory leak in libpgtcl's pg_select(Constantin)
 Fix problems with username/passwords over 8 characters(Tom)
 Fix problems with handling of asynchronous NOTIFY in backend(Tom)
 Fix of many bad system table entries(Tom)

Enhancements

Upgrade ecpg and ecpglib, see src/interfaces/ecpc/ChangeLog(Michael)
 Show the index used in an EXPLAIN(Zeugswetter)
 EXPLAIN invokes rule system and shows plan(s) for rewritten queries(Jan)
 Multibyte awareness of many data types and functions, via configure(Tatsuo)
 New configure --with-mb option(Tatsuo)
 New initdb --pgencoding option(Tatsuo)
 New createdb -E multibyte option(Tatsuo)
 Select version(); now returns PostgreSQL version(Jeroen)
 libpq now allows asynchronous clients(Tom)
 Allow cancel from client of backend query(Tom)
 psql now cancels query with Control-C(Tom)
 libpq users need not issue dummy queries to get NOTIFY messages(Tom)

NOTIFY now sends sender's PID, so you can tell whether it was your own(Tom)
PGresult struct now includes associated error message, if any(Tom)
Define "tz_hour" and "tz_minute" arguments to date_part()(Thomas)
Add routines to convert between varchar and bpchar(Thomas)
Add routines to allow sizing of varchar and bpchar into target columns(Thomas)
Add bit flags to support timezonehour and minute in data retrieval(Thomas)
Allow more variations on valid floating point numbers (e.g. ".1", "1e6")(Thomas)
Fixes for unary minus parsing with leading spaces(Thomas)
Implement TIMEZONE_HOUR, TIMEZONE_MINUTE per SQL92 specs(Thomas)
Check for and properly ignore FOREIGN KEY column constraints(Thomas)
Define USER as synonym for CURRENT_USER per SQL92 specs(Thomas)
Enable HAVING clause but no fixes elsewhere yet.
Make "char" type a synonym for "char(1)" (actually implemented as bpchar)(Thomas)
Save string type if specified for DEFAULT clause handling(Thomas)
Coerce operations involving different data types(Thomas)
Allow some index use for columns of different types(Thomas)
Add capabilities for automatic type conversion(Thomas)
Cleanups for large objects, so file is truncated on open(Peter)
Readline cleanups(Tom)
Allow psql \f \ to make spaces as delimiter(Bruce)
Pass pg_attribute.atttypmod to the frontend for column field lengths(Tom,Bruce)
Msql compatibility library in /contrib(Aldrin)
Remove the requirement that ORDER/GROUP BY clause identifiers be included in the target list(David)
Convert columns to match columns in UNION clauses(Thomas)
Remove fork()/exec() and only do fork()(Bruce)
Jdbc cleanups(Peter)
Show backend status on ps command line(only works on some platforms)(Bruce)
Pg_hba.conf now has a sameuser option in the database field
Make lo_unlink take oid param, not int4
New DISABLE_COMPLEX_MACRO for compilers that can't handle our macros(Bruce)
Libpgtcl now handles NOTIFY as a Tcl event, need not send dummy queries(Tom)
libpgtcl cleanups(Tom)
Add -error option to libpgtcl's pg_result command(Tom)
New locale patch, see docs/README/locale(Oleg)
Fix for pg_dump so CONSTRAINT and CHECK syntax is correct(ccb)
New contrib/lo code for large object orphan removal(Peter)
New psql command "SET CLIENT_ENCODING TO 'encoding'" for multibytes feature, see /doc/README.mb(Tatsuo)
contrib/noupdate code to revoke update permission on a column
libpq can now be compiled on Windows(Magnus)
Add PQsetdbLogin() in libpq
New 8-byte integer type, checked by configure for OS support(Thomas)
Better support for quoted table/column names(Thomas)
Surround table and column names with double-quotes in pg_dump(Thomas)
PQreset() now works with passwords(Tom)
Handle case of GROUP BY target list column number out of range(David)
Allow UNION in subselects
Add auto-size to screen to \d? commands(Bruce)
Use UNION to show all \d? results in one query(Bruce)
Add \d? field search feature(Bruce)
Pg_dump issues fewer \connect requests(Tom)
Make pg_dump -z flag work better, document it in manual page(Tom)

Add HAVING clause with full support for subselects and unions(Stephan)
Full text indexing routines in contrib/fulltextindex(Maarten)
Transaction ids now stored in shared memory(Vadim)
New PGCLIENTENCODING when issuing COPY command(Tatsuo)
Support for SQL92 syntax "SET NAMES"(Tatsuo)
Support for LATIN2-5(Tatsuo)
Add UNICODE regression test case(Tatsuo)
Lock manager cleanup, new locking modes for LLL(Vadim)
Allow index use with OR clauses(Bruce)
Allows "SELECT NULL ORDER BY 1;"
Explain VERBOSE prints the plan, and now pretty-prints the plan to
the postmaster log file(Bruce)
Add indexes display to \d command(Bruce)
Allow GROUP BY on functions(David)
New pg_class.relkind for large objects(Bruce)
New way to send libpq NOTICE messages to a different location(Tom)
New \w write command to psql(Bruce)
New /contrib/findoidjoins scans oid columns to find join relationships(Bruce)
Allow binary-compatible indexes to be considered when checking for valid
Indexes for restriction clauses containing a constant(Thomas)
New ISBN/ISSN code in /contrib/isbn_issn
Allow NOT LIKE, IN, NOT IN, BETWEEN, and NOT BETWEEN constraint(Thomas)
New rewrite system fixes many problems with rules and views(Jan)
 * Rules on relations work
 * Event qualifications on insert/update/delete work
 * New OLD variable to reference CURRENT, CURRENT will be remove in future
 * Update rules can reference NEW and OLD in rule qualifications/actions
 * Insert/update/delete rules on views work
 * Multiple rule actions are now supported, surrounded by parentheses
 * Regular users can create views/rules on tables they have RULE permits
 * Rules and views inherit the privileges of the creator
 * No rules at the column level
 * No UPDATE NEW/OLD rules
 * New pg_tables, pg_indexes, pg_rules and pg_views system views
 * Only a single action on SELECT rules
 * Total rewrite overhaul, perhaps for 6.5
 * handle subselects
 * handle aggregates on views
 * handle insert into select from view works
System indexes are now multikey(Bruce)
Oidint2, oidint4, and oidname types are removed(Bruce)
Use system cache for more system table lookups(Bruce)
New backend programming language PL/pgSQL in backend/pl(Jan)
New SERIAL data type, auto-creates sequence/index(Thomas)
Enable assert checking without a recompile(Massimo)
User lock enhancements(Massimo)
New setval() command to set sequence value(Massimo)
Auto-remove unix socket file on start-up if no postmaster running(Massimo)
Conditional trace package(Massimo)
New UNLISTEN command(Massimo)
psql and libpq now compile under Windows using win32.mak(Magnus)
Lo_read no longer stores trailing NULL(Bruce)
Identifiers are now truncated to 31 characters internally(Bruce)

Createuser options now available on the command line
Code for 64-bit integer supported added, configure tested, int8 type(Thomas)
Prevent file descriptor leak from failed COPY(Bruce)
New pg_upgrade command(Bruce)
Updated /contrib directories(Massimo)
New CREATE TABLE DEFAULT VALUES statement available(Thomas)
New INSERT INTO TABLE DEFAULT VALUES statement available(Thomas)
New DECLARE and FETCH feature(Thomas)
libpq's internal structures now not exported(Tom)
Allow up to 8 key indexes(Bruce)
Remove ARCHIVE key word, that is no longer used(Thomas)
pg_dump -n flag to suppress quotes around identifiers
disable system columns for views(Jan)
new INET and CIDR types for network addresses(TomH, Paul)
no more double quotes in psql output
pg_dump now dumps views(Terry)
new SET QUERY_LIMIT(Tatsuo,Jan)

Source Tree Changes

/contrib cleanup(Jun)
Inline some small functions called for every row(Bruce)
Alpha/linux fixes
HP-UX cleanups(Tom)
Multibyte regression tests(Soonmyung.)
Remove --disabled options from configure
Define PGDOC to use POSTGRES DIR by default
Make regression optional
Remove extra braces code to pgindent(Bruce)
Add bsd shared library support(Bruce)
New --without-CXX support configure option(Brook)
New FAQ_CVS
Update backend flowchart in tools/backend(Bruce)
Change attypmod from int16 to int32(Bruce, Tom)
Getusage() fix for platforms that do not have it(Tom)
Add PQconnectdb, PGUSER, PGPASSWORD to libpq man page
NS32K platform fixes(Phil Nelson, John Buller)
SCO 7/UnixWare 2.x fixes(Billy,others)
Sparc/Solaris 2.5 fixes(Ryan)
Pgbuiltin.3 is obsolete, move to doc files(Thomas)
Even more documentation(Thomas)
Nextstep support(Jacek)
Aix support(David)
pginterface manual page(Bruce)
shared libraries all have version numbers
merged all OS-specific shared library defines into one file
smarter TCL/TK configuration checking(Billy)
smarter perl configuration(Brook)
configure uses supplied install-sh if no install script found(Tom)
new Makefile.shlib for shared library configuration(Tom)

E.40. Release 6.3.2

Release date: 1998-04-07

This is a bug-fix release for 6.3.x. Refer to the release notes for version 6.3 for a more complete summary of new features.

Summary:

- Repairs automatic configuration support for some platforms, including Linux, from breakage inadvertently introduced in version 6.3.1.
- Correctly handles function calls on the left side of BETWEEN and LIKE clauses.

A dump/restore is NOT required for those running 6.3 or 6.3.1. A `make distclean`, `make`, and `make install` is all that is required. This last step should be performed while the postmaster is not running. You should re-link any custom applications that use PostgreSQL libraries.

For upgrades from pre-6.3 installations, refer to the installation and migration instructions for version 6.3.

E.40.1. Changes

```

Configure detection improvements for tcl/tk(Brook Milligan, Alvin)
Manual page improvements(Bruce)
BETWEEN and LIKE fix(Thomas)
fix for psql \connect used by pg_dump(Oliver Elphick)
New odbc driver
pgaccess, version 0.86
qsort removed, now uses libc version, cleanups(Jeroen)
fix for buffer over-runs detected(Maurice Gittens)
fix for buffer overrun in libpgtcl(Randy Kunkee)
fix for UNION with DISTINCT or ORDER BY(Bruce)
gettimeofday configure check(Doug Winterburn)
Fix "indexes not used" bug(Vadim)
docs additions(Thomas)
Fix for backend memory leak(Bruce)
libreadline cleanup(Erwan MAS)
Remove DISTDIR(Bruce)
Makefile dependency cleanup(Jeroen van Vianen)
ASSERT fixes(Bruce)

```

E.41. Release 6.3.1

Release date: 1998-03-23

Summary:

- Additional support for multibyte character sets.
- Repair byte ordering for mixed-endian clients and servers.
- Minor updates to allowed SQL syntax.
- Improvements to the configuration autodetection for installation.

A dump/restore is NOT required for those running 6.3. A `make distclean`, `make`, and `make install` is all that is required. This last step should be performed while the postmaster is not running. You should re-link any custom applications that use PostgreSQL libraries.

For upgrades from pre-6.3 installations, refer to the installation and migration instructions for version 6.3.

E.41.1. Changes

```

ecpg cleanup/fixes, now version 1.1(Michael Meskes)
pg_user cleanup(Bruce)
large object fix for pg_dump and tclsh (alvin)
LIKE fix for multiple adjacent underscores
fix for redefining builtin functions(Thomas)
ultrix4 cleanup
upgrade to pg_access 0.83
updated CLUSTER manual page
multibyte character set support, see doc/README.mb(Tatsuo)
configure --with-pgport fix
pg_ident fix
big-endian fix for backend communications(Kataoka)
SUBSTR() and substring() fix(Jan)
several jdbc fixes(Peter)
libpgtcl improvements, see libptcl/README(Randy Kunkee)
Fix for "Datasize = 0" error(Vadim)
Prevent \do from wrapping(Bruce)
Remove duplicate Russian character set entries
Sunos4 cleanup
Allow optional TABLE key word in LOCK and SELECT INTO(Thomas)
CREATE SEQUENCE options to allow a negative integer(Thomas)
Add "PASSWORD" as an allowed column identifier(Thomas)
Add checks for UNION target fields(Bruce)
Fix Alpha port(Dwayne Bailey)
Fix for text arrays containing quotes(Doug Gibson)
Solaris compile fix(Albert Chin-A-Young)
Better identify tcl and tk libs and includes(Bruce)

```

E.42. Release 6.3

Release date: 1998-03-01

There are *many* new features and improvements in this release. Here is a brief, incomplete summary:

- Many new SQL features, including full SQL92 subselect capability (everything is here but target-list subselects).
- Support for client-side environment variables to specify time zone and date style.
- Socket interface for client/server connection. This is the default now so you may need to start postmaster with the `-i` flag.
- Better password authorization mechanisms. Default table privileges have changed.
- Old-style *time travel* has been removed. Performance has been improved.

Note: Bruce Momjian wrote the following notes to introduce the new release.

There are some general 6.3 issues that I want to mention. These are only the big items that can not be described in one sentence. A review of the detailed changes list is still needed.

First, we now have subselects. Now that we have them, I would like to mention that without subselects, SQL is a very limited language. Subselects are a major feature, and you should review your code for places where subselects provide a better solution for your queries. I think you will find that there are more uses for subselects than you may think. Vadim has put us on the big SQL map with subselects, and fully functional ones too. The only thing you can't do with subselects is to use them in the target list.

Second, 6.3 uses Unix domain sockets rather than TCP/IP by default. To enable connections from other machines, you have to use the new postmaster `-i` option, and of course edit `pg_hba.conf`. Also, for this reason, the format of `pg_hba.conf` has changed.

Third, `char()` fields will now allow faster access than `varchar()` or `text`. Specifically, the `text` and `varchar()` have a penalty for access to any columns after the first column of this type. `char()` used to also have this access penalty, but it no longer does. This may suggest that you redesign some of your tables, especially if you have short character columns that you have defined as `varchar()` or `text`. This and other changes make 6.3 even faster than earlier releases.

We now have passwords definable independent of any Unix file. There are new SQL `USER` commands. See the *Administrator's Guide* for more information. There is a new table, `pg_shadow`, which is used to store user information and user passwords, and it by default only `SELECT`-able by the postgres super-user.

`pg_user` is now a view of `pg_shadow`, and is `SELECT`-able by `PUBLIC`. You should keep using `pg_user` in your application without changes.

User-created tables now no longer have `SELECT` privilege to `PUBLIC` by default. This was done because the ANSI standard requires it. You can of course `GRANT` any privileges you want after the table is created. System tables continue to be `SELECT`-able by `PUBLIC`.

We also have real deadlock detection code. No more sixty-second timeouts. And the new locking code implements a FIFO better, so there should be less resource starvation during heavy use.

Many complaints have been made about inadequate documentation in previous releases. Thomas has put much effort into many new manuals for this release. Check out the `doc/` directory.

For performance reasons, time travel is gone, but can be implemented using triggers (see `pgsql/contrib/spi/README`). Please check out the new `\d` command for types, operators, etc. Also, views have their own privileges now, not based on the underlying tables, so privileges on them have to be set separately. Check `/pgsql/interfaces` for some new ways to talk to PostgreSQL.

This is the first release that really required an explanation for existing users. In many ways, this was necessary because the new release removes many limitations, and the work-arounds people were using are no longer needed.

E.42.1. Migration to version 6.3

A dump/restore using `pg_dump` or `pg_dumpall` is required for those wishing to migrate data from any previous release of PostgreSQL.

E.42.2. Changes

Bug Fixes

Fix binary cursors broken by `MOVE` implementation(Vadim)

Fix for `tcl` library crash(Jan)

Fix for array handling, from Gerhard Hintermayer

Fix `acl` error, and remove duplicate `pqtrace`(Bruce)

Fix `psql \e` for empty file(Bruce)

Fix for `textcat` on `varchar()` fields(Bruce)

Fix for `DBT Sendproc` (Zeugswetter Andres)

Fix vacuum analyze syntax problem(Bruce)

Fix for international identifiers(Tatsuo)

Fix aggregates on inherited tables(Bruce)

Fix `substr()` for out-of-bounds data

Fix for `select 1=1 or 2=2`, `select 1=1 and 2=2`, and `select sum(2+2)`(Bruce)

Fix notty output to show status result. `-q` option still turns it off(Bruce)

Fix for `count(*)`, aggs with views and multiple tables and `sum(3)`(Bruce)

Fix `cluster`(Bruce)

Fix for `PQtrace` start/stop several times(Bruce)

Fix a variety of locking problems like newer lock waiters getting lock before older waiters, and having readlock people not share locks if a writer is waiting for a lock, and waiting writers not getting priority over waiting readers(Bruce)

Fix crashes in `psql` when executing queries from external files(James)

Fix problem with multiple order by columns, with the first one having
 NULL values(Jeroen)
 Use correct hash table support functions for float8 and int4(Thomas)
 Re-enable JOIN= option in CREATE OPERATOR statement (Thomas)
 Change precedence for boolean operators to match expected behavior(Thomas)
 Generate elog(ERROR) on over-large integer(Bruce)
 Allow multiple-argument functions in constraint clauses(Thomas)
 Check boolean input literals for 'true', 'false', 'yes', 'no', '1', '0'
 and throw elog(ERROR) if unrecognized(Thomas)
 Major large objects fix
 Fix for GROUP BY showing duplicates(Vadim)
 Fix for index scans in MergeJoin(Vadim)

Enhancements

Subselects with EXISTS, IN, ALL, ANY key words (Vadim, Bruce, Thomas)
 New User Manual(Thomas, others)
 Speedup by inlining some frequently-called functions
 Real deadlock detection, no more timeouts(Bruce)
 Add SQL92 "constants" CURRENT_DATE, CURRENT_TIME, CURRENT_TIMESTAMP,
 CURRENT_USER(Thomas)
 Modify constraint syntax to be SQL92-compliant(Thomas)
 Implement SQL92 PRIMARY KEY and UNIQUE clauses using indexes(Thomas)
 Recognize SQL92 syntax for FOREIGN KEY. Throw elog notice(Thomas)
 Allow NOT NULL UNIQUE constraint clause (each allowed separately before)(Thomas)
 Allow PostgreSQL-style casting ("::") of non-constants(Thomas)
 Add support for SQL3 TRUE and FALSE boolean constants(Thomas)
 Support SQL92 syntax for IS TRUE/IS FALSE/IS NOT TRUE/IS NOT FALSE(Thomas)
 Allow shorter strings for boolean literals (e.g. "t", "tr", "tru")(Thomas)
 Allow SQL92 delimited identifiers(Thomas)
 Implement SQL92 binary and hexadecimal string decoding (b'10' and x'1F')(Thomas)
 Support SQL92 syntax for type coercion of literal strings
 (e.g. "DATETIME 'now'")(Thomas)
 Add conversions for int2, int4, and OID types to and from text(Thomas)
 Use shared lock when building indexes(Vadim)
 Free memory allocated for an user query inside transaction block after
 this query is done, was turned off in <= 6.2.1(Vadim)
 New SQL statement CREATE PROCEDURAL LANGUAGE(Jan)
 New PostgreSQL Procedural Language (PL) backend interface(Jan)
 Rename pg_dump -H option to -h(Bruce)
 Add Java support for passwords, European dates(Peter)
 Use indexes for LIKE and ~, !~ operations(Bruce)
 Add hash functions for datetime and timespan(Thomas)
 Time Travel removed(Vadim, Bruce)
 Add paging for \d and \z, and fix \i(Bruce)
 Add Unix domain socket support to backend and to frontend library(Goran)
 Implement CREATE DATABASE/WITH LOCATION and initlocation utility(Thomas)
 Allow more SQL92 and/or PostgreSQL reserved words as column identifiers(Thomas)
 Augment support for SQL92 SET TIME ZONE...(Thomas)
 SET/SHOW/RESET TIME ZONE uses TZ backend environment variable(Thomas)
 Implement SET keyword = DEFAULT and SET TIME ZONE DEFAULT(Thomas)
 Enable SET TIME ZONE using TZ environment variable(Thomas)
 Add PGDATESTYLE environment variable to frontend and backend initialization(Thomas)

Add PGTZ, PGCOSTHEAP, PGCOSTINDEX, PGRPLANS, PGGEQO
frontend library initialization environment variables(Thomas)
Regression tests time zone automatically set with "setenv PGTZ PST8PDT"(Thomas)
Add pg_description table for info on tables, columns, operators, types, and
aggregates(Bruce)
Increase 16 char limit on system table/index names to 32 characters(Bruce)
Rename system indexes(Bruce)
Add 'GERMAN' option to SET DATESTYLE(Thomas)
Define an "ISO-style" timespan output format with "hh:mm:ss" fields(Thomas)
Allow fractional values for delta times (e.g. '2.5 days')(Thomas)
Validate numeric input more carefully for delta times(Thomas)
Implement day of year as possible input to date_part()(Thomas)
Define timespan_finite() and text_timespan() functions(Thomas)
Remove archive stuff(Bruce)
Allow for a pg_password authentication database that is separate from
the system password file(Todd)
Dump ACLs, GRANT, REVOKE privileges(Matt)
Define text, varchar, and bpchar string length functions(Thomas)
Fix Query handling for inheritance, and cost computations(Bruce)
Implement CREATE TABLE/AS SELECT (alternative to SELECT/INTO)(Thomas)
Allow NOT, IS NULL, IS NOT NULL in constraints(Thomas)
Implement UNIONs for SELECT(Bruce)
Add UNION, GROUP, DISTINCT to INSERT(Bruce)
varchar() stores only necessary bytes on disk(Bruce)
Fix for BLOBs(Peter)
Mega-Patch for JDBC...see README_6.3 for list of changes(Peter)
Remove unused "option" from PQconnectdb()
New LOCK command and lock manual page describing deadlocks(Bruce)
Add new psql \da, \dd, \df, \do, \dS, and \dT commands(Bruce)
Enhance psql \z to show sequences(Bruce)
Show NOT NULL and DEFAULT in psql \d table(Bruce)
New psql .psqlrc file start-up(Andrew)
Modify sample start-up script in contrib/linux to show syslog(Thomas)
New types for IP and MAC addresses in contrib/ip_and_mac(TomH)
Unix system time conversions with date/time types in contrib/unixdate(Thomas)
Update of contrib stuff(Massimo)
Add Unix socket support to DBD::Pg(Goran)
New python interface (PyGreSQL 2.0)(D'Arcy)
New frontend/backend protocol has a version number, network byte order(Phil)
Security features in pg_hba.conf enhanced and documented, many cleanups(Phil)
CHAR() now faster access than VARCHAR() or TEXT
ecpg embedded SQL preprocessor
Reduce system column overhead(Vadmin)
Remove pg_time table(Vadim)
Add pg_type attribute to identify types that need length (bpchar, varchar)
Add report of offending line when COPY command fails
Allow VIEW privileges to be set separately from the underlying tables.
For security, use GRANT/REVOKE on views as appropriate(Jan)
Tables now have no default GRANT SELECT TO PUBLIC. You must
explicitly grant such privileges.
Clean up tutorial examples(Darren)

Source Tree Changes

```

-----
Add new html development tools, and flow chart in /tools/backend
Fix for SCO compiles
Stratus computer port Robert Gillies
Added support for shlib for BSD44_derived & i386_solaris
Make configure more automated(Brook)
Add script to check regression test results
Break parser functions into smaller files, group together(Bruce)
Rename heap_create to heap_create_and_catalog, rename heap_creatr
    to heap_create()(Bruce)
Sparc/Linux patch for locking(TomS)
Remove PORTNAME and reorganize port-specific stuff(Marc)
Add optimizer README file(Bruce)
Remove some recursion in optimizer and clean up some code there(Bruce)
Fix for NetBSD locking(Henry)
Fix for libptcl make(Tatsuo)
AIX patch(Darren)
Change IS TRUE, IS FALSE, ... to expressions using "=" rather than
    function calls to istrue() or isfalse() to allow optimization(Thomas)
Various fixes NetBSD/Sparc related(TomH)
Alpha linux locking(Travis,Ryan)
Change elog(WARN) to elog(ERROR)(Bruce)
FAQ for FreeBSD(Marc)
Bring in the PostODBC source tree as part of our standard distribution(Marc)
A minor patch for HP/UX 10 vs 9(Stan)
New pg_attribute.atttypmod for type-specific info like varchar length(Bruce)
UnixWare patches(Billy)
New i386 'lock' for spinlock asm(Billy)
Support for multiplexed backends is removed
Start an OpenBSD port
Start an AUX port
Start a Cygnus port
Add string functions to regression suite(Thomas)
Expand a few function names formerly truncated to 16 characters(Thomas)
Remove un-needed malloc() calls and replace with palloc()(Bruce)

```

E.43. Release 6.2.1

Release date: 1997-10-17

6.2.1 is a bug-fix and usability release on 6.2.

Summary:

- Allow strings to span lines, per SQL92.
- Include example trigger function for inserting user names on table updates.

This is a minor bug-fix release on 6.2. For upgrades from pre-6.2 systems, a full dump/reload is required. Refer to the 6.2 release notes for instructions.

E.43.1. Migration from version 6.2 to version 6.2.1

This is a minor bug-fix release. A dump/reload is not required from version 6.2, but is required from any release prior to 6.2.

In upgrading from version 6.2, if you choose to dump/reload you will find that `avg(money)` is now calculated correctly. All other bug fixes take effect upon updating the executables.

Another way to avoid dump/reload is to use the following SQL command from `psql` to update the existing system table:

```
update pg_aggregate set aggfinalfn = 'cash_div_flt8'
where aggrname = 'avg' and aggrbasetype = 790;
```

This will need to be done to every existing database, including `template1`.

E.43.2. Changes

- Allow TIME and TYPE column names(Thomas)
- Allow larger range of true/false as boolean values(Thomas)
- Support output of "now" and "current"(Thomas)
- Handle DEFAULT with INSERT of NULL properly(Vadim)
- Fix for relation reference counts problem in buffer manager(Vadim)
- Allow strings to span lines, like ANSI(Thomas)
- Fix for backward cursor with ORDER BY(Vadim)
- Fix `avg(cash)` computation(Thomas)
- Fix for specifying a column twice in ORDER/GROUP BY(Vadim)
- Documented new `libpq` function to return affected rows, `PQcmdTuples`(Bruce)
- Trigger function for inserting user names for INSERT/UPDATE(Brook Milligan)

E.44. Release 6.2

Release date: 1997-10-02

A dump/restore is required for those wishing to migrate data from previous releases of PostgreSQL.

E.44.1. Migration from version 6.1 to version 6.2

This migration requires a complete dump of the 6.1 database and a restore of the database in 6.2.

Note that the `pg_dump` and `pg_dumpall` utility from 6.2 should be used to dump the 6.1 database.

E.44.2. Migration from version 1.x to version 6.2

Those migrating from earlier 1.* releases should first upgrade to 1.09 because the COPY output format was improved from the 1.02 release.

E.44.3. Changes

Bug Fixes

Fix problems with `pg_dump` for inheritance, sequences, archive tables(Bruce)
 Fix compile errors on overflow due to shifts, unsigned, and bad prototypes
 from Solaris(Diab Jerius)
 Fix bugs in geometric line arithmetic (bad intersection calculations)(Thomas)
 Check for geometric intersections at endpoints to avoid rounding ugliness(Thomas)
 Catch non-functional delete attempts(Vadim)
 Change time function names to be more consistent(Michael Reifenberg)
 Check for zero divides(Michael Reifenberg)
 Fix very old bug which made rows changed/inserted by a command
 visible to the command itself (so we had multiple update of
 updated rows, etc.)(Vadim)
 Fix for SELECT null, 'fail' FROM `pg_am` (Patrick)
 SELECT NULL as `EMPTY_FIELD` now allowed(Patrick)
 Remove un-needed signal stuff from contrib/pginterface
 Fix OR (where x != 1 or x isnull didn't return rows with x NULL) (Vadim)
 Fix `time_cmp` function (Vadim)
 Fix handling of functions with non-attribute first argument in
 WHERE clauses (Vadim)
 Fix GROUP BY when order of entries is different from order
 in target list (Vadim)
 Fix `pg_dump` for aggregates without `sfunc1` (Vadim)

Enhancements

Default genetic optimizer GEQO parameter is now 8(Bruce)
 Allow use parameters in target list having aggregates in functions(Vadim)
 Added JDBC driver as an interface(Adrian & Peter)
`pg_password` utility
 Return number of rows inserted/affected by INSERT/UPDATE/DELETE etc.(Vadim)
 Triggers implemented with CREATE TRIGGER (SQL3)(Vadim)
 SPI (Server Programming Interface) allows execution of queries inside
 C-functions (Vadim)
 NOT NULL implemented (SQL92)(Robson Paniago de Miranda)
 Include reserved words for string handling, outer joins, and unions(Thomas)
 Implement extended comments ("/* ... */") using exclusive states(Thomas)
 Add "/*" single-line comments(Bruce)

Remove some restrictions on characters in operator names(Thomas)
 DEFAULT and CONSTRAINT for tables implemented (SQL92)(Vadim & Thomas)
 Add text concatenation operator and function (SQL92)(Thomas)
 Support WITH TIME ZONE syntax (SQL92)(Thomas)
 Support INTERVAL unit TO unit syntax (SQL92)(Thomas)
 Define types DOUBLE PRECISION, INTERVAL, CHARACTER,
 and CHARACTER VARYING (SQL92)(Thomas)
 Define type FLOAT(p) and rudimentary DECIMAL(p,s), NUMERIC(p,s) (SQL92)(Thomas)
 Define EXTRACT(), POSITION(), SUBSTRING(), and TRIM() (SQL92)(Thomas)
 Define CURRENT_DATE, CURRENT_TIME, CURRENT_TIMESTAMP (SQL92)(Thomas)
 Add syntax and warnings for UNION, HAVING, INNER and OUTER JOIN (SQL92)(Thomas)
 Add more reserved words, mostly for SQL92 compliance(Thomas)
 Allow hh:mm:ss time entry for timespan/reftime types(Thomas)
 Add center() routines for lseg, path, polygon(Thomas)
 Add distance() routines for circle-polygon, polygon-polygon(Thomas)
 Check explicitly for points and polygons contained within polygons
 using an axis-crossing algorithm(Thomas)
 Add routine to convert circle-box(Thomas)
 Merge conflicting operators for different geometric data types(Thomas)
 Replace distance operator "<==>" with "<->"(Thomas)
 Replace "above" operator "!^" with ">^" and "below" operator "!" with "<^(Thomas)
 Add routines for text trimming on both ends, substring, and string position(Thomas)
 Added conversion routines circle(box) and poly(circle)(Thomas)
 Allow internal sorts to be stored in memory rather than in files(Bruce & Vadim)
 Allow functions and operators on internally-identical types to succeed(Bruce)
 Speed up backend start-up after profiling analysis(Bruce)
 Inline frequently called functions for performance(Bruce)
 Reduce open() calls(Bruce)
 psql: Add PAGER for \h and \?,\C fix
 Fix for psql pager when no tty(Bruce)
 New entab utility(Bruce)
 General trigger functions for referential integrity (Vadim)
 General trigger functions for time travel (Vadim)
 General trigger functions for AUTOINCREMENT/IDENTITY feature (Vadim)
 MOVE implementation (Vadim)

Source Tree Changes

HP-UX 10 patches (Vladimir Turin)
 Added SCO support, (Daniel Harris)
 MkLinux patches (Tatsuo Ishii)
 Change geometric box terminology from "length" to "width"(Thomas)
 Deprecate temporary unstored slope fields in geometric code(Thomas)
 Remove restart instructions from INSTALL(Bruce)
 Look in /usr/ucb first for install(Bruce)
 Fix c++ copy example code(Thomas)
 Add -o to psql manual page(Bruce)
 Prevent relname unallocated string length from being copied into database(Bruce)
 Cleanup for NAMEDATALEN use(Bruce)
 Fix pg_proc names over 15 chars in output(Bruce)
 Add strNcpy() function(Bruce)
 remove some (void) casts that are unnecessary(Bruce)
 new interfaces directory(Marc)

Replace fopen() calls with calls to fd.c functions(Bruce)
Make functions static where possible(Bruce)
enclose unused functions in #ifdef NOT_USED(Bruce)
Remove call to difftime() in timestamp support to fix SunOS(Bruce & Thomas)
Changes for Digital Unix
Portability fix for pg_dumpall(Bruce)
Rename pg_attribute.attnvals to attdispersion(Bruce)
"intro/unix" manual page now "pgintro"(Bruce)
"built-in" manual page now "pgbuiltin"(Bruce)
"drop" manual page now "drop_table"(Bruce)
Add "create_trigger", "drop_trigger" manual pages(Thomas)
Add constraints regression test(Vadim & Thomas)
Add comments syntax regression test(Thomas)
Add PGINDENT and support program(Bruce)
Massive commit to run PGINDENT on all *.c and *.h files(Bruce)
Files moved to /src/tools directory(Bruce)
SPI and Trigger programming guides (Vadim & D'Arcy)

E.45. Release 6.1.1

Release date: 1997-07-22

E.45.1. Migration from version 6.1 to version 6.1.1

This is a minor bug-fix release. A dump/reload is not required from version 6.1, but is required from any release prior to 6.1. Refer to the release notes for 6.1 for more details.

E.45.2. Changes

fix for SET with options (Thomas)
allow pg_dump/pg_dumpall to preserve ownership of all tables/objects(Bruce)
new psql \connect option allows changing usernames without changing databases
fix for initdb --debug option(Yoshihiko Ichikawa)
lextest cleanup(Bruce)
hash fixes(Vadim)
fix date/time month boundary arithmetic(Thomas)
fix timezone daylight handling for some ports(Thomas, Bruce, Tatsuo)
timestamp overhauled to use standard functions(Thomas)
other code cleanup in date/time routines(Thomas)
psql's \d now case-insensitive(Bruce)
psql's backslash commands can now have trailing semicolon(Bruce)
fix memory leak in psql when using \g(Bruce)
major fix for endian handling of communication to server(Thomas, Tatsuo)
Fix for Solaris assembler and include files(Yoshihiko Ichikawa)

```
allow underscores in usernames(Bruce)
pg_dumpall now returns proper status, portability fix(Bruce)
```

E.46. Release 6.1

Release date: 1997-06-08

The regression tests have been adapted and extensively modified for the 6.1 release of PostgreSQL.

Three new data types (`datetime`, `timespan`, and `circle`) have been added to the native set of PostgreSQL types. Points, boxes, paths, and polygons have had their output formats made consistent across the data types. The polygon output in `misc.out` has only been spot-checked for correctness relative to the original regression output.

PostgreSQL 6.1 introduces a new, alternate optimizer which uses *genetic* algorithms. These algorithms introduce a random behavior in the ordering of query results when the query contains multiple qualifiers or multiple tables (giving the optimizer a choice on order of evaluation). Several regression tests have been modified to explicitly order the results, and hence are insensitive to optimizer choices. A few regression tests are for data types which are inherently unordered (e.g. points and time intervals) and tests involving those types are explicitly bracketed with `set geqo to 'off'` and `reset geqo`.

The interpretation of array specifiers (the curly braces around atomic values) appears to have changed sometime after the original regression tests were generated. The current `./expected/*.out` files reflect this new interpretation, which may not be correct!

The float8 regression test fails on at least some platforms. This is due to differences in implementations of `pow()` and `exp()` and the signaling mechanisms used for overflow and underflow conditions.

The “random” results in the random test should cause the “random” test to be “failed”, since the regression tests are evaluated using a simple diff. However, “random” does not seem to produce random results on my test machine (Linux/gcc/i686).

E.46.1. Migration to version 6.1

This migration requires a complete dump of the 6.0 database and a restore of the database in 6.1.

Those migrating from earlier 1.* releases should first upgrade to 1.09 because the COPY output format was improved from the 1.02 release.

E.46.2. Changes

```
Bug Fixes
-----
packet length checking in library routines
```

lock manager priority patch
 check for under/over flow of float8(Bruce)
 multitable join fix(Vadim)
 SIGPIPE crash fix(Darren)
 large object fixes(Sven)
 allow btree indexes to handle NULLs(Vadim)
 timezone fixes(D'Arcy)
 select SUM(x) can return NULL on no rows(Thomas)
 internal optimizer, executor bug fixes(Vadim)
 fix problem where inner loop in < or <= has no rows(Vadim)
 prevent re-commuting join index clauses(Vadim)
 fix join clauses for multiple tables(Vadim)
 fix hash, hashjoin for arrays(Vadim)
 fix btree for abstime type(Vadim)
 large object fixes(Raymond)
 fix buffer leak in hash indexes (Vadim)
 fix rtree for use in inner scan (Vadim)
 fix gist for use in inner scan, cleanups (Vadim, Andrea)
 avoid unnecessary local buffers allocation (Vadim, Massimo)
 fix local buffers leak in transaction aborts (Vadim)
 fix file manager memory leaks, cleanups (Vadim, Massimo)
 fix storage manager memory leaks (Vadim)
 fix btree duplicates handling (Vadim)
 fix deleted rows reincarnation caused by vacuum (Vadim)
 fix SELECT varchar()/char() INTO TABLE made zero-length fields(Bruce)
 many psql, pg_dump, and libpq memory leaks fixed using Purify (Igor)

Enhancements

attribute optimization statistics(Bruce)
 much faster new btree bulk load code(Paul)
 BTREE UNIQUE added to bulk load code(Vadim)
 new lock debug code(Massimo)
 massive changes to libpq++(Leo)
 new GEQO optimizer speeds table multitable optimization(Martin)
 new WARN message for non-unique insert into unique key(Marc)
 update x=-3, no spaces, now valid(Bruce)
 remove case-sensitive identifier handling(Bruce,Thomas,Dan)
 debug backend now pretty-prints tree(Darren)
 new Oracle character functions(Edmund)
 new plaintext password functions(Dan)
 no such class or insufficient privilege changed to distinct messages(Dan)
 new ANSI timestamp function(Dan)
 new ANSI Time and Date types (Thomas)
 move large chunks of data in backend(Martin)
 multicolumn btree indexes(Vadim)
 new SET var TO value command(Martin)
 update transaction status on reads(Dan)
 new locale settings for character types(Oleg)
 new SEQUENCE serial number generator(Vadim)
 GROUP BY function now possible(Vadim)
 re-organize regression test(Thomas,Marc)
 new optimizer operation weights(Vadim)

new psql \z grant/permit option(Marc)
new MONEY data type(D'Arcy,Thomas)
tcp socket communication speed improved(Vadim)
new VACUUM option for attribute statistics, and for certain columns (Vadim)
many geometric type improvements(Thomas,Keith)
additional regression tests(Thomas)
new datestyle variable(Thomas,Vadim,Martin)
more comparison operators for sorting types(Thomas)
new conversion functions(Thomas)
new more compact btree format(Vadim)
allow pg_dumpall to preserve database ownership(Bruce)
new SET GEQO=# and R_PLANS variable(Vadim)
old (!GEQO) optimizer can use right-sided plans (Vadim)
typechecking improvement in SQL parser(Bruce)
new SET, SHOW, RESET commands(Thomas,Vadim)
new \connect database USER option
new destroydb -i option (Igor)
new \dt and \di psql commands (Darren)
SELECT "\n" now escapes newline (A. Duursma)
new geometry conversion functions from old format (Thomas)

Source tree changes

new configuration script(Marc)
readline configuration option added(Marc)
OS-specific configuration options removed(Marc)
new OS-specific template files(Marc)
no more need to edit Makefile.global(Marc)
re-arrange include files(Marc)
nextstep patches (Gregor HOFFLEIT)
removed Windows-specific code(Bruce)
removed postmaster -e option, now only postgres -e option (Bruce)
merge duplicate library code in front/backends(Martin)
now works with eBones, international Kerberos(Jun)
more shared library support
c++ include file cleanup(Bruce)
warn about buggy flex(Bruce)
DG/UX, Ultrix, IRIX, AIX portability fixes

E.47. Release 6.0

Release date: 1997-01-29

A dump/restore is required for those wishing to migrate data from previous releases of PostgreSQL.

E.47.1. Migration from version 1.09 to version 6.0

This migration requires a complete dump of the 1.09 database and a restore of the database in 6.0.

E.47.2. Migration from pre-1.09 to version 6.0

Those migrating from earlier 1.* releases should first upgrade to 1.09 because the COPY output format was improved from the 1.02 release.

E.47.3. Changes

Bug Fixes

ALTER TABLE bug - running postgres process needs to re-read table definition

Allow vacuum to be run on one table or entire database(Bruce)

Array fixes

Fix array over-runs of memory writes(Kurt)

Fix elusive btree range/non-range bug(Dan)

Fix for hash indexes on some types like time and date

Fix for pg_log size explosion

Fix permissions on lo_export()(Bruce)

Fix uninitialized reads of memory(Kurt)

Fixed ALTER TABLE ... char(3) bug(Bruce)

Fixed a few small memory leaks

Fixed EXPLAIN handling of options and changed full_path option name

Fixed output of group acl privileges

Memory leaks (hunt and destroy with tools like Purify(Kurt))

Minor improvements to rules system

NOTIFY fixes

New asserts for run-checking

Overhauled parser/analyze code to properly report errors and increase speed

Pg_dump -d now handles NULL's properly(Bruce)

Prevent SELECT NULL from crashing server (Bruce)

Properly report errors when INSERT ... SELECT columns did not match

Properly report errors when insert column names were not correct

psql \g filename now works(Bruce)

psql fixed problem with multiple statements on one line with multiple outputs

Removed duplicate system OIDs

SELECT * INTO TABLE . GROUP/ORDER BY gives unlink error if table exists(Bruce)

Several fixes for queries that crashed the backend

Starting quote in insert string errors(Bruce)

Submitting an empty query now returns empty status, not just " " query(Bruce)

Enhancements

Add EXPLAIN manual page(Bruce)

Add UNIQUE index capability(Dan)

Add hostname/user level access control rather than just hostname and user

Add synonym of != for <>(Bruce)

Allow "select oid,* from table"

Allow BY,ORDER BY to specify columns by number, or by non-alias table.column(Bruce)
Allow COPY from the frontend(Bryan)
Allow GROUP BY to use alias column name(Bruce)
Allow actual compression, not just reuse on the same page(Vadim)
Allow installation-configuration option to auto-add all local users(Bryan)
Allow libpq to distinguish between text value " and null(Bruce)
Allow non-postgres users with createdb privs to destroydb's
Allow restriction on who can create C functions(Bryan)
Allow restriction on who can do backend COPY(Bryan)
Can shrink tables, pg_time and pg_log(Vadim & Erich)
Change debug level 2 to print queries only, changed debug heading layout(Bruce)
Change default decimal constant representation from float4 to float8(Bruce)
European date format now set when postmaster is started
Execute lowercase function names if not found with exact case
Fixes for aggregate/GROUP processing, allow 'select sum(func(x),sum(x+y) from z'
Gist now included in the distribution(Marc)
Ident authentication of local users(Bryan)
Implement BETWEEN qualifier(Bruce)
Implement IN qualifier(Bruce)
libpq has PQgetisnull()(Bruce)
libpq++ improvements
New options to initdb(Bryan)
Pg_dump allow dump of OIDs(Bruce)
Pg_dump create indexes after tables are loaded for speed(Bruce)
Pg_dumpall dumps all databases, and the user table
Pginterface additions for NULL values(Bruce)
Prevent postmaster from being run as root
psql \h and \? is now readable(Bruce)
psql allow backslashed, semicolons anywhere on the line(Bruce)
psql changed command prompt for lines in query or in quotes(Bruce)
psql char(3) now displays as (bp)char in \d output(Bruce)
psql return code now more accurate(Bryan?)
psql updated help syntax(Bruce)
Re-visit and fix vacuum(Vadim)
Reduce size of regression diffs, remove timezone name difference(Bruce)
Remove compile-time parameters to enable binary distributions(Bryan)
Reverse meaning of HBA masks(Bryan)
Secure Authentication of local users(Bryan)
Speed up vacuum(Vadim)
Vacuum now had VERBOSE option(Bruce)

Source tree changes

All functions now have prototypes that are compared against the calls
Allow asserts to be disabled easily from Makefile.global(Bruce)
Change oid constants used in code to #define names
Decoupled sparc and solaris defines(Kurt)
Gcc -Wall compiles cleanly with warnings only from unfixable constructs
Major include file reorganization/reduction(Marc)
Make now stops on compile failure(Bryan)
Makefile restructuring(Bryan, Marc)
Merge bsdi_2_1 to bsdi(Bruce)
Monitor program removed

Name change from Postgres95 to PostgreSQL
New config.h file(Marc, Bryan)
PG_VERSION now set to 6.0 and used by postmaster
Portability additions, including Ultrix, DG/UX, AIX, and Solaris
Reduced the number of #define's, centralized #define's
Remove duplicate OIDS in system tables(Dan)
Remove duplicate system catalog info or report mismatches(Dan)
Removed many os-specific #define's
Restructured object file generation/location(Bryan, Marc)
Restructured port-specific file locations(Bryan, Marc)
Unused/uninitialized variables corrected

E.48. Release 1.09

Release date: 1996-11-04

Sorry, we didn't keep track of changes from 1.02 to 1.09. Some of the changes listed in 6.0 were actually included in the 1.02.1 to 1.09 releases.

E.49. Release 1.02

Release date: 1996-08-01

E.49.1. Migration from version 1.02 to version 1.02.1

Here is a new migration file for 1.02.1. It includes the 'copy' change and a script to convert old ASCII files.

Note: The following notes are for the benefit of users who want to migrate databases from Postgres95 1.01 and 1.02 to Postgres95 1.02.1.

If you are starting afresh with Postgres95 1.02.1 and do not need to migrate old databases, you do not need to read any further.

In order to upgrade older Postgres95 version 1.01 or 1.02 databases to version 1.02.1, the following steps are required:

1. Start up a new 1.02.1 postmaster

2. Add the new built-in functions and operators of 1.02.1 to 1.01 or 1.02 databases. This is done by running the new 1.02.1 server against your own 1.01 or 1.02 database and applying the queries attached at the end of the file. This can be done easily through `psql`. If your 1.01 or 1.02 database is named `testdb` and you have cut the commands from the end of this file and saved them in `addfunc.sql`:

```
% psql testdb -f addfunc.sql
```

Those upgrading 1.02 databases will get a warning when executing the last two statements in the file because they are already present in 1.02. This is not a cause for concern.

E.49.2. Dump/Reload Procedure

If you are trying to reload a `pg_dump` or `text-mode`, `copy tablename to stdout` generated with a previous version, you will need to run the attached `sed` script on the ASCII file before loading it into the database. The old format used `'` as end-of-data, while `\.` is now the end-of-data marker. Also, empty strings are now loaded in as `''` rather than `NULL`. See the copy manual page for full details.

```
sed 's/^\.$/\./g' <in_file >out_file
```

If you are loading an older binary copy or non-stdout copy, there is no end-of-data character, and hence no conversion necessary.

```
-- following lines added by agc to reflect the case-insensitive
-- regexp searching for varchar (in 1.02), and bpchar (in 1.02.1)
create operator ~* (leftarg = bpchar, rightarg = text, procedure = texticregexeq);
create operator !~* (leftarg = bpchar, rightarg = text, procedure = texticregexne);
create operator ~* (leftarg = varchar, rightarg = text, procedure = texticregexeq);
create operator !~* (leftarg = varchar, rightarg = text, procedure = texticregexne);
```

E.49.3. Changes

Source code maintenance and development

- * worldwide team of volunteers
- * the source tree now in CVS at `ftp.ki.net`

Enhancements

- * `psql` (and underlying `libpq` library) now has many more options for formatting output, including HTML
- * `pg_dump` now output the schema and/or the data, with many fixes to enhance completeness.
- * `psql` used in place of `monitor` in administration shell scripts. `monitor` to be deprecated in next release.
- * date/time functions enhanced
- * `NULL` insert/update/comparison fixed/enhanced
- * TCL/TK lib and shell fixed to work with both `tck7.4/tk4.0` and `tcl7.5/tk4.1`

Bug Fixes (almost too numerous to mention)

- * indexes
- * storage management
- * check for NULL pointer before dereferencing
- * Makefile fixes

New Ports

- * added SolarisX86 port
- * added BSD/OS 2.1 port
- * added DG/UX port

E.50. Release 1.01

Release date: 1996-02-23

E.50.1. Migration from version 1.0 to version 1.01

The following notes are for the benefit of users who want to migrate databases from Postgres95 1.0 to Postgres95 1.01.

If you are starting afresh with Postgres95 1.01 and do not need to migrate old databases, you do not need to read any further.

In order to Postgres95 version 1.01 with databases created with Postgres95 version 1.0, the following steps are required:

1. Set the definition of `NAMEDATALEN` in `src/Makefile.global` to 16 and `OIDNAMELEN` to 20.
2. Decide whether you want to use Host based authentication.
 - a. If you do, you must create a file name `pg_hba` in your top-level data directory (typically the value of your `$PGDATA`). `src/libpq/pg_hba` shows an example syntax.
 - b. If you do not want host-based authentication, you can comment out the line

```
HBA = 1
```


in `src/Makefile.global`

Note that host-based authentication is turned on by default, and if you do not take steps A or B above, the out-of-the-box 1.01 will not allow you to connect to 1.0 databases.
3. Compile and install 1.01, but **DO NOT** do the `initdb` step.
4. Before doing anything else, terminate your 1.0 postmaster, and backup your existing `$PGDATA` directory.
5. Set your `PGDATA` environment variable to your 1.0 databases, but set up path up so that 1.01 binaries are being used.

6. Modify the file `$PGDATA/PG_VERSION` from 5.0 to 5.1
7. Start up a new 1.01 postmaster
8. Add the new built-in functions and operators of 1.01 to 1.0 databases. This is done by running the new 1.01 server against your own 1.0 database and applying the queries attached and saving in the file `1.0_to_1.01.sql`. This can be done easily through `psql`. If your 1.0 database is name `testdb`:

```
% psql testdb -f 1.0_to_1.01.sql
```

and then execute the following commands (cut and paste from here):

```
-- add builtin functions that are new to 1.01
```

```
create function int4eqoid (int4, oid) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function oideqint4 (oid, int4) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function char2icregexeq (char2, text) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function char2icregexne (char2, text) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function char4icregexeq (char4, text) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function char4icregexne (char4, text) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function char8icregexeq (char8, text) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function char8icregexne (char8, text) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function char16icregexeq (char16, text) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function char16icregexne (char16, text) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function texticregexeq (text, text) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
create function texticregexne (text, text) returns bool as 'foo'
language 'internal';
```

```
-- add builtin functions that are new to 1.01
```

```
create operator = (leftarg = int4, rightarg = oid, procedure = int4eqoid);
create operator = (leftarg = oid, rightarg = int4, procedure = oideqint4);
create operator ~* (leftarg = char2, rightarg = text, procedure = char2icregexeq);
create operator !~* (leftarg = char2, rightarg = text, procedure = char2icregexne);
create operator ~* (leftarg = char4, rightarg = text, procedure = char4icregexeq);
create operator !~* (leftarg = char4, rightarg = text, procedure = char4icregexne);
create operator ~* (leftarg = char8, rightarg = text, procedure = char8icregexeq);
create operator !~* (leftarg = char8, rightarg = text, procedure = char8icregexne);
create operator ~* (leftarg = char16, rightarg = text, procedure = char16icregexeq);
create operator !~* (leftarg = char16, rightarg = text, procedure = char16icregexne);
create operator ~* (leftarg = text, rightarg = text, procedure = texticregexeq);
create operator !~* (leftarg = text, rightarg = text, procedure = texticregexne);
```

E.50.2. Changes

Incompatibilities:

- * 1.01 is backwards compatible with 1.0 database provided the user follow the steps outlined in the MIGRATION_from_1.0_to_1.01 file. If those steps are not taken, 1.01 is not compatible with 1.0 database.

Enhancements:

- * added PQdisplayTuples() to libpq and changed monitor and psql to use it
- * added NeXT port (requires SysVIPC implementation)
- * added CAST .. AS ... syntax
- * added ASC and DESC key words
- * added 'internal' as a possible language for CREATE FUNCTION
internal functions are C functions which have been statically linked into the postgres backend.
- * a new type "name" has been added for system identifiers (table names, attribute names, etc.) This replaces the old char16 type. The of name is set by the NAMEDATALEN #define in src/Makefile.global
- * a readable reference manual that describes the query language.
- * added host-based access control. A configuration file (\$PGDATA/pg_hba) is used to hold the configuration data. If host-based access control is not desired, comment out HBA=1 in src/Makefile.global.
- * changed regex handling to be uniform use of Henry Spencer's regex code regardless of platform. The regex code is included in the distribution
- * added functions and operators for case-insensitive regular expressions. The operators are ~* and !~*.
- * pg_dump uses COPY instead of SELECT loop for better performance

Bug fixes:

- * fixed an optimizer bug that was causing core dumps when functions calls were used in comparisons in the WHERE clause
- * changed all uses of getuid to geteuid so that effective uids are used
- * psql now returns non-zero status on errors when using -c
- * applied public patches 1-14

E.51. Release 1.0

Release date: 1995-09-05

E.51.1. Changes

Copyright change:

- * The copyright of Postgres 1.0 has been loosened to be freely modifiable and modifiable for any purpose. Please read the COPYRIGHT file. Thanks to Professor Michael Stonebraker for making this possible.

Incompatibilities:

- * date formats have to be MM-DD-YYYY (or DD-MM-YYYY if you're using EUROPEAN STYLE). This follows SQL-92 specs.
- * "delimiters" is now a key word

Enhancements:

- * sql LIKE syntax has been added
- * copy command now takes an optional USING DELIMITER specification. delimiters can be any single-character string.
- * IRIX 5.3 port has been added.
Thanks to Paul Walmsley and others.
- * updated pg_dump to work with new libpq
- * \d has been added psql
Thanks to Keith Parks
- * regexp performance for architectures that use POSIX regex has been improved due to caching of precompiled patterns.
Thanks to Alistair Crooks
- * a new version of libpq++
Thanks to William Wanders

Bug fixes:

- * arbitrary userids can be specified in the createuser script
- * \c to connect to other databases in psql now works.
- * bad pg_proc entry for float4inc() is fixed
- * users with usecreatedb field set can now create databases without having to be usesuper
- * remove access control entries when the entry no longer has any privileges
- * fixed non-portable datetimes implementation
- * added kerberos flags to the src/backend/Makefile
- * libpq now works with kerberos
- * typographic errors in the user manual have been corrected.
- * btrees with multiple index never worked, now we tell you they don't work when you try to use them

E.52. Postgres95 Release 0.03

Release date: 1995-07-21

E.52.1. Changes

Incompatible changes:

- * BETA-0.3 IS INCOMPATIBLE WITH DATABASES CREATED WITH PREVIOUS VERSIONS (due to system catalog changes and indexing structure changes).

- * double-quote (") is deprecated as a quoting character for string literals; you need to convert them to single quotes (').
- * name of aggregates (eg. int4sum) are renamed in accordance with the SQL standard (eg. sum).
- * CHANGE ACL syntax is replaced by GRANT/REVOKE syntax.
- * float literals (eg. 3.14) are now of type float4 (instead of float8 in previous releases); you might have to do typecasting if you depend on it being of type float8. If you neglect to do the typecasting and you assign a float literal to a field of type float8, you may get incorrect values stored!
- * LIBPQ has been totally revamped so that frontend applications can connect to multiple backends
- * the usesysid field in pg_user has been changed from int2 to int4 to allow wider range of Unix user ids.
- * the netbsd/freebsd/bsd o/s ports have been consolidated into a single BSD44_derived port. (thanks to Alistair Crooks)

SQL standard-compliance (the following details changes that makes postgres95 more compliant to the SQL-92 standard):

- * the following SQL types are now built-in: smallint, integer, float, real, char(N), varchar(N), date and time.

The following are aliases to existing postgres types:

```
smallint -> int2
integer, int -> int4
float, real -> float4
```

char(N) and varchar(N) are implemented as truncated text types. In addition, char(N) does blank-padding.

- * single-quote (') is used for quoting string literals; " (in addition to \') is supported as means of inserting a single quote in a string
- * SQL standard aggregate names (MAX, MIN, AVG, SUM, COUNT) are used (Also, aggregates can now be overloaded, i.e. you can define your own MAX aggregate to take in a user-defined type.)
- * CHANGE ACL removed. GRANT/REVOKE syntax added.
 - Privileges can be given to a group using the "GROUP" key word.

For example:

```
GRANT SELECT ON foobar TO GROUP my_group;
```

The key word 'PUBLIC' is also supported to mean all users.

Privileges can only be granted or revoked to one user or group at a time.

"WITH GRANT OPTION" is not supported. Only class owners can change access control

- The default access control is to to grant users readonly access. You must explicitly grant insert/update access to users. To change this, modify the line in

```
src/backend/utils/acl.h
```

that defines ACL_WORLD_DEFAULT

Bug fixes:

- * the bug where aggregates of empty tables were not run has been fixed. Now, aggregates run on empty tables will return the initial conditions of the

aggregates. Thus, COUNT of an empty table will now properly return 0. MAX/MIN of an empty table will return a row of value NULL.

- * allow the use of \; inside the monitor
- * the LISTEN/NOTIFY asynchronous notification mechanism now work
- * NOTIFY in rule action bodies now work
- * hash indexes work, and access methods in general should perform better. creation of large btree indexes should be much faster. (thanks to Paul Aoki)

Other changes and enhancements:

- * addition of an EXPLAIN statement used for explaining the query execution plan (eg. "EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM EMP" prints out the execution plan for the query).
- * WARN and NOTICE messages no longer have timestamps on them. To turn on timestamps of error messages, uncomment the line in src/backend/utils/elog.h:

```
/* define ELOG_TIMESTAMPS */
```
- * On an access control violation, the message "Either no such class or insufficient privilege" will be given. This is the same message that is returned when a class is not found. This dissuades non-privileged users from guessing the existence of privileged classes.
- * some additional system catalog changes have been made that are not visible to the user.

libpgtcl changes:

- * The -oid option has been added to the "pg_result" tcl command. pg_result -oid returns oid of the last row inserted. If the last command was not an INSERT, then pg_result -oid returns "".
- * the large object interface is available as pg_lo* tcl commands: pg_lo_open, pg_lo_close, pg_lo_creat, etc.

Portability enhancements and New Ports:

- * flex/lex problems have been cleared up. Now, you should be able to use flex instead of lex on any platforms. We no longer make assumptions of what lexer you use based on the platform you use.
- * The Linux-ELF port is now supported. Various configuration have been tested: The following configuration is known to work:

```
kernel 1.2.10, gcc 2.6.3, libc 4.7.2, flex 2.5.2, bison 1.24
```

with everything in ELF format,

New utilities:

- * ipcclean added to the distribution
ipcclean usually does not need to be run, but if your backend crashes and leaves shared memory segments hanging around, ipcclean will clean them up for you.

New documentation:

- * the user manual has been revised and libpq documentation added.

E.53. Postgres95 Release 0.02

Release date: 1995-05-25

E.53.1. Changes

Incompatible changes:

- * The SQL statement for creating a database is 'CREATE DATABASE' instead of 'CREATEDB'. Similarly, dropping a database is 'DROP DATABASE' instead of 'DESTROYDB'. However, the names of the executables 'createdb' and 'destroydb' remain the same.

New tools:

- * `pgperl` - a Perl (4.036) interface to Postgres95
- * `pg_dump` - a utility for dumping out a postgres database into a script file containing query commands. The script files are in a ASCII format and can be used to reconstruct the database, even on other machines and other architectures. (Also good for converting a Postgres 4.2 database to Postgres95 database.)

The following ports have been incorporated into postgres95-beta-0.02:

- * the NetBSD port by Alistair Crooks
- * the AIX port by Mike Tung
- * the Windows NT port by Jon Forrest (more stuff but not done yet)
- * the Linux ELF port by Brian Gallew

The following bugs have been fixed in postgres95-beta-0.02:

- * new lines not escaped in COPY OUT and problem with COPY OUT when first attribute is a '.'
- * cannot type return to use the default user id in createuser
- * SELECT DISTINCT on big tables crashes
- * Linux installation problems
- * monitor doesn't allow use of 'localhost' as PGHOST
- * `psql` core dumps when doing `\c` or `\l`
- * the "pgtclsh" target missing from `src/bin/pgtclsh/Makefile`
- * `libpgtcl` has a hard-wired default port number
- * SELECT DISTINCT INTO TABLE hangs
- * CREATE TYPE doesn't accept 'variable' as the internallength
- * wrong result using more than 1 aggregate in a SELECT

E.54. Postgres95 Release 0.01

Release date: 1995-05-01

Initial release.

Appendix F. The CVS Repository

Marc Fournier, Tom Lane, and Thomas Lockhart 1999-05-20

The PostgreSQL source code is stored and managed using the CVS code management system.

At least two methods, anonymous CVS and CVSup, are available to pull the CVS code tree from the PostgreSQL server to your local machine.

F.1. Getting The Source Via Anonymous CVS

If you would like to keep up with the current sources on a regular basis, you can fetch them from our CVS server and then use CVS to retrieve updates from time to time.

Anonymous CVS

1. You will need a local copy of CVS (Concurrent Version Control System), which you can get from <http://www.cvshome.org/> (the official site with the latest version) or any GNU software archive site (often somewhat outdated). We recommend version 1.10 or newer. Many systems have a recent version of cvs installed by default.
2. Do an initial login to the CVS server:

```
cvs -d :pserver:anoncvs@anoncvs.postgresql.org:/projects/cvsroot login
```

You will be prompted for a password; you can enter anything except an empty string.

You should only need to do this once, since the password will be saved in `.cvspass` in your home directory.

3. Fetch the PostgreSQL sources:

```
cvs -z3 -d :pserver:anoncvs@anoncvs.postgresql.org:/projects/cvsroot co -P pgsql
```

This installs the PostgreSQL sources into a subdirectory `pgsql` of the directory you are currently in.

Note: If you have a fast link to the Internet, you may not need `-z3`, which instructs CVS to use gzip compression for transferred data. But on a modem-speed link, it's a very substantial win.

This initial checkout is a little slower than simply downloading a `tar.gz` file; expect it to take 40 minutes or so if you have a 28.8K modem. The advantage of CVS doesn't show up until you want to update the file set later on.

4. Whenever you want to update to the latest CVS sources, `cd` into the `pgsql` subdirectory, and issue

```
$ cvs -z3 update -d -P
```

This will fetch only the changes since the last time you updated. You can update in just a couple of minutes, typically, even over a modem-speed line.

5. You can save yourself some typing by making a file `.cvsrc` in your home directory that contains

```
cvs -z3
update -d -P
```

This supplies the `-z3` option to all `cvs` commands, and the `-d` and `-P` options to `cvs update`. Then you just have to say

```
$ cvs update
```

to update your files.

Caution

Some older versions of CVS have a bug that causes all checked-out files to be stored world-writable in your directory. If you see that this has happened, you can do something like

```
$ chmod -R go-w pgsql
```

to set the permissions properly. This bug is fixed as of CVS version 1.9.28.

CVS can do a lot of other things, such as fetching prior revisions of the PostgreSQL sources rather than the latest development version. For more info consult the manual that comes with CVS, or see the online documentation at <http://www.cvshome.org/>.

F.2. CVS Tree Organization

Author: Written by Marc G. Fournier (<scrappy@hub.org>) on 1998-11-05

The command `cvs checkout` has a flag, `-r`, that lets you check out a certain revision of a module. This flag makes it easy to, for example, retrieve the sources that make up release `6_4` of the module `'tc'` at any time in the future:

```
$ cvs checkout -r REL6_4 tc
```

This is useful, for instance, if someone claims that there is a bug in that release, but you cannot find the bug in the current working copy.

Tip: You can also check out a module as it was at any given date using the `-D` option.

When you tag more than one file with the same tag you can think about the tag as “a curve drawn through a matrix of filename vs. revision number”. Say we have 5 files with the following revisions:

```

file1  file2  file3  file4  file5
1.1    1.1    1.1    1.1  /--1.1*    <--*-- TAG
1.2*-  1.2    1.2    -1.2*-
1.3   \- 1.3*-  1.3    / 1.3
1.4           \ 1.4  / 1.4
                \-1.5*- 1.5
                  1.6

```

then the tag `TAG` will reference `file1-1.2`, `file2-1.3`, etc.

Note: For creating a release branch, other than a `-b` option added to the command, it's the same thing.

So, to create the 6.4 release I did the following:

```

$ cd postgres
$ cvs tag -b REL6_4

```

which will create the tag and the branch for the `RELEASE` tree.

For those with CVS access, it's simple to create directories for different versions. First, create two subdirectories, `RELEASE` and `CURRENT`, so that you don't mix up the two. Then do:

```

cd RELEASE
cvs checkout -P -r REL6_4 postgres
cd ../CURRENT
cvs checkout -P postgres

```

which results in two directory trees, `RELEASE/postgres` and `CURRENT/postgres`. From that point on, CVS will keep track of which repository branch is in which directory tree, and will allow independent updates of either tree.

If you are *only* working on the `CURRENT` source tree, you just do everything as before we started tagging release branches.

After you've done the initial checkout on a branch

```

$ cvs checkout -r REL6_4

```

anything you do within that directory structure is restricted to that branch. If you apply a patch to that directory structure and do a

```
    cvs commit
```

while inside of it, the patch is applied to the branch and *only* the branch.

F.3. Getting The Source Via CVSup

An alternative to using anonymous CVS for retrieving the PostgreSQL source tree is CVSup. CVSup was developed by John Polstra (<jdp@polstra.com>) to distribute CVS repositories and other file trees for the FreeBSD project³.

A major advantage to using CVSup is that it can reliably replicate the *entire* CVS repository on your local system, allowing fast local access to cvs operations such as `log` and `diff`. Other advantages include fast synchronization to the PostgreSQL server due to an efficient streaming transfer protocol which only sends the changes since the last update.

F.3.1. Preparing A CVSup Client System

Two directory areas are required for CVSup to do its job: a local CVS repository (or simply a directory area if you are fetching a snapshot rather than a repository; see below) and a local CVSup bookkeeping area. These can coexist in the same directory tree.

Decide where you want to keep your local copy of the CVS repository. On one of our systems we recently set up a repository in `/home/cvs/`, but had formerly kept it under a PostgreSQL development tree in `/opt/postgres/cvs/`. If you intend to keep your repository in `/home/cvs/`, then put

```
setenv CVSROOT /home/cvs
```

in your `.cshrc` file, or a similar line in your `.bashrc` or `.profile` file, depending on your shell.

The cvs repository area must be initialized. Once `CVSROOT` is set, then this can be done with a single command:

```
$ cvs init
```

after which you should see at least a directory named `CVSROOT` when listing the `CVSROOT` directory:

```
$ ls $CVSROOT
CVSROOT/
```

3. <http://www.freebsd.org>

F.3.2. Running a CVSup Client

Verify that `cvsup` is in your path; on most systems you can do this by typing

```
which cvsup
```

Then, simply run `cvsup` using:

```
$ cvsup -L 2 postgres.cvsup
```

where `-L 2` enables some status messages so you can monitor the progress of the update, and `postgres.cvsup` is the path and name you have given to your CVSup configuration file.

Here is a CVSup configuration file modified for a specific installation, and which maintains a full local CVS repository:

```
# This file represents the standard CVSup distribution file
# for the PostgreSQL ORDBMS project
# Modified by lockhart@fourpalms.org 1997-08-28
# - Point to my local snapshot source tree
# - Pull the full CVS repository, not just the latest snapshot
#
# Defaults that apply to all the collections
*default host=cvsup.postgresql.org
*default compress
*default release=cvs
*default delete use-rel-suffix
# enable the following line to get the latest snapshot
#*default tag=.
# enable the following line to get whatever was specified above or by default
# at the date specified below
#*default date=97.08.29.00.00.00

# base directory where CVSup will store its 'bookmarks' file(s)
# will create subdirectory sup/
#*default base=/opt/postgres # /usr/local/pgsql
*default base=/home/cvs

# prefix directory where CVSup will store the actual distribution(s)
*default prefix=/home/cvs

# complete distribution, including all below
pgsql

# individual distributions vs 'the whole thing'
# pgsql-doc
# pgsql-perl5
# pgsql-src
```

If you specify `repository` instead of `pgsql` in the above setup, you will get a complete copy of the entire repository at `cvsup.postgresql.org`, including its `CVSROOT` directory. If you do that, you will probably want to exclude those files in that directory that you want to modify locally, using a refuse file. For example, for the above setup you might put this in `/home/cvs/sup/repository/refuse`:

```
CVSROOT/config*
CVSROOT/commitinfo*
CVSROOT/logininfo*
```

See the CVSup manual pages for how to use refuse files.

The following is a suggested CVSup config file from the PostgreSQL ftp site⁴ which will fetch the current snapshot only:

```
# This file represents the standard CVSup distribution file
# for the PostgreSQL ORDBMS project
#
# Defaults that apply to all the collections
*default host=cvsup.postgresql.org
*default compress
*default release=cvs
*default delete use-rel-suffix
*default tag=.

# base directory where CVSup will store its 'bookmarks' file(s)
*default base=/usr/local/pgsql

# prefix directory where CVSup will store the actual distribution(s)
*default prefix=/usr/local/pgsql

# complete distribution, including all below
pgsql

# individual distributions vs 'the whole thing'
# pgsql-doc
# pgsql-perl5
# pgsql-src
```

F.3.3. Installing CVSup

CVSup is available as source, pre-built binaries, or Linux RPMs. It is far easier to use a binary than to build from source, primarily because the very capable, but voluminous, Modula-3 compiler is required for the build.

4. <ftp://ftp.postgresql.org/pub/CVSup/README.cvsup>

CVSup Installation from Binaries

You can use pre-built binaries if you have a platform for which binaries are posted on the PostgreSQL ftp site⁵, or if you are running FreeBSD, for which CVSup is available as a port.

Note: CVSup was originally developed as a tool for distributing the FreeBSD source tree. It is available as a “port”, and for those running FreeBSD, if this is not sufficient to tell how to obtain and install it then please contribute a procedure here.

At the time of writing, binaries are available for Alpha/Tru64, ix86/xBSD, HPPA/HP-UX 10.20, MIPS/IRIX, ix86/linux-libc5, ix86/linux-glibc, Sparc/Solaris, and Sparc/SunOS.

1. Retrieve the binary tar file for cvsup (cvsupd is not required to be a client) appropriate for your platform.
 - a. If you are running FreeBSD, install the CVSup port.
 - b. If you have another platform, check for and download the appropriate binary from the PostgreSQL ftp site⁶.
2. Check the tar file to verify the contents and directory structure, if any. For the linux tar file at least, the static binary and man page is included without any directory packaging.

- a. If the binary is in the top level of the tar file, then simply unpack the tar file into your target directory:

```
$ cd /usr/local/bin
$ tar zxvf /usr/local/src/cvsup-16.0-linux-i386.tar.gz
$ mv cvsup.1 ../doc/man/man1/
```

- b. If there is a directory structure in the tar file, then unpack the tar file within /usr/local/src and move the binaries into the appropriate location as above.

3. Ensure that the new binaries are in your path.

```
$ rehash
$ which cvsup
$ set path=(path to cvsup $path)
$ which cvsup
/usr/local/bin/cvsup
```

5. <ftp://ftp.postgresql.org/pub>

6. <ftp://ftp.postgresql.org/pub>

F.3.4. Installation from Sources

Installing CVSup from sources is not entirely trivial, primarily because most systems will need to install a Modula-3 compiler first. This compiler is available as Linux RPM, FreeBSD package, or source code.

Note: A clean-source installation of Modula-3 takes roughly 200MB of disk space, which shrinks to roughly 50MB of space when the sources are removed.

Linux installation

1. Install Modula-3.

- a. Pick up the Modula-3 distribution from Polytechnique Montréal⁷, who are actively maintaining the code base originally developed by the DEC Systems Research Center⁸. The PM3 RPM distribution is roughly 30MB compressed. At the time of writing, the 1.1.10-1 release installed cleanly on RH-5.2, whereas the 1.1.11-1 release is apparently built for another release (RH-6.0?) and does not run on RH-5.2.

Tip: This particular rpm packaging has *many* RPM files, so you will likely want to place them into a separate directory.

- b. Install the Modula-3 rpms:

```
# rpm -Uvh pm3*.rpm
```

2. Unpack the cvsup distribution:

```
# cd /usr/local/src
# tar xzf cvsup-16.0.tar.gz
```

3. Build the cvsup distribution, suppressing the GUI interface feature to avoid requiring X11 libraries:

```
# make M3FLAGS="-DNOGUI"
```

and if you want to build a static binary to move to systems that may not have Modula-3 installed, try:

```
# make M3FLAGS="-DNOGUI -DSTATIC"
```

4. Install the built binary:

7. <http://m3.polymtl.ca/m3>

8. <http://www.research.digital.com/SRC/modula-3/html/home.html>

```
# make M3FLAGS="-DNOGUI -DSTATIC" install
```

Appendix G. Documentation

PostgreSQL has four primary documentation formats:

- Plain text, for pre-installation information
- HTML, for on-line browsing and reference
- PDF or Postscript, for printing
- man pages, for quick reference.

Additionally, a number of plain-text `README` files can be found throughout the PostgreSQL source tree, documenting various implementation issues.

HTML documentation and man pages are part of a standard distribution and are installed by default. PDF and Postscript format documentation is available separately for download.

G.1. DocBook

The documentation sources are written in *DocBook*, which is a markup language superficially similar to HTML. Both of these languages are applications of the *Standard Generalized Markup Language*, SGML, which is essentially a language for describing other languages. In what follows, the terms DocBook and SGML are both used, but technically they are not interchangeable.

DocBook allows an author to specify the structure and content of a technical document without worrying about presentation details. A document style defines how that content is rendered into one of several final forms. DocBook is maintained by the OASIS¹ group. The official DocBook site² has good introductory and reference documentation and a complete O'Reilly book for your online reading pleasure. The FreeBSD Documentation Project³ also uses DocBook and has some good information, including a number of style guidelines that might be worth considering.

G.2. Tool Sets

The following tools are used to process the documentation. Some may be optional, as noted.

DocBook DTD⁴

This is the definition of DocBook itself. We currently use version 4.2; you cannot use later or earlier versions. Note that there is also an XML version of DocBook — do not use that.

-
1. <http://www.oasis-open.org>
 2. <http://www.oasis-open.org/docbook>
 3. <http://www.freebsd.org/docproj/docproj.html>
 4. <http://www.oasis-open.org/docbook/sgml/>

ISO 8879 character entities⁵

These are required by DocBook but are distributed separately because they are maintained by ISO.

OpenJade⁶

This is the base package of SGML processing. It contains an SGML parser, a DSSSL processor (that is, a program to convert SGML to other formats using DSSSL stylesheets), as well as a number of related tools. Jade is now being maintained by the OpenJade group, no longer by James Clark.

DocBook DSSSL Stylesheets⁷

These contain the processing instructions for converting the DocBook sources to other formats, such as HTML.

DocBook2X tools⁸

This optional package is used to create man pages. It has a number of prerequisite packages of its own. Check the web site.

JadeTeX⁹

If you want to, you can also install JadeTeX to use TeX as a formatting backend for Jade. JadeTeX can create Postscript or PDF files (the latter with bookmarks).

However, the output from JadeTeX is inferior to what you get from the RTF backend. Particular problem areas are tables and various artifacts of vertical and horizontal spacing. Also, there is no opportunity to manually polish the results.

We have documented experience with several installation methods for the various tools that are needed to process the documentation. These will be described below. There may be some other packaged distributions for these tools. Please report package status to the documentation mailing list, and we will include that information here.

G.2.1. Linux RPM Installation

Most vendors provide a complete RPM set for DocBook processing in their distribution. Look for an “SGML” option while installing, or the following packages: `sgml-common`, `docbook`, `stylesheets`, `openjade` (or `jade`). Possibly `sgml-tools` will be needed as well. If your distributor does not provide these then you should be able to make use of the packages from some other, reasonably compatible vendor.

G.2.2. FreeBSD Installation

The FreeBSD Documentation Project is itself a heavy user of DocBook, so it comes as no surprise that there is a full set of “ports” of the documentation tools available on FreeBSD. The following ports need

-
5. <http://www.oasis-open.org/cover/ISOEnts.zip>
 6. <http://openjade.sourceforge.net>
 7. <http://docbook.sourceforge.net/projects/dsssl/index.html>
 8. <http://docbook2x.sourceforge.net>
 9. <http://jadetex.sourceforge.net>

to be installed to build the documentation on FreeBSD.

- `textproc/sp`
- `textproc/openjade`
- `textproc/iso8879`
- `textproc/dsssl-docbook-modular`

Apparently, there is no port for the DocBook V4.2 SGML DTD available right now. You will need to install it manually.

A number of things from `/usr/ports/print` (`tex`, `jadetex`) might also be of interest.

It's possible that the ports do not update the main catalog file in `/usr/local/share/sgml/catalog`. Be sure to have the following line in there:

```
CATALOG "/usr/local/share/sgml/docbook/4.2/docbook.cat"
```

If you do not want to edit the file you can also set the environment variable `SGML_CATALOG_FILES` to a colon-separated list of catalog files (such as the one above).

More information about the FreeBSD documentation tools can be found in the FreeBSD Documentation Project's instructions¹⁰.

G.2.3. Debian Packages

There is a full set of packages of the documentation tools available for Debian GNU/Linux. To install, simply use:

```
apt-get install jade
apt-get install docbook
apt-get install docbook-stylesheets
```

G.2.4. Manual Installation from Source

The manual installation process of the DocBook tools is somewhat complex, so if you have pre-built packages available, use them. We describe here only a standard setup, with reasonably standard installation paths, and no “fancy” features. For details, you should study the documentation of the respective package, and read SGML introductory material.

G.2.4.1. Installing OpenJade

1. The installation of OpenJade offers a GNU-style `./configure; make; make install` build process. Details can be found in the OpenJade source distribution. In a nutshell:

```
./configure --enable-default-catalog=/usr/local/share/sgml/catalog
make
```

10. http://www.freebsd.org/doc/en_US.ISO8859-1/books/fdp-primer/tools.html

```
make install
```

Be sure to remember where you put the “default catalog”; you will need it below. You can also leave it off, but then you will have to set the environment variable `SGML_CATALOG_FILES` to point to the file whenever you use `jade` later on. (This method is also an option if `OpenJade` is already installed and you want to install the rest of the toolchain locally.)

2. Additionally, you should install the files `dsssl.dtd`, `fot.dtd`, `style-sheet.dtd`, and `catalog` from the `dsssl` directory somewhere, perhaps into `/usr/local/share/sgml/dsssl`. It’s probably easiest to copy the entire directory:

```
cp -R dsssl /usr/local/share/sgml
```

3. Finally, create the file `/usr/local/share/sgml/catalog` and add this line to it:

```
CATALOG "dsssl/catalog"
```

(This is a relative path reference to the file installed in step 2. Be sure to adjust it if you chose your installation layout differently.)

G.2.4.2. Installing the DocBook DTD Kit

1. Obtain the DocBook V4.2¹¹ distribution.
2. Create the directory `/usr/local/share/sgml/docbook-4.2` and change to it. (The exact location is irrelevant, but this one is reasonable within the layout we are following here.)

```
$ mkdir /usr/local/share/sgml/docbook-4.2
$ cd /usr/local/share/sgml/docbook-4.2
```

3. Unpack the archive.

```
$ unzip -a ...../docbook-4.2.zip
```

(The archive will unpack its files into the current directory.)

4. Edit the file `/usr/local/share/sgml/catalog` (or whatever you told `jade` during installation) and put a line like this into it:

```
CATALOG "docbook-4.2/docbook.cat"
```

5. Download the ISO 8879 character entities¹² archive, unpack it, and put the files in the same directory you put the DocBook files in.

```
$ cd /usr/local/share/sgml/docbook-4.2
$ unzip ...../ISOEnts.zip
```

6. Run the following command in the directory with the DocBook and ISO files:

```
perl -pi -e 's/iso-(.*)\.gml/ISO\1/g' docbook.cat
```

11. <http://www.docbook.org/sgml/4.2/docbook-4.2.zip>

12. <http://www.oasis-open.org/cover/ISOEnts.zip>

(This fixes a mixup between the names used in the DocBook catalog file and the actual names of the ISO character entity files.)

G.2.4.3. Installing the DocBook DSSSL Style Sheets

To install the style sheets, unzip and untar the distribution and move it to a suitable place, for example `/usr/local/share/sgml`. (The archive will automatically create a subdirectory.)

```
$ gunzip docbook-dsssl-1.xx.tar.gz
$ tar -C /usr/local/share/sgml -xf docbook-dsssl-1.xx.tar
```

The usual catalog entry in `/usr/local/share/sgml/catalog` can also be made:

```
CATALOG "docbook-dsssl-1.xx/catalog
```

Because stylesheets change rather often, and it's sometimes beneficial to try out alternative versions, PostgreSQL doesn't use this catalog entry. See Section G.2.5 for information about how to select the stylesheets instead.

G.2.4.4. Installing JadeTeX

To install and use JadeTeX, you will need a working installation of TeX and LaTeX2e, including the supported tools and graphics packages, Babel, AMS fonts and AMS-LaTeX, the PSNFSS extension and companion kit of "the 35 fonts", the dvips program for generating PostScript, the macro packages fancyhdr, hyperref, minitoc, url and ot2enc. All of these can be found on your friendly neighborhood CTAN¹³ site. The installation of the TeX base system is far beyond the scope of this introduction. Binary packages should be available for any system that can run TeX.

Before you can use JadeTeX with the PostgreSQL documentation sources, you will need to increase the size of TeX's internal data structures. Details on this can be found in the JadeTeX installation instructions.

Once that is finished you can install JadeTeX:

```
$ gunzip jadetex-xxx.tar.gz
$ tar xf jadetex-xxx.tar
$ cd jadetex
$ make install
$ mktexlsr
```

The last two need to be done as root.

13. <http://www.ctan.org>

G.2.5. Detection by `configure`

Before you can build the documentation you need to run the `configure` script as you would when building the PostgreSQL programs themselves. Check the output near the end of the run, it should look something like this:

```
checking for onsgmls... onsgmls
checking for openjade... openjade
checking for DocBook V4.2... yes
checking for DocBook stylesheets... /usr/lib/sgml/stylesheets/nwalsh-modular
checking for sgmlspl... sgmlspl
```

If neither `onsgmls` nor `nsgmls` were found then you will not see the remaining 4 lines. `nsgmls` is part of the Jade package. If “DocBook V4.2” was not found then you did not install the DocBook DTD kit in a place where jade can find it, or you have not set up the catalog files correctly. See the installation hints above. The DocBook stylesheets are looked for in a number of relatively standard places, but if you have them some other place then you should set the environment variable `DOCBOOKSTYLE` to the location and rerun `configure` afterwards.

G.3. Building The Documentation

Once you have everything set up, change to the directory `doc/src/sgml` and run one of the commands described in the following subsections to build the documentation. (Remember to use GNU `make`.)

G.3.1. HTML

To build the HTML version of the documentation:

```
doc/src/sgml$ gmake html
```

This is also the default target.

When the HTML documentation is built, the process also generates the linking information for the index entries. Thus, if you want your documentation to have a concept index at the end, you need to build the HTML documentation once, and then build the documentation again in whatever format you like.

To allow for easier handling in the final distribution, the files comprising the HTML documentation are stored in a tar archive that is unpacked at installation time. To create the HTML documentation package, use the commands

```
cd doc/src
gmake postgres.tar.gz
```

In the distribution, these archives live in the `doc` directory and are installed by default with `gmake install`.

G.3.2. Manpages

We use the `docbook2man` utility to convert DocBook `refentry` pages to `*roff` output suitable for man pages. The man pages are also distributed as a tar archive, similar to the HTML version. To create the man page package, use the commands

```
cd doc/src
gmake man.tar.gz
```

which will result in a tar file being generated in the `doc/src` directory.

To generate quality man pages, it might be necessary to use a hacked version of the conversion utility or do some manual postprocessing. All man pages should be manually inspected before distribution.

G.3.3. Print Output via JadeTex

If you want to use JadeTex to produce a printable rendition of the documentation, you can use one of the following commands:

- To make a DVI version:

```
doc/src/sgml$ gmake postgres.dvi
```

- To generate Postscript from the DVI:

```
doc/src/sgml$ gmake postgres.ps
```

- To make a PDF:

```
doc/src/sgml$ gmake postgres.pdf
```

(Of course you can also make a PDF version from the Postscript, but if you generate PDF directly, it will have hyperlinks and other enhanced features.)

G.3.4. Print Output via RTF

You can also create a printable version of the PostgreSQL documentation by converting it to RTF and applying minor formatting corrections using an office suite. Depending on the capabilities of the particular office suite, you can then convert the documentation to Postscript or PDF. The procedure below illustrates this process using Applixware.

Note: It appears that current versions of the PostgreSQL documentation trigger some bug in or exceed the size limit of OpenJade. If the build process of the RTF version hangs for a long time and the output file still has size 0, then you may have hit that problem. (But keep in mind that a normal build takes 5 to 10 minutes, so don't abort too soon.)

Applixware RTF Cleanup

OpenJade omits specifying a default style for body text. In the past, this undiagnosed problem led to a long process of table of contents generation. However, with great help from the Applixware folks the symptom was diagnosed and a workaround is available.

1. Generate the RTF version by typing:

```
doc/src/sgml$ gmake postgres.rtf
```

2. Repair the RTF file to correctly specify all styles, in particular the default style. If the document contains `refentry` sections, one must also replace formatting hints which tie a preceding paragraph to the current paragraph, and instead tie the current paragraph to the following one. A utility, `fixrtf`, is available in `doc/src/sgml` to accomplish these repairs:

```
doc/src/sgml$ ./fixrtf --refentry postgres.rtf
```

The script adds `{\s0 Normal;}` as the zeroth style in the document. According to Applixware, the RTF standard would prohibit adding an implicit zeroth style, though Microsoft Word happens to handle this case. For repairing `refentry` sections, the script replaces `\keepn` tags with `\keep`.

3. Open a new document in Applixware Words and then import the RTF file.
4. Generate a new table of contents (ToC) using Applixware.
 - a. Select the existing ToC lines, from the beginning of the first character on the first line to the last character of the last line.
 - b. Build a new ToC using **Tools**→**Book Building**→**Create Table of Contents**. Select the first three levels of headers for inclusion in the ToC. This will replace the existing lines imported in the RTF with a native Applixware ToC.
 - c. Adjust the ToC formatting by using **Format**→**Style**, selecting each of the three ToC styles, and adjusting the indents for `First` and `Left`. Use the following values:

Style	First Indent (inches)	Left Indent (inches)
TOC-Heading 1	0.4	0.4
TOC-Heading 2	0.8	0.8
TOC-Heading 3	1.2	1.2

5. Work through the document to:
 - Adjust page breaks.
 - Adjust table column widths.
6. Replace the right-justified page numbers in the Examples and Figures portions of the ToC with correct values. This only takes a few minutes.
7. Delete the index section from the document if it is empty.

8. Regenerate and adjust the table of contents.
 - a. Select the ToC field.
 - b. Select Tools→Book Building→Create Table of Contents.
 - c. Unbind the ToC by selecting Tools→Field Editing→Unprotect.
 - d. Delete the first line in the ToC, which is an entry for the ToC itself.
9. Save the document as native Applixware Words format to allow easier last minute editing later.
10. “Print” the document to a file in Postscript format.

G.3.5. Plain Text Files

Several files are distributed as plain text, for reading during the installation process. The `INSTALL` file corresponds to Chapter 14, with some minor changes to account for the different context. To recreate the file, change to the directory `doc/src/sgml` and enter `gmake INSTALL`. This will create a file `INSTALL.html` that can be saved as text with Netscape Navigator and put into the place of the existing file. Netscape seems to offer the best quality for HTML to text conversions (over lynx and w3m).

The file `HISTORY` can be created similarly, using the command `gmake HISTORY`. For the file `src/test/regress/README` the command is `gmake regress_README`.

G.3.6. Syntax Check

Building the documentation can take very long. But there is a method to just check the correct syntax of the documentation files, which only takes a few seconds:

```
doc/src/sgml$ gmake check
```

G.4. Documentation Authoring

SGML and DocBook do not suffer from an oversupply of open-source authoring tools. The most common tool set is the Emacs/XEmacs editor with appropriate editing mode. On some systems these tools are provided in a typical full installation.

G.4.1. Emacs/PSGML

PSGML is the most common and most powerful mode for editing SGML documents. When properly configured, it will allow you to use Emacs to insert tags and check markup consistency. You could use it for HTML as well. Check the PSGML web site¹⁴ for downloads, installation instructions, and detailed documentation.

14. http://www.lysator.liu.se/projects/about_psgml.html

There is one important thing to note with PSGML: its author assumed that your main SGML DTD directory would be `/usr/local/lib/sgml`. If, as in the examples in this chapter, you use `/usr/local/share/sgml`, you have to compensate for this, either by setting `SGML_CATALOG_FILES` environment variable, or you can customize your PSGML installation (its manual tells you how).

Put the following in your `~/.emacs` environment file (adjusting the path names to be appropriate for your system):

```
; ***** for SGML mode (psgml)

(setq sgml-omittag t)
(setq sgml-shorttag t)
(setq sgml-minimize-attributes nil)
(setq sgml-always-quote-attributes t)
(setq sgml-indent-step 1)
(setq sgml-indent-data t)
(setq sgml-parent-document nil)
(setq sgml-default-dtd-file "./reference.ced")
(setq sgml-exposed-tags nil)
(setq sgml-catalog-files '("/usr/local/share/sgml/catalog"))
(setq sgml-ecat-files nil)

(autoload 'sgml-mode "psgml" "Major mode to edit SGML files." t )
```

and in the same file add an entry for SGML into the (existing) definition for `auto-mode-alist`:

```
(setq
  auto-mode-alist
  '(("\\.sgml$" . sgml-mode)
    ))
```

Currently, each SGML source file has the following block at the end of the file:

```
<!-- Keep this comment at the end of the file
Local variables:
mode: sgml
sgml-omittag:t
sgml-shorttag:t
sgml-minimize-attributes:nil
sgml-always-quote-attributes:t
sgml-indent-step:1
sgml-indent-data:t
sgml-parent-document:nil
sgml-default-dtd-file:"./reference.ced"
sgml-exposed-tags:nil
sgml-local-catalogs:("/usr/lib/sgml/catalog")
sgml-local-ecat-files:nil
End:
-->
```

This will set up a number of editing mode parameters even if you do not set up your `~/ .emacs` file, but it is a bit unfortunate, since if you followed the installation instructions above, then the catalog path will not match your location. Hence you might need to turn off local variables:

```
(setq inhibit-local-variables t)
```

The PostgreSQL distribution includes a parsed DTD definitions file `reference.ced`. You may find that when using PSGML, a comfortable way of working with these separate files of book parts is to insert a proper DOCTYPE declaration while you're editing them. If you are working on this source, for instance, it is an appendix chapter, so you would specify the document as an “appendix” instance of a DocBook document by making the first line look like this:

```
<!DOCTYPE appendix PUBLIC "-//OASIS//DTD DocBook V4.2//EN">
```

This means that anything and everything that reads SGML will get it right, and I can verify the document with `nsgmls -s docguide.sgml`. (But you need to take out that line before building the entire documentation set.)

G.4.2. Other Emacs modes

GNU Emacs ships with a different SGML mode, which is not quite as powerful as PSGML, but it's less confusing and lighter weight. Also, it offers syntax highlighting (font lock), which can be very helpful.

Norm Walsh offers a major mode specifically for DocBook¹⁵ which also has font-lock and a number of features to reduce typing.

G.5. Style Guide

G.5.1. Reference Pages

Reference pages should follow a standard layout. This allows users to find the desired information more quickly, and it also encourages writers to document all relevant aspects of a command. Consistency is not only desired among PostgreSQL reference pages, but also with reference pages provided by the operating system and other packages. Hence the following guidelines have been developed. They are for the most part consistent with similar guidelines established by various operating systems.

Reference pages that describe executable commands should contain the following sections, in this order. Sections that do not apply may be omitted. Additional top-level sections should only be used in special circumstances; often that information belongs in the “Usage” section.

Name

This section is generated automatically. It contains the command name and a half-sentence summary of its functionality.

15. <http://nwalsh.com/emacs/docbookide/index.html>

Synopsis

This section contains the syntax diagram of the command. The synopsis should normally not list each command-line option; that is done below. Instead, list the major components of the command line, such as where input and output files go.

Description

Several paragraphs explaining what the command does.

Options

A list describing each command-line option. If there are a lot of options, subsections may be used.

Exit Status

If the program uses 0 for success and non-zero for failure, then you do not need to document it. If there is a meaning behind the different non-zero exit codes, list them here.

Usage

Describe any sublanguage or run-time interface of the program. If the program is not interactive, this section can usually be omitted. Otherwise, this section is a catch-all for describing run-time features. Use subsections if appropriate.

Environment

List all environment variables that the program might use. Try to be complete; even seemingly trivial variables like `SHELL` might be of interest to the user.

Files

List any files that the program might access implicitly. That is, do not list input and output files that were specified on the command line, but list configuration files, etc.

Diagnostics

Explain any unusual output that the program might create. Refrain from listing every possible error message. This is a lot of work and has little use in practice. But if, say, the error messages have a standard format that the user can parse, this would be the place to explain it.

Notes

Anything that doesn't fit elsewhere, but in particular bugs, implementation flaws, security considerations, compatibility issues.

Examples

Examples

History

If there were some major milestones in the history of the program, they might be listed here. Usually, this section can be omitted.

See Also

Cross-references, listed in the following order: other PostgreSQL command reference pages, PostgreSQL SQL command reference pages, citation of PostgreSQL manuals, other reference pages (e.g., operating system, other packages), other documentation. Items in the same group are listed alphabetically.

Reference pages describing SQL commands should contain the following sections: Name, Synopsis, Description, Parameters, Outputs, Notes, Examples, Compatibility, History, See Also. The Parameters section is like the Options section, but there is more freedom about which clauses of the command can be listed. The Outputs section is only needed if the command returns something other than a default command-completion tag. The Compatibility section should explain to what extent this command conforms to the SQL standard(s), or to which other database system it is compatible. The See Also section of SQL commands should list SQL commands before cross-references to programs.

Appendix H. External Projects

PostgreSQL is a complex software project, and managing it is difficult. We have found that many enhancements to PostgreSQL can be more efficiently developed separately from the core project. Separate projects can have their own developer teams, email lists, bug tracking, and release schedules. While their independence makes development easier, it makes users' jobs harder. They have to hunt around looking for database enhancements to meet their needs. This section describes some of the more popular externally developed enhancements and guides you on how to find them.

Many PostgreSQL-related projects are hosted at either GBorg at <http://gborg.postgresql.org> or pgFoundry at <http://pgfoundry.org>. There are other PostgreSQL-related projects that are hosted elsewhere, but you will have to do an Internet search to find them.

H.1. Externally Developed Interfaces

PostgreSQL includes very few interfaces with the base distribution. libpq is packaged because it is the primary C interface and many other interfaces are built on top of it. ecpg is packaged because it is tied to the server-side grammar so is very dependent on the database version. All the other interfaces are independent projects and must be installed separately.

Some of the more popular interfaces are:

psqlODBC

This is the most common interface for Windows applications.

pgjdbc

A JDBC interface.

Npgsql

.Net interface for more recent Windows applications.

libpqxx

A newer C++ interface.

libpq++

An older C++ interface.

pgperl

A Perl interface with an API similar to libpq.

DBD-Pg

A Perl interface that uses the DBD-standard API.

pgtclng

A newer version of the Tcl interface.

pgtcl

The original version of the Tcl interface.

PyGreSQL

A Python interface library.

All of these can be found at GBorg (<http://gborg.postgresql.org>) or pgFoundry (<http://pgfoundry.org>).

H.2. Extensions

PostgreSQL was designed from the start to be extensible. For this reason, extensions loaded into the database can function just like features that are packaged with the database. The `contrib/` directory shipped with the source code contains a large number of extensions. The `README` file in that directory contains a summary. They include conversion tools, full-text indexing, XML tools, and additional data types and indexing methods. Other extensions are developed independently, like PostGIS. Even PostgreSQL replication solutions are developed externally. For example, Slony-I is a popular master/slave replication solution that is developed independently from the core project.

There are several administration tools available for PostgreSQL. The most popular is pgAdmin, and there are several commercially available ones.

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