
SQLAlchemy Documentation

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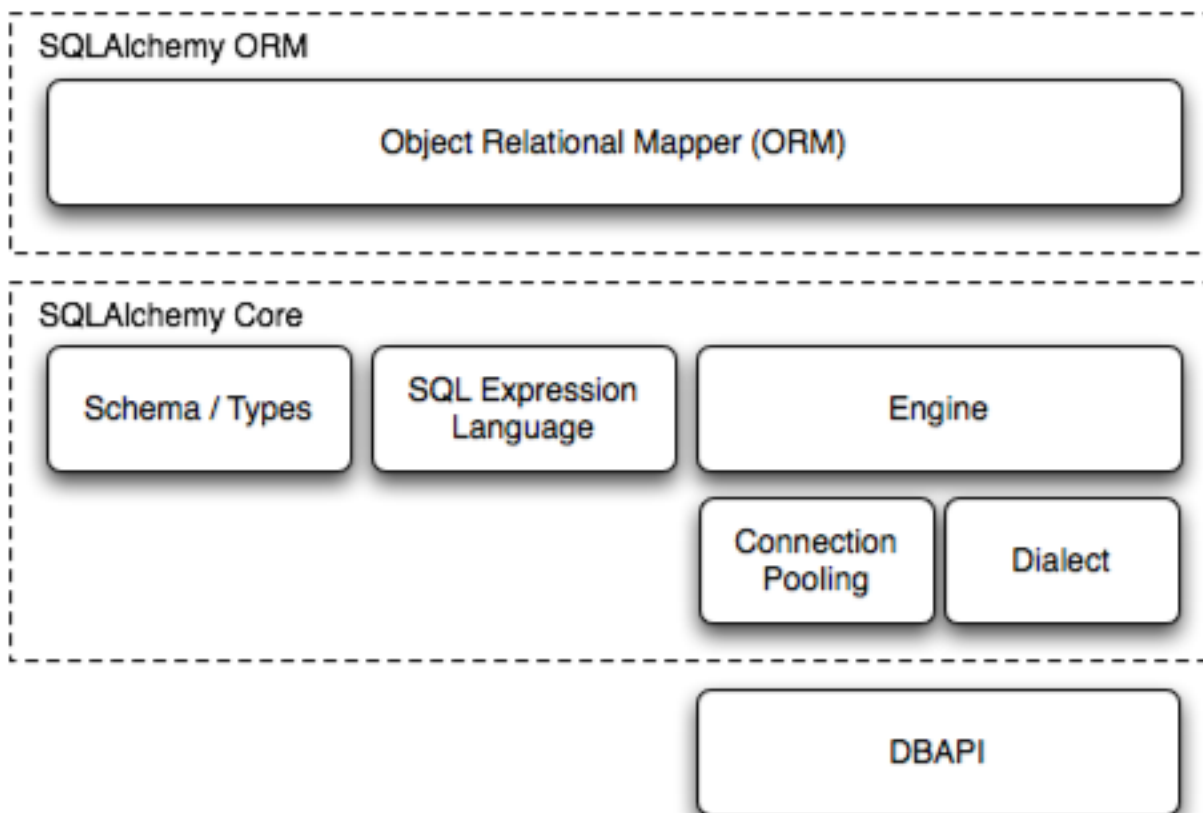
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OVERVIEW

1.1 Overview

The SQLAlchemy SQL Toolkit and Object Relational Mapper is a comprehensive set of tools for working with databases and Python. It has several distinct areas of functionality which can be used individually or combined together. Its major components are illustrated in below, with component dependencies organized into layers:



Above, the two most significant front-facing portions of SQLAlchemy are the **Object Relational Mapper** and the **SQL Expression Language**. SQL Expressions can be used independently of the ORM. When using the ORM, the SQL Expression language remains part of the public facing API as it is used within object-relational configurations and queries.

1.2 Documentation Overview

The documentation is separated into three sections: *SQLAlchemy ORM*, *SQLAlchemy Core*, and *Dialects*.

In *SQLAlchemy ORM*, the Object Relational Mapper is introduced and fully described. New users should begin with the *Object Relational Tutorial*. If you want to work with higher-level SQL which is constructed automatically for you, as well as management of Python objects, proceed to this tutorial.

In *SQLAlchemy Core*, the breadth of SQLAlchemy's SQL and database integration and description services are documented, the core of which is the SQL Expression language. The SQL Expression Language is a toolkit all its own, independent of the ORM package, which can be used to construct manipulable SQL expressions which can be programmatically constructed, modified, and executed, returning cursor-like result sets. In contrast to the ORM's domain-centric mode of usage, the expression language provides a schema-centric usage paradigm. New users should begin here with *SQL Expression Language Tutorial*. SQLAlchemy engine, connection, and pooling services are also described in *SQLAlchemy Core*.

In *Dialects*, reference documentation for all provided database and DBAPI backends is provided.

1.3 Code Examples

Working code examples, mostly regarding the ORM, are included in the SQLAlchemy distribution. A description of all the included example applications is at *Examples*.

There is also a wide variety of examples involving both core SQLAlchemy constructs as well as the ORM on the wiki. See *Theatrum Chemicum*.

1.4 Installation Guide

1.4.1 Supported Platforms

SQLAlchemy has been tested against the following platforms:

- cPython since version 2.4, through the 2.xx series
- cPython version 3, throughout all 3.xx series
- Jython 2.5 or greater
- Pypy 1.5 or greater

1.4.2 Supported Installation Methods

SQLAlchemy supports installation using standard Python “distutils” or “setuptools” methodologies. An overview of potential setups is as follows:

- **Plain Python Distutils** - SQLAlchemy can be installed with a clean Python install using the services provided via *Python Distutils*, using the `setup.py` script. The C extensions as well as Python 3 builds are supported.
- **Standard Setuptools** - When using *setuptools*, SQLAlchemy can be installed via `setup.py` or `easy_install`, and the C extensions are supported. *setuptools* is not supported on Python 3 at the time of of this writing.
- **Distribute** - With *distribute*, SQLAlchemy can be installed via `setup.py` or `easy_install`, and the C extensions as well as Python 3 builds are supported.

- **pip** - `pip` is an installer that rides on top of `setuptools` or `distribute`, replacing the usage of `easy_install`. It is often preferred for its simpler mode of usage.

1.4.3 Install via `easy_install` or `pip`

When `easy_install` or `pip` is available, the distribution can be downloaded from Pypi and installed in one step:

```
easy_install SQLAlchemy
```

Or with `pip`:

```
pip install SQLAlchemy
```

This command will download the latest version of SQLAlchemy from the [Python Cheese Shop](#) and install it to your system.

1.4.4 Installing using `setup.py`

Otherwise, you can install from the distribution using the `setup.py` script:

```
python setup.py install
```

1.4.5 Installing the C Extensions

SQLAlchemy includes C extensions which provide an extra speed boost for dealing with result sets. Currently, the extensions are only supported on the 2.xx series of cPython, not Python 3 or Pypy.

`setup.py` will automatically build the extensions if an appropriate platform is detected. If the build of the C extensions fails, due to missing compiler or other issue, the setup process will output a warning message, and re-run the build without the C extensions, upon completion reporting final status.

To run the build/install without even attempting to compile the C extensions, pass the flag `--without-cextensions` to the `setup.py` script:

```
python setup.py --without-cextensions install
```

1.4.6 Installing on Python 3

SQLAlchemy ships as Python 2 code. For Python 3 usage, the `setup.py` script will invoke the `Python 2to3` tool on the build, plugging in an extra “preprocessor” as well. The 2to3 step works with Python `distutils` (part of the standard Python install) and `Distribute` - it will **not** work with a non-`Distribute` `setuptools` installation.

1.4.7 Installing a Database API

SQLAlchemy is designed to operate with a [DB-API](#) implementation built for a particular database, and includes support for the most popular databases. The current list is at [Supported Databases](#).

1.4.8 Checking the Installed SQLAlchemy Version

This documentation covers SQLAlchemy version 0.7. If you’re working on a system that already has SQLAlchemy installed, check the version from your Python prompt like this:

```
>>> import sqlalchemy
>>> sqlalchemy.__version__
0.7.0
```

1.5 0.6 to 0.7 Migration

Notes on what's changed from 0.6 to 0.7 is available on the SQLAlchemy wiki at [07Migration](#).

SQLALCHEMY ORM

2.1 Object Relational Tutorial

2.1.1 Introduction

The SQLAlchemy Object Relational Mapper presents a method of associating user-defined Python classes with database tables, and instances of those classes (objects) with rows in their corresponding tables. It includes a system that transparently synchronizes all changes in state between objects and their related rows, called a [unit of work](#), as well as a system for expressing database queries in terms of the user defined classes and their defined relationships between each other.

The ORM is in contrast to the SQLAlchemy Expression Language, upon which the ORM is constructed. Whereas the SQL Expression Language, introduced in [SQL Expression Language Tutorial](#), presents a system of representing the primitive constructs of the relational database directly without opinion, the ORM presents a high level and abstracted pattern of usage, which itself is an example of applied usage of the Expression Language.

While there is overlap among the usage patterns of the ORM and the Expression Language, the similarities are more superficial than they may at first appear. One approaches the structure and content of data from the perspective of a user-defined [domain model](#) which is transparently persisted and refreshed from its underlying storage model. The other approaches it from the perspective of literal schema and SQL expression representations which are explicitly composed into messages consumed individually by the database.

A successful application may be constructed using the Object Relational Mapper exclusively. In advanced situations, an application constructed with the ORM may make occasional usage of the Expression Language directly in certain areas where specific database interactions are required.

The following tutorial is in doctest format, meaning each `>>>` line represents something you can type at a Python command prompt, and the following text represents the expected return value.

2.1.2 Version Check

A quick check to verify that we are on at least **version 0.7** of SQLAlchemy:

```
>>> import sqlalchemy
>>> sqlalchemy.__version__
0.7.0
```

2.1.3 Connecting

For this tutorial we will use an in-memory-only SQLite database. To connect we use `create_engine()`:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import create_engine
>>> engine = create_engine('sqlite:///memory:', echo=True)
```

The `echo` flag is a shortcut to setting up SQLAlchemy logging, which is accomplished via Python's standard logging module. With it enabled, we'll see all the generated SQL produced. If you are working through this tutorial and want less output generated, set it to `False`. This tutorial will format the SQL behind a popup window so it doesn't get in our way; just click the "SQL" links to see what's being generated.

2.1.4 Define and Create a Table

Next we want to tell SQLAlchemy about our tables. We will start with just a single table called `users`, which will store records for the end-users using our application (lets assume it's a website). We define our tables within a catalog called `MetaData`, using the `Table` construct, which is used in a manner similar to SQL's CREATE TABLE syntax:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import Table, Column, Integer, String, MetaData, ForeignKey
>>> metadata = MetaData()
>>> users_table = Table('users', metadata,
...     Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
...     Column('name', String),
...     Column('fullname', String),
...     Column('password', String)
... )
```

Schema Definition Language covers all about how to define `Table` objects, as well as how to load their definition from an existing database (known as **reflection**).

Next, we can issue CREATE TABLE statements derived from our table metadata, by calling `create_all()` and passing it the engine instance which points to our database. This will check for the presence of a table first before creating, so it's safe to call multiple times:

```
>>> metadata.create_all(engine)
PRAGMA table_info("users")
()
CREATE TABLE users (
    id INTEGER NOT NULL,
    name VARCHAR,
    fullname VARCHAR,
    password VARCHAR,
    PRIMARY KEY (id)
)
()
COMMIT
```

Note: Users familiar with the syntax of CREATE TABLE may notice that the VARCHAR columns were generated without a length; on SQLite and Postgresql, this is a valid datatype, but on others, it's not allowed. So if running this tutorial on one of those databases, and you wish to use SQLAlchemy to issue CREATE TABLE, a "length" may be provided to the `String` type as below:

```
Column('name', String(50))
```

The length field on `String`, as well as similar precision/scale fields available on `Integer`, `Numeric`, etc. are not referenced by SQLAlchemy other than when creating tables.

Additionally, Firebird and Oracle require sequences to generate new primary key identifiers, and SQLAlchemy doesn't generate or assume these without being instructed. For that, you use the `Sequence` construct:

```
from sqlalchemy import Sequence
Column('id', Integer, Sequence('user_id_seq'), primary_key=True)
```

A full, foolproof `Table` is therefore:

```
users_table = Table('users', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, Sequence('user_id_seq'), primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
    Column('fullname', String(50)),
    Column('password', String(12))
)
```

We include this more verbose `Table` construct separately to highlight the difference between a minimal construct geared primarily towards in-Python usage only, versus one that will be used to emit CREATE TABLE statements on a particular set of backends with more stringent requirements.

2.1.5 Define a Python Class to be Mapped

While the `Table` object defines information about our database, it does not say anything about the definition or behavior of the business objects used by our application; SQLAlchemy views this as a separate concern. To correspond to our `users` table, let's create a rudimentary `User` class. It only need subclass Python's built-in `object` class (i.e. it's a new style class):

```
>>> class User(object):
...     def __init__(self, name, fullname, password):
...         self.name = name
...         self.fullname = fullname
...         self.password = password
...
...     def __repr__(self):
...         return "<User('%s', '%s', '%s')>" % (self.name, self.fullname, self.password)
```

The class has an `__init__()` and a `__repr__()` method for convenience. These methods are both entirely optional, and can be of any form. SQLAlchemy never calls `__init__()` directly.

2.1.6 Setting up the Mapping

With our `users_table` and `User` class, we now want to map the two together. That's where the SQLAlchemy ORM package comes in. We'll use the `mapper()` function to create a **mapping** between `users_table` and `User`:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import mapper
>>> mapper(User, users_table)
<Mapper at 0x...; User>
```

The `mapper()` function creates a new `Mapper` object and stores it away for future reference, associated with our class. Let's now create and inspect a `User` object:

```
>>> ed_user = User('ed', 'Ed Jones', 'edspassword')
>>> ed_user.name
'ed'
>>> ed_user.password
'edspassword'
>>> str(ed_user.id)
'None'
```

The `id` attribute, which while not defined by our `__init__()` method, exists due to the `id` column present within the `users_table` object. By default, the `mapper()` creates class attributes for all columns present within the `Table`. These class attributes exist as Python descriptors, and define **instrumentation** for the mapped class. The

functionality of this instrumentation is very rich and includes the ability to track modifications and automatically load new data from the database when needed.

Since we have not yet told SQLAlchemy to persist `Ed Jones` within the database, its `id` is `None`. When we persist the object later, this attribute will be populated with a newly generated value.

2.1.7 Creating Table, Class and Mapper All at Once Declaratively

The preceding approach to configuration involved a `Table`, a user-defined class, and a call to `mapper()`. This illustrates classical SQLAlchemy usage, which values the highest separation of concerns possible. A large number of applications don't require this degree of separation, and for those SQLAlchemy offers an alternate "shorthand" configurational style called `declarative`. For many applications, this is the only style of configuration needed. Our above example using this style is as follows:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base

>>> Base = declarative_base()
>>> class User(Base):
...     __tablename__ = 'users'
...
...     id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
...     name = Column(String)
...     fullname = Column(String)
...     password = Column(String)
...
...     def __init__(self, name, fullname, password):
...         self.name = name
...         self.fullname = fullname
...         self.password = password
...
...     def __repr__(self):
...         return "<User('%s', '%s', '%s')>" % (self.name, self.fullname, self.password)
```

Above, the `declarative_base()` function defines a new class which we name `Base`, from which all of our ORM-enabled classes will derive. Note that we define `Column` objects with no "name" field, since it's inferred from the given attribute name.

The underlying `Table` object created by our `declarative_base()` version of `User` is accessible via the `__table__` attribute:

```
>>> users_table = User.__table__
```

The owning `MetaData` object is available as well:

```
>>> metadata = Base.metadata
```

`declarative` is covered at [Declarative](#) as well as throughout [Mapper Configuration](#).

Yet another "declarative" method is available for SQLAlchemy as a third party library called [Elixir](#). This is a full-featured configurational product which also includes many higher level mapping configurations built in. Like `declarative`, once classes and mappings are defined, ORM usage is the same as with a classical SQLAlchemy configuration.

2.1.8 Creating a Session

We're now ready to start talking to the database. The ORM's "handle" to the database is the `Session`. When we first set up the application, at the same level as our `create_engine()` statement, we define a `Session` class which will serve as a factory for new `Session` objects:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import sessionmaker
>>> Session = sessionmaker(bind=engine)
```

In the case where your application does not yet have an `Engine` when you define your module-level objects, just set it up like this:

```
>>> Session = sessionmaker()
```

Later, when you create your engine with `create_engine()`, connect it to the `Session` using `configure()`:

```
>>> Session.configure(bind=engine) # once engine is available
```

This custom-made `Session` class will create new `Session` objects which are bound to our database. Other transactional characteristics may be defined when calling `sessionmaker()` as well; these are described in a later chapter. Then, whenever you need to have a conversation with the database, you instantiate a `Session`:

```
>>> session = Session()
```

The above `Session` is associated with our SQLite-enabled `Engine`, but it hasn't opened any connections yet. When it's first used, it retrieves a connection from a pool of connections maintained by the `Engine`, and holds onto it until we commit all changes and/or close the session object.

2.1.9 Adding new Objects

To persist our `User` object, we `add()` it to our `Session`:

```
>>> ed_user = User('ed', 'Ed Jones', 'edspassword')
>>> session.add(ed_user)
```

At this point, we say that the instance is *pending*; no SQL has yet been issued and the object is not yet represented by a row in the database. The `Session` will issue the SQL to persist Ed Jones as soon as is needed, using a process known as a **flush**. If we query the database for Ed Jones, all pending information will first be flushed, and the query is issued immediately thereafter.

For example, below we create a new `Query` object which loads instances of `User`. We “filter by” the `name` attribute of `ed`, and indicate that we'd like only the first result in the full list of rows. A `User` instance is returned which is equivalent to that which we've added:

```
>>> our_user = session.query(User).filter_by(name='ed').first()
BEGIN (implicit)
INSERT INTO users (name, fullname, password) VALUES (?, ?, ?)
('ed', 'Ed Jones', 'edspassword')
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE users.name = ?
LIMIT 1 OFFSET 0
('ed',)>>> our_user
<User('ed', 'Ed Jones', 'edspassword')>
```

In fact, the `Session` has identified that the row returned is the **same** row as one already represented within its internal map of objects, so we actually got back the identical instance as that which we just added:

```
>>> ed_user is our_user
True
```

The ORM concept at work here is known as an **identity map** and ensures that all operations upon a particular row within a `Session` operate upon the same set of data. Once an object with a particular primary key is present in the `Session`, all SQL queries on that `Session` will always return the same Python object for that particular primary key; it also will raise an error if an attempt is made to place a second, already-persisted object with the same primary key within the session.

We can add more `User` objects at once using `add_all()`:

```
>>> session.add_all([
...     User('wendy', 'Wendy Williams', 'foobar'),
...     User('mary', 'Mary Contrary', 'xxg527'),
...     User('fred', 'Fred Flinstone', 'blah')])
```

Also, Ed has already decided his password isn't too secure, so lets change it:

```
>>> ed_user.password = 'f8s7ccs'
```

The `Session` is paying attention. It knows, for example, that Ed Jones has been modified:

```
>>> session.dirty
IdentitySet([<User('ed', 'Ed Jones', 'f8s7ccs')>])
```

and that three new `User` objects are pending:

```
>>> session.new
IdentitySet([<User('wendy', 'Wendy Williams', 'foobar')>,
<User('mary', 'Mary Contrary', 'xxg527')>,
<User('fred', 'Fred Flinstone', 'blah')>])
```

We tell the `Session` that we'd like to issue all remaining changes to the database and commit the transaction, which has been in progress throughout. We do this via `commit()`:

```
>>> session.commit()
UPDATE users SET password=? WHERE users.id = ?
('f8s7ccs', 1)
INSERT INTO users (name, fullname, password) VALUES (?, ?, ?)
('wendy', 'Wendy Williams', 'foobar')
INSERT INTO users (name, fullname, password) VALUES (?, ?, ?)
('mary', 'Mary Contrary', 'xxg527')
INSERT INTO users (name, fullname, password) VALUES (?, ?, ?)
('fred', 'Fred Flinstone', 'blah')
COMMIT
```

`commit()` flushes whatever remaining changes remain to the database, and commits the transaction. The connection resources referenced by the session are now returned to the connection pool. Subsequent operations with this session will occur in a **new** transaction, which will again re-acquire connection resources when first needed.

If we look at Ed's `id` attribute, which earlier was `None`, it now has a value:

```
>>> ed_user.id
BEGIN (implicit)
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, us
FROM users
WHERE users.id = ?
(1,) 1
```

After the `Session` inserts new rows in the database, all newly generated identifiers and database-generated defaults become available on the instance, either immediately or via load-on-first-access. In this case, the entire row was re-loaded on access because a new transaction was begun after we issued `commit()`. SQLAlchemy by default refreshes data from a previous transaction the first time it's accessed within a new transaction, so that the most recent state is available. The level of reloading is configurable as is described in the chapter on Sessions.

2.1.10 Rolling Back

Since the `Session` works within a transaction, we can roll back changes made too. Let's make two changes that we'll revert; `ed_user`'s user name gets set to Edwardo:


```
>>> ed_user.name = 'Edwardo'
```

and we'll add another erroneous user, fake_user:

```
>>> fake_user = User('fakeuser', 'Invalid', '12345')
>>> session.add(fake_user)
```

Querying the session, we can see that they're flushed into the current transaction:

```
>>> session.query(User).filter(User.name.in_(['Edwardo', 'fakeuser'])).all()
UPDATE users SET name=? WHERE users.id = ?
('Edwardo', 1)
INSERT INTO users (name, fullname, password) VALUES (?, ?, ?)
('fakeuser', 'Invalid', '12345')
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE users.name IN (?, ?)
('Edwardo', 'fakeuser') [<User('Edwardo', 'Ed Jones', 'f8s7ccs')>, <User('fakeuser', 'Invalid'
```

Rolling back, we can see that ed_user's name is back to ed, and fake_user has been kicked out of the session:

```
>>> session.rollback()
ROLLBACK
>>> ed_user.name
BEGIN (implicit)
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE users.id = ?
(1,) u'ed'
>>> fake_user in session
False
```

issuing a SELECT illustrates the changes made to the database:

```
>>> session.query(User).filter(User.name.in_(['ed', 'fakeuser'])).all()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE users.name IN (?, ?)
('ed', 'fakeuser') [<User('ed', 'Ed Jones', 'f8s7ccs')>]
```

2.1.11 Querying

A [Query](#) is created using the `query()` function on [Session](#). This function takes a variable number of arguments, which can be any combination of classes and class-instrumented descriptors. Below, we indicate a [Query](#) which loads [User](#) instances. When evaluated in an iterative context, the list of [User](#) objects present is returned:

```
>>> for instance in session.query(User).order_by(User.id):
...     print instance.name, instance.fullname
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name,
users.fullname AS users_fullname, users.password AS users_password
FROM users ORDER BY users.id
()ed Ed Jones
wendy Wendy Williams
mary Mary Contrary
fred Fred Flinstone
```

The [Query](#) also accepts ORM-instrumented descriptors as arguments. Any time multiple class entities or column-based entities are expressed as arguments to the `query()` function, the return result is expressed as tuples:

```
>>> for name, fullname in session.query(User.name, User.fullname):
...     print name, fullname
SELECT users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname
FROM users
()ed Ed Jones
wendy Wendy Williams
mary Mary Contrary
fred Fred Flinstone
```

The tuples returned by `Query` are *named* tuples, and can be treated much like an ordinary Python object. The names are the same as the attribute's name for an attribute, and the class name for a class:

```
>>> for row in session.query(User, User.name).all():
...     print row.User, row.name
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
()<User('ed','Ed Jones','f8s7ccs')> ed
<User('wendy','Wendy Williams','foobar')> wendy
<User('mary','Mary Contrary','xxg527')> mary
<User('fred','Fred Flinstone','blah')> fred
```

You can control the names using the `label()` construct for scalar attributes and `aliased` for class constructs:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import aliased
>>> user_alias = aliased(User, name='user_alias')
>>> for row in session.query(user_alias, user_alias.name.label('name_label')).all():
...     print row.user_alias, row.name_label
SELECT users_1.id AS users_1_id, users_1.name AS users_1_name, users_1.fullname AS users_1
FROM users AS users_1
()<User('ed','Ed Jones','f8s7ccs')> ed
<User('wendy','Wendy Williams','foobar')> wendy
<User('mary','Mary Contrary','xxg527')> mary
<User('fred','Fred Flinstone','blah')> fred
```

Basic operations with `Query` include issuing `LIMIT` and `OFFSET`, most conveniently using Python array slices and typically in conjunction with `ORDER BY`:

```
>>> for u in session.query(User).order_by(User.id)[1:3]:
...     print u
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users ORDER BY users.id
LIMIT 2 OFFSET 1
()<User('wendy','Wendy Williams','foobar')>
<User('mary','Mary Contrary','xxg527')>
```

and filtering results, which is accomplished either with `filter_by()`, which uses keyword arguments:

```
>>> for name, in session.query(User.name).filter_by(fullname='Ed Jones'):
...     print name
SELECT users.name AS users_name FROM users
WHERE users.fullname = ?
('Ed Jones',)ed
```

...or `filter()`, which uses more flexible SQL expression language constructs. These allow you to use regular Python operators with the class-level attributes on your mapped class:

```
>>> for name, in session.query(User.name).filter(User.fullname=='Ed Jones'):
...     print name
SELECT users.name AS users_name FROM users
```

```
WHERE users.fullname = ?
('Ed Jones',)ed
```

The `Query` object is fully *generative*, meaning that most method calls return a new `Query` object upon which further criteria may be added. For example, to query for users named “ed” with a full name of “Ed Jones”, you can call `filter()` twice, which joins criteria using AND:

```
>>> for user in session.query(User).filter(User.name=='ed').filter(User.fullname=='Ed Jones'):
...     print user
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE users.name = ? AND users.fullname = ?
('ed', 'Ed Jones')<User('ed', 'Ed Jones', 'f8s7ccs')>
```

Common Filter Operators

Here’s a rundown of some of the most common operators used in `filter()`:

- equals:

```
query.filter(User.name == 'ed')
```

- not equals:

```
query.filter(User.name != 'ed')
```

- LIKE:

```
query.filter(User.name.like('%ed%'))
```

- IN:

```
query.filter(User.name.in_(['ed', 'wendy', 'jack']))
```

```
# works with query objects too:
```

```
query.filter(User.name.in_(session.query(User.name).filter(User.name.like('%ed%'))))
```

- NOT IN:

```
query.filter(~User.name.in_(['ed', 'wendy', 'jack']))
```

- IS NULL:

```
filter(User.name == None)
```

- IS NOT NULL:

```
filter(User.name != None)
```

- AND:

```
from sqlalchemy import and_
filter(and_(User.name == 'ed', User.fullname == 'Ed Jones'))

# or call filter()/filter_by() multiple times
filter(User.name == 'ed').filter(User.fullname == 'Ed Jones')
```

- OR:

```
from sqlalchemy import or_
filter(or_(User.name == 'ed', User.name == 'wendy'))
```

- match:

```
query.filter(User.name.match('wendy'))
```

The contents of the match parameter are database backend specific.

Returning Lists and Scalars

The `all()`, `one()`, and `first()` methods of `Query` immediately issue SQL and return a non-iterator value. `all()` returns a list:

```
>>> query = session.query(User).filter(User.name.like('%ed')).order_by(User.id)
>>> query.all()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE users.name LIKE ? ORDER BY users.id
('%ed',)<User('ed','Ed Jones','f8s7ccs')>,<User('fred','Fred Flinstone','blah')>]
```

`first()` applies a limit of one and returns the first result as a scalar:

```
>>> query.first()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE users.name LIKE ? ORDER BY users.id
LIMIT 1 OFFSET 0
('%ed',)<User('ed','Ed Jones','f8s7ccs')>
```

`one()`, fully fetches all rows, and if not exactly one object identity or composite row is present in the result, raises an error:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm.exc import MultipleResultsFound
>>> try:
...     user = query.one()
... except MultipleResultsFound, e:
...     print e
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE users.name LIKE ? ORDER BY users.id
('%ed',)Multiple rows were found for one()

>>> from sqlalchemy.orm.exc import NoResultFound
>>> try:
...     user = query.filter(User.id == 99).one()
... except NoResultFound, e:
...     print e
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE users.name LIKE ? AND users.id = ? ORDER BY users.id
('%ed', 99)No row was found for one()
```

Using Literal SQL

Literal strings can be used flexibly with `Query`. Most methods accept strings in addition to SQLAlchemy clause constructs. For example, `filter()` and `order_by()`:

```
>>> for user in session.query(User).filter("id<224").order_by("id").all():
...     print user.name
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
```

```
WHERE id<224 ORDER BY id
()ed
wendy
mary
fred
```

Bind parameters can be specified with string-based SQL, using a colon. To specify the values, use the `params()` method:

```
>>> session.query(User).filter("id<:value and name=:name").\
...     params(value=224, name='fred').order_by(User.id).one()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE id<? and name=? ORDER BY users.id
(224, 'fred')<User('fred', 'Fred Flinstone', 'blah')>
```

To use an entirely string-based statement, using `from_statement()`; just ensure that the columns clause of the statement contains the column names normally used by the mapper (below illustrated using an asterisk):

```
>>> session.query(User).from_statement(
...     "SELECT * FROM users where name=:name").\
...     params(name='ed').all()
SELECT * FROM users where name=?
('ed',)<User('ed', 'Ed Jones', 'f8s7ccs')>]
```

You can use `from_statement()` to go completely “raw”, using string names to identify desired columns:

```
>>> session.query("id", "name", "thenumber12").\
...     from_statement("SELECT id, name, 12 as "
...     "thenumber12 FROM users where name=:name").\
...     params(name='ed').all()
SELECT id, name, 12 as thenumber12 FROM users where name=?
('ed',)<[(1, u'ed', 12)]>
```

Counting

`Query` includes a convenience method for counting called `count()`:

```
>>> session.query(User).filter(User.name.like('%ed')).count()
SELECT count(1) AS count_1
FROM users
WHERE users.name LIKE ?
('%ed',)2
```

The `count()` method is used to determine how many rows the SQL statement would return, and is mainly intended to return a simple count of a single type of entity, in this case `User`. For more complicated sets of columns or entities where the “thing to be counted” needs to be indicated more specifically, `count()` is probably not what you want. Below, a query for individual columns does return the expected result:

```
>>> session.query(User.id, User.name).filter(User.name.like('%ed')).count()
SELECT count(1) AS count_1
FROM (SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name
FROM users
WHERE users.name LIKE ?) AS anon_1
('%ed',)2
```

...but if you look at the generated SQL, SQLAlchemy saw that we were placing individual column expressions and decided to wrap whatever it was we were doing in a subquery, so as to be assured that it returns the “number of rows”.

This defensive behavior is not really needed here and in other cases is not what we want at all, such as if we wanted a grouping of counts per name:

```
>>> session.query(User.name).group_by(User.name).count()
SELECT count(1) AS count_1
FROM (SELECT users.name AS users_name
FROM users GROUP BY users.name) AS anon_1
() 4
```

We don't want the number 4, we wanted some rows back. So for detailed queries where you need to count something specific, use the `func.count()` function as a column expression:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import func
>>> session.query(func.count(User.name), User.name).group_by(User.name).all()
SELECT count(users.name) AS count_1, users.name AS users_name
FROM users GROUP BY users.name()
[(1, u'ed'), (1, u'fred'), (1, u'mary'), (1, u'wendy')]
```

2.1.12 Building a Relationship

Now let's consider a second table to be dealt with. Users in our system also can store any number of email addresses associated with their username. This implies a basic one to many association from the `users_table` to a new table which stores email addresses, which we will call `addresses`. Using declarative, we define this table along with its mapped class, `Address`:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import ForeignKey
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import relationship, backref
>>> class Address(Base):
...     __tablename__ = 'addresses'
...     id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
...     email_address = Column(String, nullable=False)
...     user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('users.id'))
...
...     user = relationship(User, backref=backref('addresses', order_by=id))
...
...     def __init__(self, email_address):
...         self.email_address = email_address
...
...     def __repr__(self):
...         return "<Address('%s')>" % self.email_address
```

The above class introduces a **foreign key** constraint which references the `users` table. This defines for SQLAlchemy the relationship between the two tables at the database level. The relationship between the `User` and `Address` classes is defined separately using the `relationship()` function, which defines an attribute `user` to be placed on the `Address` class, as well as an `addresses` collection to be placed on the `User` class. Such a relationship is known as a **bidirectional** relationship. Because of the placement of the foreign key, from `Address` to `User` it is **many to one**, and from `User` to `Address` it is **one to many**. SQLAlchemy is automatically aware of many-to-one/one-to-many based on foreign keys.

Note: The `relationship()` function has historically been known as `relation()` in the 0.5 series of SQLAlchemy and earlier.

The `relationship()` function is extremely flexible, and could just have easily been defined on the `User` class:

```
class User(Base):
    # ....
    addresses = relationship(Address, order_by=Address.id, backref="user")
```

We are also free to not define a backref, and to define the `relationship()` only on one class and not the other. It is also possible to define two separate `relationship()` constructs for either direction, which is generally safe for many-to-one and one-to-many relationships, but not for many-to-many relationships.

When using the `declarative` extension, `relationship()` gives us the option to use strings for most arguments that concern the target class, in the case that the target class has not yet been defined. This **only** works in conjunction with `declarative`:

```
class User(Base):
    """
    addresses = relationship("Address", order_by="Address.id", backref="user")
```

When `declarative` is not in use, you typically define your `mapper()` well after the target classes and `Table` objects have been defined, so string expressions are not needed.

We'll need to create the `addresses` table in the database, so we will issue another `CREATE` from our metadata, which will skip over tables which have already been created:

```
>>> metadata.create_all(engine)
PRAGMA table_info("users")
()
PRAGMA table_info("addresses")
()
CREATE TABLE addresses (
    id INTEGER NOT NULL,
    email_address VARCHAR NOT NULL,
    user_id INTEGER,
    PRIMARY KEY (id),
    FOREIGN KEY (user_id) REFERENCES users (id)
)
()
COMMIT
```

2.1.13 Working with Related Objects

Now when we create a `User`, a blank `addresses` collection will be present. Various collection types, such as sets and dictionaries, are possible here (see *Customizing Collection Access* for details), but by default, the collection is a Python list.

```
>>> jack = User('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')
>>> jack.addresses
[]
```

We are free to add `Address` objects on our `User` object. In this case we just assign a full list directly:

```
>>> jack.addresses = [Address(email_address='jack@google.com'), Address(email_address='j25@yahoo.com')]
```

When using a bidirectional relationship, elements added in one direction automatically become visible in the other direction. This is the basic behavior of the **backref** keyword, which maintains the relationship purely in memory, without using any SQL:

```
>>> jack.addresses[1]
<Address('j25@yahoo.com')>

>>> jack.addresses[1].user
<User('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')>
```

Let's add and commit Jack Bean to the database. `jack` as well as the two `Address` members in his `addresses` collection are both added to the session at once, using a process known as **cascading**:

```
>>> session.add(jack)
>>> session.commit()
INSERT INTO users (name, fullname, password) VALUES (?, ?, ?)
('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')
INSERT INTO addresses (email_address, user_id) VALUES (?, ?)
('jack@google.com', 5)
INSERT INTO addresses (email_address, user_id) VALUES (?, ?)
('j25@yahoo.com', 5)
COMMIT
```

Querying for Jack, we get just Jack back. No SQL is yet issued for Jack's addresses:

```
>>> jack = session.query(User).\
... filter_by(name='jack').one()
BEGIN (implicit)
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name,
users.fullname AS users_fullname, users.password AS users_password
FROM users
WHERE users.name = ?
('jack',)>>> jack
<User('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')>
```

Let's look at the addresses collection. Watch the SQL:

```
>>> jack.addresses
SELECT addresses.id AS addresses_id, addresses.email_address AS
addresses_email_address, addresses.user_id AS addresses_user_id
FROM addresses
WHERE ? = addresses.user_id ORDER BY addresses.id
(5,)<Address('jack@google.com')>, <Address('j25@yahoo.com')>]
```

When we accessed the addresses collection, SQL was suddenly issued. This is an example of a **lazy loading relationship**. The addresses collection is now loaded and behaves just like an ordinary list.

If you want to reduce the number of queries (dramatically, in many cases), we can apply an **eager load** to the query operation, using the `joinedload()` function. This function is a **query option** that gives additional instructions to the query on how we would like it to load, in this case we'd like to indicate that we'd like addresses to load "eagerly". SQLAlchemy then constructs an outer join between the users and addresses tables, and loads them at once, populating the addresses collection on each User object if it's not already populated:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import joinedload

>>> jack = session.query(User).\
...         options(joinedload('addresses')).\
...         filter_by(name='jack').one()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname,
users.password AS users_password, addresses_1.id AS addresses_1_id, addresses_1.email_address
AS addresses_1_email_address, addresses_1.user_id AS addresses_1_user_id
FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN addresses AS addresses_1 ON users.id = addresses_1.user_id
WHERE users.name = ? ORDER BY addresses_1.id
('jack',)>>> jack
<User('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')>

>>> jack.addresses
[<Address('jack@google.com')>, <Address('j25@yahoo.com')>]
```

See *Relationship Loading Techniques* for information on `joinedload()` and its new brother, `subqueryload()`. We'll also see another way to "eagerly" load in the next section.

Note: The join created by `joinedload()` is anonymously aliased such that it **does not affect the query results**. An `Query.order_by()` or `Query.filter()` call **cannot** reference these aliased tables - so-called “user space” joins are constructed using `Query.join()`. The rationale for this is that `joinedload()` is only applied in order to affect how related objects or collections are loaded as an optimizing detail - it can be added or removed with no impact on actual results. See the section *The Zen of Eager Loading* for a detailed description of how this is used, including how to use a single explicit JOIN for filtering/ordering and eager loading simultaneously.

2.1.14 Querying with Joins

While `joinedload()` created an anonymous, non-accessible JOIN specifically to populate a collection, we can also work explicitly with joins in many ways. For example, to construct a simple inner join between `User` and `Address`, we can just `filter()` their related columns together. Below we load the `User` and `Address` entities at once using this method:

```
>>> for u, a in session.query(User, Address).filter(User.id==Address.user_id).\
...     filter(Address.email_address=='jack@google.com').all():
...     print u, a
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname,
users.password AS users_password, addresses.id AS addresses_id,
addresses.email_address AS addresses_email_address, addresses.user_id AS addresses_user_id
FROM users, addresses
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id AND addresses.email_address = ?
('jack@google.com',) <User('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')> <Address('jack@google.com')>
```

Or we can make a real JOIN construct; the most common way is to use `join()`:

```
>>> session.query(User).join(Address).\
...     filter(Address.email_address=='jack@google.com').all()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users JOIN addresses ON users.id = addresses.user_id
WHERE addresses.email_address = ?
('jack@google.com',) [<User('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')>]
```

`join()` knows how to join between `User` and `Address` because there’s only one foreign key between them. If there were no foreign keys, or several, `join()` works better when one of the following forms are used:

```
query.join(Address, User.id==Address.user_id)      # explicit condition
query.join(User.addresses)                         # specify relationship from left to right
query.join(Address, User.addresses)                # same, with explicit target
query.join('addresses')                            # same, using a string
```

As you would expect, the same idea is used for “outer” joins, using the `outerjoin()` function:

```
query.outerjoin(User.addresses)    # LEFT OUTER JOIN
```

Note that when `join()` is called with an explicit target as well as an ON clause, we use a tuple as the argument. This is so that multiple joins can be chained together, as in:

```
session.query(Foo).join(
    Foo.bars,
    (Bat, bar.bats),
    (Widget, Bat.widget_id==Widget.id)
)
```

The above would produce SQL something like `foo JOIN bars ON <onclause> JOIN bats ON <onclause> JOIN widgets ON <onclause>`.

The general functionality of `join()` is also available as a standalone function `join()`, which is an ORM-enabled version of the same function present in the SQL expression language. This function accepts two or three arguments

(left side, right side, optional ON clause) and can be used in conjunction with the `select_from()` method to set an explicit FROM clause:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import join
>>> session.query(User).\
...     select_from(join(User, Address, User.addresses)).\
...     filter(Address.email_address=='jack@google.com').all()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users JOIN addresses ON users.id = addresses.user_id
WHERE addresses.email_address = ?
('jack@google.com',) [<User('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')>]
```

Using join() to Eagerly Load Collections/Attributes

The “eager loading” capabilities of the `joinedload()` function and the join-construction capabilities of `join()` or an equivalent can be combined together using the `contains_eager()` option. This is typically used for a query that is already joining to some related entity (more often than not via many-to-one), and you’d like the related entity to also be loaded onto the resulting objects in one step without the need for additional queries and without the “automatic” join embedded by the `joinedload()` function:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import contains_eager
>>> for address in session.query(Address).\
...     join(Address.user).\
...     filter(User.name=='jack').\
...     options(contains_eager(Address.user)):
...     print address, address.user
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname,
users.password AS users_password, addresses.id AS addresses_id,
addresses.email_address AS addresses_email_address, addresses.user_id AS addresses_user_id
FROM addresses JOIN users ON users.id = addresses.user_id
WHERE users.name = ?
('jack',) <Address('jack@google.com')> <User('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')>
<Address('j25@yahoo.com')> <User('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')>
```

Note that above the join was used both to limit the rows to just those Address objects which had a related User object with the name “jack”. It’s safe to have the Address.user attribute populated with this user using an inner join. However, when filtering on a join that is filtering on a particular member of a collection, using `contains_eager()` to populate a related collection may populate the collection with only part of what it actually references, since the collection itself is filtered.

Using Aliases

When querying across multiple tables, if the same table needs to be referenced more than once, SQL typically requires that the table be *aliased* with another name, so that it can be distinguished against other occurrences of that table. The `Query` supports this most explicitly using the `aliased` construct. Below we join to the Address entity twice, to locate a user who has two distinct email addresses at the same time:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import aliased
>>> adalias1 = aliased(Address)
>>> adalias2 = aliased(Address)
>>> for username, email1, email2 in \
...     session.query(User.name, adalias1.email_address, adalias2.email_address).\
...     join(adalias1, User.addresses).\
...     join(adalias2, User.addresses).\
...     filter(adalias1.email_address=='jack@google.com').\
```

```
...     filter(adalias2.email_address=='j25@yahoo.com'):
...     print username, email1, email2
SELECT users.name AS users_name, addresses_1.email_address AS addresses_1_email_address,
addresses_2.email_address AS addresses_2_email_address
FROM users JOIN addresses AS addresses_1 ON users.id = addresses_1.user_id
JOIN addresses AS addresses_2 ON users.id = addresses_2.user_id
WHERE addresses_1.email_address = ? AND addresses_2.email_address = ?
('jack@google.com', 'j25@yahoo.com') jack jack@google.com j25@yahoo.com
```

Using Subqueries

The [Query](#) is suitable for generating statements which can be used as subqueries. Suppose we wanted to load `User` objects along with a count of how many `Address` records each user has. The best way to generate SQL like this is to get the count of addresses grouped by user ids, and JOIN to the parent. In this case we use a LEFT OUTER JOIN so that we get rows back for those users who don't have any addresses, e.g.:

```
SELECT users.*, adr_count.address_count FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN
    (SELECT user_id, count(*) AS address_count FROM addresses GROUP BY user_id) AS adr_count
    ON users.id=adr_count.user_id
```

Using the [Query](#), we build a statement like this from the inside out. The statement accessor returns a SQL expression representing the statement generated by a particular [Query](#) - this is an instance of a `select()` construct, which are described in [SQL Expression Language Tutorial](#):

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import func
>>> stmt = session.query(Address.user_id, func.count('*').label('address_count')).group_by
```

The `func` keyword generates SQL functions, and the `subquery()` method on [Query](#) produces a SQL expression construct representing a SELECT statement embedded within an alias (it's actually shorthand for `query.statement.alias()`).

Once we have our statement, it behaves like a [Table](#) construct, such as the one we created for users at the start of this tutorial. The columns on the statement are accessible through an attribute called `c`:

```
>>> for u, count in session.query(User, stmt.c.address_count).\
...     outerjoin(stmt, User.id==stmt.c.user_id).order_by(User.id):
...     print u, count
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name,
users.fullname AS users_fullname, users.password AS users_password,
anon_1.address_count AS anon_1_address_count
FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN (SELECT addresses.user_id AS user_id, count(?) AS address_count
FROM addresses GROUP BY addresses.user_id) AS anon_1 ON users.id = anon_1.user_id
ORDER BY users.id
('*',)<User('ed','Ed Jones','f8s7ccs')> None
<User('wendy','Wendy Williams','foobar')> None
<User('mary','Mary Contrary','xsg527')> None
<User('fred','Fred Flinstone','blah')> None
<User('jack','Jack Bean','gjffdd')> 2
```

Selecting Entities from Subqueries

Above, we just selected a result that included a column from a subquery. What if we wanted our subquery to map to an entity? For this we use `aliased()` to associate an “alias” of a mapped class to a subquery:

```
>>> stmt = session.query(Address).filter(Address.email_address != 'j25@yahoo.com').subquery()
>>> adalias = aliased(Address, stmt)
```

```
>>> for user, address in session.query(User, adalias).join(adalias, User.addresses):
...     print user, address
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname,
users.password AS users_password, anon_1.id AS anon_1_id,
anon_1.email_address AS anon_1_email_address, anon_1.user_id AS anon_1_user_id
FROM users JOIN (SELECT addresses.id AS id, addresses.email_address AS email_address, addre
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email_address != ?) AS anon_1 ON users.id = anon_1.user_id
('j25@yahoo.com',) <User('jack', 'Jack Bean', 'gjffdd')> <Address('jack@google.com')>
```

Using EXISTS

The EXISTS keyword in SQL is a boolean operator which returns True if the given expression contains any rows. It may be used in many scenarios in place of joins, and is also useful for locating rows which do not have a corresponding row in a related table.

There is an explicit EXISTS construct, which looks like this:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import exists
>>> stmt = exists().where(Address.user_id==User.id)
>>> for name, in session.query(User.name).filter(stmt):
...     print name
SELECT users.name AS users_name
FROM users
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT *
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.user_id = users.id)
() jack
```

The `Query` features several operators which make usage of EXISTS automatically. Above, the statement can be expressed along the `User.addresses` relationship using `any()`:

```
>>> for name, in session.query(User.name).filter(User.addresses.any()):
...     print name
SELECT users.name AS users_name
FROM users
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT 1
FROM addresses
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id)
() jack
```

`any()` takes criterion as well, to limit the rows matched:

```
>>> for name, in session.query(User.name).\
...     filter(User.addresses.any(Address.email_address.like('%google%'))):
...     print name
SELECT users.name AS users_name
FROM users
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT 1
FROM addresses
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id AND addresses.email_address LIKE ?)
('%google%',) jack
```

`has()` is the same operator as `any()` for many-to-one relationships (note the `~` operator here too, which means “NOT”):

```
>>> session.query(Address).filter(~Address.user.has(User.name=='jack')).all()
SELECT addresses.id AS addresses_id, addresses.email_address AS addresses_email_address,
addresses.user_id AS addresses_user_id
FROM addresses
WHERE NOT (EXISTS (SELECT 1
FROM users
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id AND users.name = ?))
('jack',) []
```

Common Relationship Operators

Here's all the operators which build on relationships - each one is linked to its API documentation which includes full details on usage and behavior:

- `__eq__()` (many-to-one “equals” comparison):

```
query.filter(Address.user == someuser)
```
- `__ne__()` (many-to-one “not equals” comparison):

```
query.filter(Address.user != someuser)
```
- `IS NULL` (many-to-one comparison, also uses `__eq__()`):

```
query.filter(Address.user == None)
```
- `contains()` (used for one-to-many collections):

```
query.filter(User.addresses.contains(someaddress))
```
- `any()` (used for collections):

```
query.filter(User.addresses.any(Address.email_address == 'bar'))
```

also takes keyword arguments:

```
query.filter(User.addresses.any(email_address='bar'))
```
- `has()` (used for scalar references):

```
query.filter(Address.user.has(name='ed'))
```
- `Query.with_parent()` (used for any relationship):

```
session.query(Address).with_parent(someuser, 'addresses')
```

2.1.15 Deleting

Let's try to delete `jack` and see how that goes. We'll mark as deleted in the session, then we'll issue a count query to see that no rows remain:

```
>>> session.delete(jack)
>>> session.query(User).filter_by(name='jack').count()
UPDATE addresses SET user_id=? WHERE addresses.id = ?
(None, 1)
UPDATE addresses SET user_id=? WHERE addresses.id = ?
(None, 2)
DELETE FROM users WHERE users.id = ?
(5,)
SELECT count(1) AS count_1
FROM users
```

```
WHERE users.name = ?
('jack',)0
```

So far, so good. How about Jack's Address objects ?

```
>>> session.query(Address).filter(
...     Address.email_address.in_(['jack@google.com', 'j25@yahoo.com']))
... ).count()
SELECT count(1) AS count_1
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email_address IN (?, ?)
('jack@google.com', 'j25@yahoo.com')2
```

Uh oh, they're still there ! Analyzing the flush SQL, we can see that the `user_id` column of each address was set to NULL, but the rows weren't deleted. SQLAlchemy doesn't assume that deletes cascade, you have to tell it to do so.

Configuring delete/delete-orphan Cascade

We will configure **cascade** options on the `User.addresses` relationship to change the behavior. While SQLAlchemy allows you to add new attributes and relationships to mappings at any point in time, in this case the existing relationship needs to be removed, so we need to tear down the mappings completely and start again.

Note: Tearing down mappers with `clear_mappers()` is not a typical operation, and normal applications do not need to use this function. It is here so that the tutorial code can be executed as a whole.

```
>>> session.close() # roll back and close the transaction
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import clear_mappers
>>> clear_mappers() # remove all class mappings
```

Below, we use `mapper` to reconfigure an ORM mapping for `User` and `Address`, on our existing but currently unmapped classes. The `User.addresses` relationship now has `delete`, `delete-orphan` cascade on it, which indicates that DELETE operations will cascade to attached `Address` objects as well as `Address` objects which are removed from their parent:

```
>>> users_table = User.__table__
>>> mapper(User, users_table, properties={
...     'addresses':relationship(Address, backref='user', cascade="all, delete, delete-orphan"),
... })
<Mapper at 0x...; User>

>>> addresses_table = Address.__table__
>>> mapper(Address, addresses_table)
<Mapper at 0x...; Address>
```

Now when we load Jack (below using `get()`, which loads by primary key), removing an address from his `addresses` collection will result in that `Address` being deleted:

```
# load Jack by primary key
>>> jack = session.query(User).get(5)
BEGIN (implicit)
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, u
FROM users
WHERE users.id = ?
(5,)
# remove one Address (lazy load fires off)
>>> del jack.addresses[1]
SELECT addresses.id AS addresses_id, addresses.email_address AS addresses_email_address, a
FROM addresses
```

```

WHERE ? = addresses.user_id
(5,)
# only one address remains
>>> session.query(Address).filter(
...     Address.email_address.in_(['jack@google.com', 'j25@yahoo.com'])
... ).count()
DELETE FROM addresses WHERE addresses.id = ?
(2,)
SELECT count(1) AS count_1
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email_address IN (?, ?)
('jack@google.com', 'j25@yahoo.com') 1

```

Deleting Jack will delete both Jack and his remaining Address:

```

>>> session.delete(jack)

>>> session.query(User).filter_by(name='jack').count()
DELETE FROM addresses WHERE addresses.id = ?
(1,)
DELETE FROM users WHERE users.id = ?
(5,)
SELECT count(1) AS count_1
FROM users
WHERE users.name = ?
('jack',) 0

>>> session.query(Address).filter(
...     Address.email_address.in_(['jack@google.com', 'j25@yahoo.com'])
... ).count()
SELECT count(1) AS count_1
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email_address IN (?, ?)
('jack@google.com', 'j25@yahoo.com') 0

```

2.1.16 Building a Many To Many Relationship

We're moving into the bonus round here, but let's show off a many-to-many relationship. We'll sneak in some other features too, just to take a tour. We'll make our application a blog application, where users can write `BlogPost` items, which have `Keyword` items associated with them.

The declarative setup is as follows:

```

>>> from sqlalchemy import Text

>>> # association table
>>> post_keywords = Table('post_keywords', metadata,
...     Column('post_id', Integer, ForeignKey('posts.id')),
...     Column('keyword_id', Integer, ForeignKey('keywords.id'))
... )

>>> class BlogPost(Base):
...     __tablename__ = 'posts'
...
...     id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)

```

```
...     user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('users.id'))
...     headline = Column(String(255), nullable=False)
...     body = Column(Text)
...
...     # many to many BlogPost<->Keyword
...     keywords = relationship('Keyword', secondary=post_keywords, backref='posts')
...
...     def __init__(self, headline, body, author):
...         self.author = author
...         self.headline = headline
...         self.body = body
...
...     def __repr__(self):
...         return "BlogPost(%r, %r, %r)" % (self.headline, self.body, self.author)

>>> class Keyword(Base):
...     __tablename__ = 'keywords'
...
...     id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
...     keyword = Column(String(50), nullable=False, unique=True)
...
...     def __init__(self, keyword):
...         self.keyword = keyword
```

Above, the many-to-many relationship is `BlogPost.keywords`. The defining feature of a many-to-many relationship is the `secondary` keyword argument which references a `Table` object representing the association table. This table only contains columns which reference the two sides of the relationship; if it has *any* other columns, such as its own primary key, or foreign keys to other tables, SQLAlchemy requires a different usage pattern called the “association object”, described at [Association Object](#).

The many-to-many relationship is also bi-directional using the `backref` keyword. This is the one case where usage of `backref` is generally required, since if a separate `posts` relationship were added to the `Keyword` entity, both relationships would independently add and remove rows from the `post_keywords` table and produce conflicts.

We would also like our `BlogPost` class to have an `author` field. We will add this as another bidirectional relationship, except one issue we’ll have is that a single user might have lots of blog posts. When we access `User.posts`, we’d like to be able to filter results further so as not to load the entire collection. For this we use a setting accepted by `relationship()` called `lazy='dynamic'`, which configures an alternate **loader strategy** on the attribute. To use it on the “reverse” side of a `relationship()`, we use the `backref()` function:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import backref
>>> # "dynamic" loading relationship to User
>>> BlogPost.author = relationship(User, backref=backref('posts', lazy='dynamic'))
```

Create new tables:

```
>>> metadata.create_all(engine)
PRAGMA table_info("users")
()
PRAGMA table_info("addresses")
()
PRAGMA table_info("posts")
()
PRAGMA table_info("keywords")
()
PRAGMA table_info("post_keywords")
()
```



```

CREATE TABLE posts (
    id INTEGER NOT NULL,
    user_id INTEGER,
    headline VARCHAR(255) NOT NULL,
    body TEXT,
    PRIMARY KEY (id),
    FOREIGN KEY(user_id) REFERENCES users (id)
)
()
COMMIT
CREATE TABLE keywords (
    id INTEGER NOT NULL,
    keyword VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (id),
    UNIQUE (keyword)
)
()
COMMIT
CREATE TABLE post_keywords (
    post_id INTEGER,
    keyword_id INTEGER,
    FOREIGN KEY(post_id) REFERENCES posts (id),
    FOREIGN KEY(keyword_id) REFERENCES keywords (id)
)
()
COMMIT

```

Usage is not too different from what we've been doing. Let's give Wendy some blog posts:

```

>>> wendy = session.query(User).filter_by(name='wendy').one()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, users.username AS users_username
FROM users
WHERE users.name = ?
('wendy',)>>> post = BlogPost("Wendy's Blog Post", "This is a test", wendy)
>>> session.add(post)

```

We're storing keywords uniquely in the database, but we know that we don't have any yet, so we can just create them:

```

>>> post.keywords.append(Keyword('wendy'))
>>> post.keywords.append(Keyword('firstpost'))

```

We can now look up all blog posts with the keyword 'firstpost'. We'll use the `any` operator to locate "blog posts where any of its keywords has the keyword string 'firstpost'":

```

>>> session.query(BlogPost).filter(BlogPost.keywords.any(keyword='firstpost')).all()
INSERT INTO keywords (keyword) VALUES (?)
('wendy',)
INSERT INTO keywords (keyword) VALUES (?)
('firstpost',)
INSERT INTO posts (user_id, headline, body) VALUES (?, ?, ?)
(2, "Wendy's Blog Post", 'This is a test')
INSERT INTO post_keywords (post_id, keyword_id) VALUES (?, ?)
((1, 1), (1, 2))
SELECT posts.id AS posts_id, posts.user_id AS posts_user_id, posts.headline AS posts_headline, posts.body AS posts_body
FROM posts
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT 1
FROM post_keywords, keywords

```

```
WHERE posts.id = post_keywords.post_id AND keywords.id = post_keywords.keyword_id AND keywords.keyword = ('firstpost',) [BlogPost("Wendy's Blog Post", 'This is a test', <User('wendy','Wendy Williams')>)]
```

If we want to look up just Wendy's posts, we can tell the query to narrow down to her as a parent:

```
>>> session.query(BlogPost).filter(BlogPost.author==wendy).\
... filter(BlogPost.keywords.any(keyword='firstpost')).all()
SELECT posts.id AS posts_id, posts.user_id AS posts_user_id, posts.headline AS posts_headline
FROM posts
WHERE ? = posts.user_id AND (EXISTS (SELECT 1
FROM post_keywords, keywords
WHERE posts.id = post_keywords.post_id AND keywords.id = post_keywords.keyword_id AND keywords.keyword = (2, 'firstpost') [BlogPost("Wendy's Blog Post", 'This is a test', <User('wendy','Wendy Williams')>)]
```

Or we can use Wendy's own `posts` relationship, which is a “dynamic” relationship, to query straight from there:

```
>>> wendy.posts.filter(BlogPost.keywords.any(keyword='firstpost')).all()
SELECT posts.id AS posts_id, posts.user_id AS posts_user_id, posts.headline AS posts_headline
FROM posts
WHERE ? = posts.user_id AND (EXISTS (SELECT 1
FROM post_keywords, keywords
WHERE posts.id = post_keywords.post_id AND keywords.id = post_keywords.keyword_id AND keywords.keyword = (2, 'firstpost') [BlogPost("Wendy's Blog Post", 'This is a test', <User('wendy','Wendy Williams')>)]
```

2.1.17 Further Reference

Query Reference: *Querying*

Mapper Reference: *Mapper Configuration*

Relationship Reference: *Relationship Configuration*

Session Reference: *Using the Session*.

2.2 Mapper Configuration

This section describes a variety of configurational patterns that are usable with mappers. It assumes you've worked through *Object Relational Tutorial* and know how to construct and use rudimentary mappers and relationships.

Note that all patterns here apply both to the usage of explicit `mapper()` and `Table` objects as well as when using the `sqlalchemy.ext.declarative` extension. Any example in this section which takes a form such as:

```
mapper(User, users_table, primary_key=[users_table.c.id])
```

Would translate into declarative as:

```
class User(Base):
    __table__ = users_table
    __mapper_args__ = {
        'primary_key': [users_table.c.id]
    }
```

Or if using `__tablename__`, `Column` objects are declared inline with the class definition. These are usable as is within `__mapper_args__`:

```
class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'users'
```

```
id = Column(Integer)

__mapper_args__ = {
    'primary_key': [id]
}
```

2.2.1 Customizing Column Properties

The default behavior of `mapper()` is to assemble all the columns in the mapped `Table` into mapped object attributes. This behavior can be modified in several ways, as well as enhanced by SQL expressions.

Mapping a Subset of Table Columns

To reference a subset of columns referenced by a table as mapped attributes, use the `include_properties` or `exclude_properties` arguments. For example:

```
mapper(User, users_table, include_properties=['user_id', 'user_name'])
```

...will map the `User` class to the `users_table` table, only including the “user_id” and “user_name” columns - the rest are not referenced. Similarly:

```
mapper(Address, addresses_table,
        exclude_properties=['street', 'city', 'state', 'zip'])
```

...will map the `Address` class to the `addresses_table` table, including all columns present except “street”, “city”, “state”, and “zip”.

When this mapping is used, the columns that are not included will not be referenced in any `SELECT` statements emitted by `Query`, nor will there be any mapped attribute on the mapped class which represents the column; assigning an attribute of that name will have no effect beyond that of a normal Python attribute assignment.

In some cases, multiple columns may have the same name, such as when mapping to a join of two or more tables that share some column name. To exclude or include individual columns, `Column` objects may also be placed within the “include_properties” and “exclude_properties” collections (new feature as of 0.6.4):

```
mapper(UserAddress, users_table.join(addresses_table),
        exclude_properties=[addresses_table.c.id],
        primary_key=[users_table.c.id]
    )
```

It should be noted that insert and update defaults configured on individual `Column` objects, such as those configured by the “default”, “update”, “server_default” and “server_onupdate” arguments, will continue to function normally even if those `Column` objects are not mapped. This functionality is part of the SQL expression and execution system and occurs below the level of the ORM.

Attribute Names for Mapped Columns

To change the name of the attribute mapped to a particular column, place the `Column` object in the `properties` dictionary with the desired key:

```
mapper(User, users_table, properties={
    'id': users_table.c.user_id,
    'name': users_table.c.user_name,
})
```

When using `declarative`, the above configuration is more succinct - place the full column name in the `Column` definition, using the desired attribute name in the class definition:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
Base = declarative_base()
```

```
class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'user'
    id = Column('user_id', Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column('user_name', String(50))
```

To change the names of all attributes using a prefix, use the `column_prefix` option. This is useful for some schemes that would like to declare alternate attributes:

```
mapper(User, users_table, column_prefix='_')
```

The above will place attribute names such as `_user_id`, `_user_name`, `_password` etc. on the mapped `User` class.

Mapping Multiple Columns to a Single Attribute

To place multiple columns which are known to be “synonymous” based on foreign key relationship or join condition into the same mapped attribute, put them together using a list, as below where we map to a `join()`:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import join

# join users and addresses
usersaddresses = join(users_table, addresses_table, \
    users_table.c.user_id == addresses_table.c.user_id)

# user_id columns are equated under the 'user_id' attribute
mapper(User, usersaddresses, properties={
    'id': [users_table.c.user_id, addresses_table.c.user_id],
})
```

For further examples on this particular use case, see *Mapping a Class against Multiple Tables*.

Using column_property for column level options

The establishment of a `Column` on a `mapper()` can be further customized using the `column_property()` function, as specified to the `properties` dictionary. This function is usually invoked implicitly for each mapped `Column`. Explicit usage looks like:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import mapper, column_property

mapper(User, users, properties={
    'name': column_property(users.c.name, active_history=True)
})
```

or with declarative:

```
class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'users'

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = column_property(Column(String(50)), active_history=True)
```

Further examples of `column_property()` are at *SQL Expressions as Mapped Attributes*.

`sqlalchemy.orm.column_property(*args, **kwargs)`
Provide a column-level property for use with a Mapper.

Column-based properties can normally be applied to the mapper’s `properties` dictionary using the `Column` element directly. Use this function when the given column is not directly present within the mapper’s selectable; examples include SQL expressions, functions, and scalar SELECT queries.

Columns that aren’t present in the mapper’s selectable won’t be persisted by the mapper and are effectively “read-only” attributes.

Parameters

- ***cols** – list of `Column` objects to be mapped.
- **active_history=False** – When `True`, indicates that the “previous” value for a scalar attribute should be loaded when replaced, if not already loaded. Normally, history tracking logic for simple non-primary-key scalar values only needs to be aware of the “new” value in order to perform a flush. This flag is available for applications that make use of `attributes.get_history()` which also need to know the “previous” value of the attribute. (new in 0.6.6)
- **comparator_factory** – a class which extends `ColumnProperty.Comparator` which provides custom SQL clause generation for comparison operations.
- **group** – a group name for this property when marked as deferred.
- **deferred** – when `True`, the column property is “deferred”, meaning that it does not load immediately, and is instead loaded when the attribute is first accessed on an instance. See also `deferred()`.
- **doc** – optional string that will be applied as the doc on the class-bound descriptor.
- **extension** – an `AttributeExtension` instance, or list of extensions, which will be prepended to the list of attribute listeners for the resulting descriptor placed on the class. **Deprecated.** Please see `AttributeEvents`.

2.2.2 Deferred Column Loading

This feature allows particular columns of a table to not be loaded by default, instead being loaded later on when first referenced. It is essentially “column-level lazy loading”. This feature is useful when one wants to avoid loading a large text or binary field into memory when it’s not needed. Individual columns can be lazy loaded by themselves or placed into groups that lazy-load together:

```
book_excerpts = Table('books', metadata,
    Column('book_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('title', String(200), nullable=False),
    Column('summary', String(2000)),
    Column('excerpt', Text),
    Column('photo', Binary)
)

class Book(object):
    pass

# define a mapper that will load each of 'excerpt' and 'photo' in
# separate, individual-row SELECT statements when each attribute
# is first referenced on the individual object instance
mapper(Book, book_excerpts, properties={
    'excerpt': deferred(book_excerpts.c.excerpt),
    'photo': deferred(book_excerpts.c.photo)
})
```

With declarative, `Column` objects can be declared directly inside of `deferred()`:

```
class Book(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'books'

    book_id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    title = Column(String(200), nullable=False)
    summary = Column(String(2000))
    excerpt = deferred(Column(Text))
    photo = deferred(Column(Binary))
```

Deferred columns can be associated with a “group” name, so that they load together when any of them are first accessed:

```
book_excerpts = Table('books', metadata,
    Column('book_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('title', String(200), nullable=False),
    Column('summary', String(2000)),
    Column('excerpt', Text),
    Column('photo1', Binary),
    Column('photo2', Binary),
    Column('photo3', Binary)
)
```

```
class Book(object):
    pass
```

```
# define a mapper with a 'photos' deferred group. when one photo is referenced,
# all three photos will be loaded in one SELECT statement. The 'excerpt' will
# be loaded separately when it is first referenced.
mapper(Book, book_excerpts, properties = {
    'excerpt': deferred(book_excerpts.c.excerpt),
    'photo1': deferred(book_excerpts.c.photo1, group='photos'),
    'photo2': deferred(book_excerpts.c.photo2, group='photos'),
    'photo3': deferred(book_excerpts.c.photo3, group='photos')
})
```

You can defer or undefer columns at the `Query` level using the `defer()` and `undefer()` query options:

```
query = session.query(Book)
query.options(defer('summary')).all()
query.options(undefer('excerpt')).all()
```

And an entire “deferred group”, i.e. which uses the group keyword argument to `deferred()`, can be undeferred using `undefer_group()`, sending in the group name:

```
query = session.query(Book)
query.options(undefer_group('photos')).all()
```

Column Deferral API

`sqlalchemy.orm.deferred(*columns, **kwargs)`

Return a `DeferredColumnProperty`, which indicates this object attributes should only be loaded from its corresponding table column when first accessed.

Used with the `properties` dictionary sent to `mapper()`.

`sqlalchemy.orm.defer(*keys)`

Return a `MapperOption` that will convert the column property of the given name into a deferred load.

Used with `options()`.

`sqlalchemy.orm.undefer(*keys)`

Return a `MapperOption` that will convert the column property of the given name into a non-deferred (regular column) load.

Used with `options()`.

`sqlalchemy.orm.undefer_group(name)`

Return a `MapperOption` that will convert the given group of deferred column properties into a non-deferred (regular column) load.

Used with `options()`.

2.2.3 SQL Expressions as Mapped Attributes

Any SQL expression that relates to the primary mapped selectable can be mapped as a read-only attribute which will be bundled into the SELECT emitted for the target mapper when rows are loaded. This effect is achieved using the `column_property()` function. Any scalar-returning `ClauseElement` may be used. Unlike older versions of SQLAlchemy, there is no `label()` requirement:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import column_property
```

```
mapper(User, users_table, properties={
    'fullname': column_property(
        users_table.c.firstname + " " + users_table.c.lastname
    )
})
```

Correlated subqueries may be used as well:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import column_property
```

```
from sqlalchemy import select, func
```

```
mapper(User, users_table, properties={
    'address_count': column_property(
        select([func.count(addresses_table.c.address_id)])\
            where(addresses_table.c.user_id==users_table.c.user_id)
    )
})
```

For many-to-many relationships, use `and_()` to join the fields of the association table to both tables in a relation:

```
from sqlalchemy import and_
```

```
mapper(Author, authors, properties={
    'book_count': column_property(
        select([func.count(books.c.id)],
            and_(
                book_authors.c.author_id==authors.c.id,
                book_authors.c.book_id==books.c.id
            ))
    )
})
```

For examples of `column_property()` using Declarative, see [Defining SQL Expressions](#).

Note that `column_property()` is used to provide the effect of a SQL expression that is actively rendered into the SELECT generated for a particular mapped class. Alternatively, for the typical attribute that represents a composed

value, it's usually simpler to define it as a Python property which is evaluated as it is invoked on instances after they've been loaded:

```
class User(object):
    @property
    def fullname(self):
        return self.firstname + " " + self.lastname
```

To invoke a SQL statement from an instance that's already been loaded, the session associated with the instance can be acquired using `object_session()` which will provide the appropriate transactional context from which to emit a statement:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import object_session
from sqlalchemy import select, func

class User(object):
    @property
    def address_count(self):
        return object_session(self).\
            scalar(
                select([func.count(addresses_table.c.address_id)])\
                    where(addresses_table.c.user_id==self.user_id)
            )
```

See also *Using Descriptors* for details on building expression-enabled descriptors on mapped classes, which are invoked independently of the mapping.

2.2.4 Changing Attribute Behavior

Simple Validators

A quick way to add a “validation” routine to an attribute is to use the `validates()` decorator. An attribute validator can raise an exception, halting the process of mutating the attribute's value, or can change the given value into something different. Validators, like all attribute extensions, are only called by normal userland code; they are not issued when the ORM is populating the object.

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import validates

addresses_table = Table('addresses', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('email', String)
)

class EmailAddress(object):
    @validates('email')
    def validate_email(self, key, address):
        assert '@' in address
        return address

mapper(EmailAddress, addresses_table)
```

Validators also receive collection events, when items are added to a collection:

```
class User(object):
    @validates('addresses')
    def validate_address(self, key, address):
```



```

    assert '@' in address.email
    return address

```

Note that the `validates()` decorator is a convenience function built on top of attribute events. An application that requires more control over configuration of attribute change behavior can make use of this system, described at [AttributeEvents](#).

`sqlalchemy.orm.validates(*names)`

Decorate a method as a ‘validator’ for one or more named properties.

Designates a method as a validator, a method which receives the name of the attribute as well as a value to be assigned, or in the case of a collection, the value to be added to the collection. The function can then raise validation exceptions to halt the process from continuing (where Python’s built-in `ValueError` and `AssertionError` exceptions are reasonable choices), or can modify or replace the value before proceeding. The function should otherwise return the given value.

Note that a validator for a collection **cannot** issue a load of that collection within the validation routine - this usage raises an assertion to avoid recursion overflows. This is a reentrant condition which is not supported.

Using Descriptors

A more comprehensive way to produce modified behavior for an attribute is to use descriptors. These are commonly used in Python using the `property()` function. The standard SQLAlchemy technique for descriptors is to create a plain descriptor, and to have it read/write from a mapped attribute with a different name. Below we illustrate this using Python 2.6-style properties:

```

from sqlalchemy.orm import mapper

class EmailAddress(object):

    @property
    def email(self):
        return self._email

    @email.setter
    def email(self, email):
        self._email = email

mapper(EmailAddress, addresses_table, properties={
    '_email': addresses_table.c.email
})

```

The approach above will work, but there’s more we can add. While our `EmailAddress` object will shuttle the value through the `email` descriptor and into the `_email` mapped attribute, the class level `EmailAddress.email` attribute does not have the usual expression semantics usable with [Query](#). To provide these, we instead use the [hybrid](#) extension as follows:

```

from sqlalchemy.ext.hybrid import hybrid_property

class EmailAddress(object):

    @hybrid_property
    def email(self):
        return self._email

    @email.setter

```

```
def email(self, email):
    self._email = email
```

The email attribute now provides a SQL expression when used at the class level:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import Session
session = Session()
```

```
address = session.query(EmailAddress).filter(EmailAddress.email == 'address@example.com').
SELECT addresses.email AS addresses_email, addresses.id AS addresses_id
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email = ?
('address@example.com',)
address.email = 'otheraddress@example.com'
session.commit()
UPDATE addresses SET email=? WHERE addresses.id = ?
('otheraddress@example.com', 1)
COMMIT
```

The `hybrid_property` also allows us to change the behavior of the attribute, including defining separate behaviors when the attribute is accessed at the instance level versus at the class/expression level, using the `hybrid_property.expression()` modifier. Such as, if we wanted to add a host name automatically, we might define two sets of string manipulation logic:

```
class EmailAddress(object):
    @hybrid_property
    def email(self):
        """Return the value of _email up until the last twelve
        characters."""

        return self._email[:-12]

    @email.setter
    def email(self, email):
        """Set the value of _email, tacking on the twelve character
        value @example.com."""

        self._email = email + "@example.com"

    @email.expression
    def email(cls):
        """Produce a SQL expression that represents the value
        of the _email column, minus the last twelve characters."""

        return func.substr(cls._email, 0, func.length(cls._email) - 12)
```

Above, accessing the email property of an instance of EmailAddress will return the value of the `_email` attribute, removing or adding the hostname `@example.com` from the value. When we query against the email attribute, a SQL function is rendered which produces the same effect:

```
address = session.query(EmailAddress).filter(EmailAddress.email == 'address').one()
SELECT addresses.email AS addresses_email, addresses.id AS addresses_id
FROM addresses
WHERE substr(addresses.email, ?, length(addresses.email) - ?) = ?
(0, 12, 'address')
```

Read more about Hybrids at [Hybrid Attributes](#).

Synonyms

Synonyms are a mapper-level construct that applies expression behavior to a descriptor based attribute. The functionality of synonym is superseded as of 0.7 by hybrid attributes.

```
sqlalchemy.orm.synonym(name, map_column=False, descriptor=None, comparator_factory=None,
                        doc=None)
```

Denote an attribute name as a synonym to a mapped property.

Note: `synonym()` is superseded as of 0.7 by the `hybrid` extension. See the documentation for hybrids at [Hybrid Attributes](#).

Used with the properties dictionary sent to `mapper()`:

```
class MyClass(object):
    def _get_status(self):
        return self._status
    def _set_status(self, value):
        self._status = value
    status = property(_get_status, _set_status)

mapper(MyClass, sometable, properties={
    "status":synonym("_status", map_column=True)
})
```

Above, the `status` attribute of `MyClass` will produce expression behavior against the table column named `status`, using the Python attribute `_status` on the mapped class to represent the underlying value.

Parameters

- **name** – the name of the existing mapped property, which can be any other `MapperProperty` including column-based properties and relationships.
- **map_column** – if `True`, an additional `ColumnProperty` is created on the mapper automatically, using the synonym’s name as the keyname of the property, and the keyname of this `synonym()` as the name of the column to map.

Custom Comparators

The expressions returned by comparison operations, such as `User.name=='ed'`, can be customized, by implementing an object that explicitly defines each comparison method needed.

This is a relatively rare use case which generally applies only to highly customized types. Usually, custom SQL behaviors can be associated with a mapped class by composing together the classes’ existing mapped attributes with other expression components, using either mapped SQL expressions as those described in [SQL Expressions as Mapped Attributes](#), or so-called “hybrid” attributes as described at [Hybrid Attributes](#). Those approaches should be considered first before resorting to custom comparison objects.

Each of `column_property()`, `composite()`, `relationship()`, and `comparable_property()` accept an argument called `comparator_factory`. A subclass of `PropComparator` can be provided for this argument, which can then reimplement basic Python comparison methods such as `__eq__()`, `__ne__()`, `__lt__()`, and so on.

It’s best to subclass the `PropComparator` subclass provided by each type of property. For example, to allow a column-mapped attribute to do case-insensitive comparison:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm.properties import ColumnProperty
from sqlalchemy.sql import func
```

```
class MyComparator(ColumnProperty.Comparator):
    def __eq__(self, other):
        return func.lower(self.__clause_element__()) == func.lower(other)

mapper(EmailAddress, addresses_table, properties={
    'email': column_property(addresses_table.c.email,
                             comparator_factory=MyComparator)
})
```

Above, comparisons on the email column are wrapped in the SQL `lower()` function to produce case-insensitive matching:

```
>>> str(EmailAddress.email == 'SomeAddress@foo.com')
lower(addresses.email) = lower(:lower_1)
```

When building a `PropComparator`, the `__clause_element__()` method should be used in order to acquire the underlying mapped column. This will return a column that is appropriately wrapped in any kind of subquery or aliasing that has been applied in the context of the generated SQL statement.

`sqlalchemy.orm.comparable_property(comparator_factory, descriptor=None)`
Provides a method of applying a `PropComparator` to any Python descriptor attribute.

Note: `comparable_property()` is superseded as of 0.7 by the `hybrid` extension. See the example at *Building Custom Comparators*.

Allows a regular Python `@property` (descriptor) to be used in queries and SQL constructs like a managed attribute. `comparable_property` wraps a descriptor with a proxy that directs operator overrides such as `==` (`__eq__`) to the supplied comparator but proxies everything else through to the original descriptor. Used with the properties dictionary sent to `mapper()`:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import mapper, comparable_property
from sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces import PropComparator
from sqlalchemy.sql import func
from sqlalchemy import Table, MetaData, Integer, String, Column

metadata = MetaData()

word_table = Table('word', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('word', String(200), nullable=False)
)

class CaseInsensitiveComparator(PropComparator):
    def __clause_element__(self):
        return self.prop

    def __eq__(self, other):
        return func.lower(self.__clause_element__()) == func.lower(other)

class SearchWord(object):
    pass

mapper(SearchWord, word_table, properties={
    'word_insensitive': comparable_property(CaseInsensitiveComparator)
})
```

A mapping like the above allows the `word_insensitive` attribute to render an expression like:

```
>>> print SearchWord.word_insensitive == "Trucks"
lower(:lower_1) = lower(:lower_2)
```

Parameters

- **comparator_factory** – A PropComparator subclass or factory that defines operator behavior for this property.
- **descriptor** – Optional when used in a `properties={}` declaration. The Python descriptor or property to layer comparison behavior on top of.

The like-named descriptor will be automatically retrieved from the mapped class if left blank in a `properties` declaration.

2.2.5 Composite Column Types

Sets of columns can be associated with a single user-defined datatype. The ORM provides a single attribute which represents the group of columns using the class you provide.

Note: As of SQLAlchemy 0.7, composites have been simplified such that they no longer “conceal” the underlying column based attributes. Additionally, in-place mutation is no longer automatic; see the section below on enabling mutability to support tracking of in-place changes.

A simple example represents pairs of columns as a “Point” object. Starting with a table that represents two points as `x1/y1` and `x2/y2`:

```
from sqlalchemy import Table, Column

vertices = Table('vertices', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('x1', Integer),
    Column('y1', Integer),
    Column('x2', Integer),
    Column('y2', Integer),
)
```

We create a new class, `Point`, that will represent each `x/y` as a pair:

```
class Point(object):
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y

    def __composite_values__(self):
        return self.x, self.y

    def __eq__(self, other):
        return isinstance(other, Point) and \
            other.x == self.x and \
            other.y == self.y

    def __ne__(self, other):
        return not self.__eq__(other)
```

The requirements for the custom datatype class are that it have a constructor which accepts positional arguments corresponding to its column format, and also provides a method `__composite_values__()` which returns the

state of the object as a list or tuple, in order of its column-based attributes. It also should supply adequate `__eq__()` and `__ne__()` methods which test the equality of two instances.

The `composite()` function is then used in the mapping:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import composite

class Vertex(object):
    pass

mapper(Vertex, vertices, properties={
    'start': composite(Point, vertices.c.x1, vertices.c.y1),
    'end': composite(Point, vertices.c.x2, vertices.c.y2)
})
```

When using `sqlalchemy.ext.declarative`, the individual `Column` objects may optionally be bundled into the `composite()` call, ensuring that they are named:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
Base = declarative_base()

class Vertex(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'vertices'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    start = composite(Point, Column('x1', Integer), Column('y1', Integer))
    end = composite(Point, Column('x2', Integer), Column('y2', Integer))
```

Using either configurational approach, we can now use the `Vertex` instances as well as querying as though the `start` and `end` attributes are regular scalar attributes:

```
session = Session()
v = Vertex(Point(3, 4), Point(5, 6))
session.add(v)

v2 = session.query(Vertex).filter(Vertex.start == Point(3, 4))

sqlalchemy.orm.composite(class_, *cols, **kwargs)
```

Return a composite column-based property for use with a Mapper.

See the mapping documentation section *Composite Column Types* for a full usage example.

Parameters

- **class_** – The “composite type” class.
- ***cols** – List of `Column` objects to be mapped.
- **active_history=False** – When `True`, indicates that the “previous” value for a scalar attribute should be loaded when replaced, if not already loaded. See the same flag on `column_property()`. (This flag becomes meaningful specifically for `composite()` in 0.7 - previously it was a placeholder).
- **group** – A group name for this property when marked as deferred.
- **deferred** – When `True`, the column property is “deferred”, meaning that it does not load immediately, and is instead loaded when the attribute is first accessed on an instance. See also `deferred()`.
- **comparator_factory** – a class which extends `CompositeProperty.Comparator` which provides custom SQL clause generation for comparison operations.
- **doc** – optional string that will be applied as the doc on the class-bound descriptor.

- **extension** – an `AttributeExtension` instance, or list of extensions, which will be prepended to the list of attribute listeners for the resulting descriptor placed on the class. **Deprecated.** Please see `AttributeEvents`.

Tracking In-Place Mutations on Composites

As of SQLAlchemy 0.7, in-place changes to an existing composite value are not tracked automatically. Instead, the composite class needs to provide events to its parent object explicitly. This task is largely automated via the usage of the `MutableComposite` mixin, which uses events to associate each user-defined composite object with all parent associations. Please see the example in *Establishing Mutability on Composites*.

Redefining Comparison Operations for Composites

The “equals” comparison operation by default produces an AND of all corresponding columns equated to one another. This can be changed using the `comparator_factory`, described in *Custom Comparators*. Below we illustrate the “greater than” operator, implementing the same expression that the base “greater than” does:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm.properties import CompositeProperty
from sqlalchemy import sql

class PointComparator(CompositeProperty.Comparator):
    def __gt__(self, other):
        """redefine the 'greater than' operation"""

        return sql.and_(*[a>b for a, b in
                           zip(self.__clause_element__().clauses,
                               other.__composite_values__())])

mapper(Vertex, vertices, properties={
    'start': composite(Point, vertices.c.x1, vertices.c.y1,
                       comparator_factory=PointComparator),
    'end': composite(Point, vertices.c.x2, vertices.c.y2,
                     comparator_factory=PointComparator)
})
```

2.2.6 Mapping a Class against Multiple Tables

Mappers can be constructed against arbitrary relational units (called `Selectables`) as well as plain `Tables`. For example, The `join` keyword from the `SQL` package creates a neat selectable unit comprised of multiple tables, complete with its own composite primary key, which can be passed in to a mapper as the table.

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import mapper
from sqlalchemy.sql import join

class AddressUser(object):
    pass

# define a Join
j = join(users_table, addresses_table)

# map to it - the identity of an AddressUser object will be
# based on (user_id, address_id) since those are the primary keys involved
mapper(AddressUser, j, properties={
```

```
    'user_id': [users_table.c.user_id, addresses_table.c.user_id]
})
```

Note that the list of columns is equivalent to the usage of `column_property()` with multiple columns:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import mapper, column_property

mapper(AddressUser, j, properties={
    'user_id': column_property(users_table.c.user_id, addresses_table.c.user_id)
})
```

The usage of `column_property()` is required when using declarative to map to multiple columns, since the declarative class parser won't recognize a plain list of columns:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base

Base = declarative_base()

class AddressUser(Base):
    __table__ = j

    user_id = column_property(users_table.c.user_id, addresses_table.c.user_id)
```

A second example:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import join

# many-to-many join on an association table
j = join(users_table, userkeywords,
         users_table.c.user_id==userkeywords.c.user_id).join(keywords,
         userkeywords.c.keyword_id==keywords.c.keyword_id)

# a class
class KeywordUser(object):
    pass

# map to it - the identity of a KeywordUser object will be
# (user_id, keyword_id) since those are the primary keys involved
mapper(KeywordUser, j, properties={
    'user_id': [users_table.c.user_id, userkeywords.c.user_id],
    'keyword_id': [userkeywords.c.keyword_id, keywords.c.keyword_id]
})
```

In both examples above, “composite” columns were added as properties to the mappers; these are aggregations of multiple columns into one mapper property, which instructs the mapper to keep both of those columns set at the same value.

2.2.7 Mapping a Class against Arbitrary Selects

Similar to mapping against a join, a plain `select()` object can be used with a mapper as well. Below, an example select which contains two aggregate functions and a `group_by` is mapped to a class:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import select

s = select([customers,
           func.count(orders).label('order_count'),
           func.max(orders.price).label('highest_order')],
```



```

        customers.c.customer_id==orders.c.customer_id,
        group_by=[c for c in customers.c]
    ).alias('somealias')
class Customer(object):
    pass

mapper(Customer, s)

```

Above, the “customers” table is joined against the “orders” table to produce a full row for each customer row, the total count of related rows in the “orders” table, and the highest price in the “orders” table, grouped against the full set of columns in the “customers” table. That query is then mapped against the Customer class. New instances of Customer will contain attributes for each column in the “customers” table as well as an “order_count” and “highest_order” attribute. Updates to the Customer object will only be reflected in the “customers” table and not the “orders” table. This is because the primary key columns of the “orders” table are not represented in this mapper and therefore the table is not affected by save or delete operations.

2.2.8 Multiple Mappers for One Class

The first mapper created for a certain class is known as that class’s “primary mapper.” Other mappers can be created as well on the “load side” - these are called **secondary mappers**. This is a mapper that must be constructed with the keyword argument `non_primary=True`, and represents a load-only mapper. Objects that are loaded with a secondary mapper will have their save operation processed by the primary mapper. It is also invalid to add new `relationship()` objects to a non-primary mapper. To use this mapper with the Session, specify it to the `query` method:

example:

```

# primary mapper
mapper(User, users_table)

# make a secondary mapper to load User against a join
othermapper = mapper(User, users_table.join(someothertable), non_primary=True)

# select
result = session.query(othermapper).select()

```

The “non primary mapper” is a rarely needed feature of SQLAlchemy; in most cases, the `Query` object can produce any kind of query that’s desired. It’s recommended that a straight `Query` be used in place of a non-primary mapper unless the mapper approach is absolutely needed. Current use cases for the “non primary mapper” are when you want to map the class to a particular select statement or view to which additional query criterion can be added, and for when the particular mapped select statement or view is to be placed in a `relationship()` of a parent mapper.

2.2.9 Multiple “Persistence” Mappers for One Class

The `non_primary` mapper defines alternate mappers for the purposes of loading objects. What if we want the same class to be *persisted* differently, such as to different tables? SQLAlchemy refers to this as the “entity name” pattern, and in Python one can use a recipe which creates anonymous subclasses which are distinctly mapped. See the recipe at [Entity Name](#).

2.2.10 Constructors and Object Initialization

Mapping imposes no restrictions or requirements on the constructor (`__init__`) method for the class. You are free to require any arguments for the function that you wish, assign attributes to the instance that are unknown to the ORM,

and generally do anything else you would normally do when writing a constructor for a Python class.

The SQLAlchemy ORM does not call `__init__` when recreating objects from database rows. The ORM's process is somewhat akin to the Python standard library's `pickle` module, invoking the low level `__new__` method and then quietly restoring attributes directly on the instance rather than calling `__init__`.

If you need to do some setup on database-loaded instances before they're ready to use, you can use the `@reconstructor` decorator to tag a method as the ORM counterpart to `__init__`. SQLAlchemy will call this method with no arguments every time it loads or reconstructs one of your instances. This is useful for recreating transient properties that are normally assigned in your `__init__`:

```
from sqlalchemy import orm

class MyMappedClass(object):
    def __init__(self, data):
        self.data = data
        # we need stuff on all instances, but not in the database.
        self.stuff = []

    @orm.reconstructor
    def init_on_load(self):
        self.stuff = []
```

When `obj = MyMappedClass()` is executed, Python calls the `__init__` method as normal and the `data` argument is required. When instances are loaded during a `Query` operation as in `query(MyMappedClass).one()`, `init_on_load` is called instead.

Any method may be tagged as the `reconstructor()`, even the `__init__` method. SQLAlchemy will call the reconstructor method with no arguments. Scalar (non-collection) database-mapped attributes of the instance will be available for use within the function. Eagerly-loaded collections are generally not yet available and will usually only contain the first element. ORM state changes made to objects at this stage will not be recorded for the next `flush()` operation, so the activity within a reconstructor should be conservative.

While the ORM does not call your `__init__` method, it will modify the class's `__init__` slightly. The method is lightly wrapped to act as a trigger for the ORM, allowing mappers to be compiled automatically and will fire a `init_instance()` event that `MapperExtension` objects may listen for. `MapperExtension` objects can also listen for a `reconstruct_instance` event, analogous to the `reconstructor()` decorator above.

`sqlalchemy.orm.reconstructor` (*fn*)

Decorate a method as the 'reconstructor' hook.

Designates a method as the "reconstructor", an `__init__`-like method that will be called by the ORM after the instance has been loaded from the database or otherwise reconstituted.

The reconstructor will be invoked with no arguments. Scalar (non-collection) database-mapped attributes of the instance will be available for use within the function. Eagerly-loaded collections are generally not yet available and will usually only contain the first element. ORM state changes made to objects at this stage will not be recorded for the next `flush()` operation, so the activity within a reconstructor should be conservative.

2.2.11 Class Mapping API

`sqlalchemy.orm.mapper` (*class_*, *local_table=None*, **args*, ***params*)

Return a new `Mapper` object.

Parameters

- `class_` – The class to be mapped.

- **local_table** – The table to which the class is mapped, or None if this mapper inherits from another mapper using concrete table inheritance.
- **always_refresh** – If True, all query operations for this mapped class will overwrite all data within object instances that already exist within the session, erasing any in-memory changes with whatever information was loaded from the database. Usage of this flag is highly discouraged; as an alternative, see the method `Query.populate_existing()`.
- **allow_null_pks** – This flag is deprecated - this is stated as `allow_partial_pks` which defaults to True.
- **allow_partial_pks** – Defaults to True. Indicates that a composite primary key with some NULL values should be considered as possibly existing within the database. This affects whether a mapper will assign an incoming row to an existing identity, as well as if `Session.merge()` will check the database first for a particular primary key value. A “partial primary key” can occur if one has mapped to an OUTER JOIN, for example.
- **batch** – Indicates that save operations of multiple entities can be batched together for efficiency. setting to False indicates that an instance will be fully saved before saving the next instance, which includes inserting/updating all table rows corresponding to the entity as well as calling all `MapperExtension` methods corresponding to the save operation.
- **column_prefix** – A string which will be prepended to the *key* name of all `Column` objects when creating column-based properties from the given `Table`. Does not affect explicitly specified column-based properties
- **concrete** – If True, indicates this mapper should use concrete table inheritance with its parent mapper.
- **exclude_properties** – A list or set of string column names to be excluded from mapping. As of SQLAlchemy 0.6.4, this collection may also include `Column` objects. Columns named or present in this list will not be automatically mapped. Note that neither this option nor `include_properties` will allow one to circumvent plain Python inheritance - if mapped class B inherits from mapped class A, no combination of includes or excludes will allow B to have fewer properties than its superclass, A.
- **extension** – A `MapperExtension` instance or list of `MapperExtension` instances which will be applied to all operations by this `Mapper`. **Deprecated.** Please see `MapperEvents`.
- **include_properties** – An inclusive list or set of string column names to map. As of SQLAlchemy 0.6.4, this collection may also include `Column` objects in order to disambiguate between same-named columns in a selectable (such as a `join()`). If this list is not None, columns present in the mapped table but not named or present in this list will not be automatically mapped. See also “`exclude_properties`”.
- **inherits** – Another `Mapper` for which this `Mapper` will have an inheritance relationship with.
- **inherit_condition** – For joined table inheritance, a SQL expression (constructed `ClauseElement`) which will define how the two tables are joined; defaults to a natural join between the two tables.
- **inherit_foreign_keys** – When `inherit_condition` is used and the condition contains no `ForeignKey` columns, specify the “foreign” columns of the join condition in this list. else leave as None.
- **non_primary** – Construct a `Mapper` that will define only the selection of instances, not their persistence. Any number of `non_primary` mappers may be created for a particular class.

- **order_by** – A single `Column` or list of `Column` objects for which selection operations should use as the default ordering for entities. Defaults to the OID/ROWID of the table if any, or the first primary key column of the table.
- **passive_updates** – Indicates UPDATE behavior of foreign keys when a primary key changes on a joined-table inheritance or other joined table mapping.

When True, it is assumed that ON UPDATE CASCADE is configured on the foreign key in the database, and that the database will handle propagation of an UPDATE from a source column to dependent rows. Note that with databases which enforce referential integrity (i.e. PostgreSQL, MySQL with InnoDB tables), ON UPDATE CASCADE is required for this operation. The `relationship()` will update the value of the attribute on related items which are locally present in the session during a flush.

When False, it is assumed that the database does not enforce referential integrity and will not be issuing its own CASCADE operation for an update. The `relationship()` will issue the appropriate UPDATE statements to the database in response to the change of a referenced key, and items locally present in the session during a flush will also be refreshed.

This flag should probably be set to False if primary key changes are expected and the database in use doesn't support CASCADE (i.e. SQLite, MySQL MyISAM tables).

Also see the `passive_updates` flag on `relationship()`.

A future SQLAlchemy release will provide a “detect” feature for this flag.

- **polymorphic_on** – Used with mappers in an inheritance relationship, a `Column` which will identify the class/mapper combination to be used with a particular row. Requires the `polymorphic_identity` value to be set for all mappers in the inheritance hierarchy. The column specified by `polymorphic_on` is usually a column that resides directly within the base mapper's mapped table; alternatively, it may be a column that is only present within the `<selectable>` portion of the `with_polymorphic` argument.
- **polymorphic_identity** – A value which will be stored in the Column denoted by `polymorphic_on`, corresponding to the class identity of this mapper.
- **properties** – A dictionary mapping the string names of object attributes to `MapperProperty` instances, which define the persistence behavior of that attribute. Note that the columns in the mapped table are automatically converted into `ColumnProperty` instances based on the `key` property of each `Column` (although they can be overridden using this dictionary).
- **primary_key** – A list of `Column` objects which define the primary key to be used against this mapper's selectable unit. This is normally simply the primary key of the `local_table`, but can be overridden here.
- **version_id_col** – A `Column` which must have an integer type that will be used to keep a running version id of mapped entities in the database. this is used during save operations to ensure that no other thread or process has updated the instance during the lifetime of the entity, else a `StaleDataError` exception is thrown.
- **version_id_generator** – A callable which defines the algorithm used to generate new version ids. Defaults to an integer generator. Can be replaced with one that generates timestamps, uuids, etc. e.g.:

```
import uuid

mapper(Cls, table,
       version_id_col=table.c.version_uuid,
```

```
version_id_generator=lambda version:uuid.uuid4().hex
)
```

The callable receives the current version identifier as its single argument.

- **with_polymorphic** – A tuple in the form (<classes>, <selectable>) indicating the default style of “polymorphic” loading, that is, which tables are queried at once. <classes> is any single or list of mappers and/or classes indicating the inherited classes that should be loaded at once. The special value '*' may be used to indicate all descending classes should be loaded immediately. The second tuple argument <selectable> indicates a selectable that will be used to query for multiple classes. Normally, it is left as None, in which case this mapper will form an outer join from the base mapper’s table to that of all desired sub-mappers. When specified, it provides the selectable to be used for polymorphic loading. When with_polymorphic includes mappers which load from a “concrete” inheriting table, the <selectable> argument is required, since it usually requires more complex UNION queries.

`sqlalchemy.orm.object_mapper(instance)`

Given an object, return the primary Mapper associated with the object instance.

Raises `UnmappedInstanceError` if no mapping is configured.

`sqlalchemy.orm.class_mapper(class_, compile=True)`

Given a class, return the primary Mapper associated with the key.

Raises `UnmappedClassError` if no mapping is configured.

`sqlalchemy.orm.compile_mappers()`

Initialize the inter-mapper relationships of all mappers that have been defined. Deprecated since version 0.7:

`compile_mappers()` is renamed to `configure_mappers()`

`sqlalchemy.orm.configure_mappers()`

Initialize the inter-mapper relationships of all mappers that have been constructed thus far.

This function can be called any number of times, but in most cases is handled internally.

`sqlalchemy.orm.clear_mappers()`

Remove all mappers from all classes.

This function removes all instrumentation from classes and disposes of their associated mappers. Once called, the classes are unmapped and can be later re-mapped with new mappers.

`clear_mappers()` is *not* for normal use, as there is literally no valid usage for it outside of very specific testing scenarios. Normally, mappers are permanent structural components of user-defined classes, and are never discarded independently of their class. If a mapped class itself is garbage collected, its mapper is automatically disposed of as well. As such, `clear_mappers()` is only for usage in test suites that re-use the same classes with different mappings, which is itself an extremely rare use case - the only such use case is in fact SQLAlchemy’s own test suite, and possibly the test suites of other ORM extension libraries which intend to test various combinations of mapper construction upon a fixed set of classes.

`sqlalchemy.orm.util.identity_key(*args, **kwargs)`

Get an identity key.

Valid call signatures:

- `identity_key(class, ident)`
class mapped class (must be a positional argument)
ident primary key, if the key is composite this is a tuple
- `identity_key(instance=instance)`

instance object instance (must be given as a keyword arg)

• **identity_key**(class, row=row)

class mapped class (must be a positional argument)

row result proxy row (must be given as a keyword arg)

```
sqlalchemy.orm.util.polymorphic_union(table_map, typecolname, aliasname='p_union',  
                                         cast_nulls=True)
```

Create a UNION statement used by a polymorphic mapper.

See *Concrete Table Inheritance* for an example of how this is used.

Parameters

- **table_map** – mapping of polymorphic identities to `Table` objects.
- **typecolname** – string name of a “discriminator” column, which will be derived from the query, producing the polymorphic identity for each row. If `None`, no polymorphic discriminator is generated.
- **aliasname** – name of the `alias()` construct generated.
- **cast_nulls** – if `True`, non-existent columns, which are represented as labeled NULLs, will be passed into CAST. This is a legacy behavior that is problematic on some backends such as Oracle - in which case it can be set to `False`.

```
class sqlalchemy.orm.mapper.Mapper(class_, local_table, properties=None, primary_key=None,  
                                   non_primary=False, inherits=None, inherit_condition=None,  
                                   inherit_foreign_keys=None, extension=None, order_by=False,  
                                   always_refresh=False, version_id_col=None, version_id_generator=None,  
                                   polymorphic_on=None, _polymorphic_map=None, polymorphic_identity=None,  
                                   concrete=False, with_polymorphic=None, allow_null_pks=None,  
                                   allow_partial_pks=True, batch=True, column_prefix=None,  
                                   include_properties=None, exclude_properties=None,  
                                   passive_updates=True, eager_defaults=False, _compiled_cache_size=100)
```

Define the correlation of class attributes to database table columns.

Instances of this class should be constructed via the `mapper()` function.

```
__init__(class_, local_table, properties=None, primary_key=None, non_primary=False, inherits=None,  
         inherit_condition=None, inherit_foreign_keys=None, extension=None, order_by=False,  
         always_refresh=False, version_id_col=None, version_id_generator=None, polymorphic_on=None,  
         _polymorphic_map=None, polymorphic_identity=None, concrete=False, with_polymorphic=None,  
         allow_null_pks=None, allow_partial_pks=True, batch=True, column_prefix=None,  
         include_properties=None, exclude_properties=None, passive_updates=True, eager_defaults=False,  
         _compiled_cache_size=100)
```

Construct a new mapper.

Mappers are normally constructed via the `mapper()` function. See for details.

add_properties(dict_of_properties)

Add the given dictionary of properties to this mapper, using `add_property`.

add_property(key, prop)

Add an individual MapperProperty to this mapper.

If the mapper has not been configured yet, just adds the property to the initial properties dictionary sent to the constructor. If this Mapper has already been configured, then the given MapperProperty is configured immediately.

base_mapper

The base-most `Mapper` in an inheritance chain.

In a non-inheriting scenario, this attribute will always be this `Mapper`. In an inheritance scenario, it references the `Mapper` which is parent to all other `Mapper` objects in the inheritance chain.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

c

A synonym for `columns`.

cascade_iterator (*type_, state, halt_on=None*)

Iterate each element and its mapper in an object graph, for all relationships that meet the given cascade rule.

Parameters

- **type** – The name of the cascade rule (i.e. save-update, delete, etc.)
- **state** – The lead InstanceState. child items will be processed per the relationships defined for this object's mapper.

the return value are object instances; this provides a strong reference so that they don't fall out of scope immediately.

class_

The Python class which this `Mapper` maps.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

class_manager

The `ClassManager` which maintains event listeners and class-bound descriptors for this `Mapper`.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

columns

A collection of `Column` or other scalar expression objects maintained by this `Mapper`.

The collection behaves the same as that of the `c` attribute on any `Table` object, except that only those columns included in this mapping are present, and are keyed based on the attribute name defined in the mapping, not necessarily the `key` attribute of the `Column` itself. Additionally, scalar expressions mapped by `column_property()` are also present here.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

common_parent (*other*)

Return true if the given mapper shares a common inherited parent as this mapper.

compile ()

Initialize the inter-mapper relationships of all mappers that `Mapper.compile()` is replaced by `configure_mappers()` have been constructed thus far.

compiled

Deprecated since version 0.7: `Mapper.compiled` is replaced by `Mapper.configured`

concrete

Represent True if this `Mapper` is a concrete inheritance mapper.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

configured

Represent `True` if this `Mapper` has been configured.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

See also `configure_mappers()`.

get_property (*key*, *_compile_mappers=True*)

return a `MapperProperty` associated with the given key.

get_property_by_column (*column*)

Given a `Column` object, return the `MapperProperty` which maps this column.

identity_key_from_instance (*instance*)

Return the identity key for the given instance, based on its primary key attributes.

This value is typically also found on the instance state under the attribute name *key*.

identity_key_from_primary_key (*primary_key*)

Return an identity-map key for use in storing/retrieving an item from an identity map.

primary_key A list of values indicating the identifier.

identity_key_from_row (*row*, *adapter=None*)

Return an identity-map key for use in storing/retrieving an item from the identity map.

row A `sqlalchemy.engine.base.RowProxy` instance or a dictionary corresponding result-set `ColumnElement` instances to their values within a row.

inherits

References the `Mapper` which this `Mapper` inherits from, if any.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

isa (*other*)

Return `True` if the this mapper inherits from the given mapper.

iterate_properties

return an iterator of all `MapperProperty` objects.

local_table

The `Selectable` which this `Mapper` manages.

Typically is an instance of `Table` or `Alias`. May also be `None`.

The “local” table is the selectable that the `Mapper` is directly responsible for managing from an attribute access and flush perspective. For non-inheriting mappers, the local table is the same as the “mapped” table. For joined-table inheritance mappers, `local_table` will be the particular sub-table of the overall “join” which this `Mapper` represents. If this mapper is a single-table inheriting mapper, `local_table` will be `None`.

See also `mapped_table`.

mapped_table

The `Selectable` to which this `Mapper` is mapped.

Typically an instance of `Table`, `Join`, or `Alias`.

The “mapped” table is the selectable that the mapper selects from during queries. For non-inheriting mappers, the mapped table is the same as the “local” table. For joined-table inheritance mappers, `mapped_table` references the full `Join` representing full rows for this particular subclass. For single-table inheritance mappers, `mapped_table` references the base table.

See also `local_table`.

non_primary

Represent `True` if this `Mapper` is a “non-primary” mapper, e.g. a mapper that is used only to select rows but not for persistence management.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

polymorphic_identity

Represent an identifier which is matched against the `polymorphic_on` column during result row loading.

Used only with inheritance, this object can be of any type which is comparable to the type of column represented by `polymorphic_on`.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

polymorphic_iterator()

Iterate through the collection including this mapper and all descendant mappers.

This includes not just the immediately inheriting mappers but all their inheriting mappers as well.

To iterate through an entire hierarchy, use `mapper.base_mapper.polymorphic_iterator()`.

polymorphic_map

A mapping of “polymorphic identity” identifiers mapped to `Mapper` instances, within an inheritance scenario.

The identifiers can be of any type which is comparable to the type of column represented by `polymorphic_on`.

An inheritance chain of mappers will all reference the same polymorphic map object. The object is used to correlate incoming result rows to target mappers.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

polymorphic_on

The `Column` specified as the `polymorphic_on` column for this `Mapper`, within an inheritance scenario.

This attribute may also be of other types besides `Column` in a future SQLAlchemy release.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

primary_key

An iterable containing the collection of `Column` objects which comprise the ‘primary key’ of the mapped table, from the perspective of this `Mapper`.

This list is against the selectable in `mapped_table`. In the case of inheriting mappers, some columns may be managed by a superclass mapper. For example, in the case of a `Join`, the primary key is determined by all of the primary key columns across all tables referenced by the `Join`.

The list is also not necessarily the same as the primary key column collection associated with the underlying tables; the `Mapper` features a `primary_key` argument that can override what the `Mapper` considers as primary key columns.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

primary_key_from_instance(instance)

Return the list of primary key values for the given instance.

primary_mapper()

Return the primary mapper corresponding to this mapper's class key (class).

self_and_descendants

The collection including this mapper and all descendant mappers.

This includes not just the immediately inheriting mappers but all their inheriting mappers as well.

single

Represent `True` if this `Mapper` is a single table inheritance mapper.

`local_table` will be `None` if this flag is set.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

tables

An iterable containing the collection of `Table` objects which this `Mapper` is aware of.

If the mapper is mapped to a `Join`, or an `Alias` representing a `Select`, the individual `Table` objects that comprise the full construct will be represented here.

This is a *read only* attribute determined during mapper construction. Behavior is undefined if directly modified.

2.3 Relationship Configuration

This section describes the `relationship()` function and in depth discussion of its usage. The reference material here continues into the next section, *Collection Configuration and Techniques*, which has additional detail on configuration of collections via `relationship()`.

2.3.1 Basic Relational Patterns

A quick walkthrough of the basic relational patterns. In this section we illustrate the classical mapping using `mapper()` in conjunction with `relationship()`. Then (by popular demand), we illustrate the declarative form using the `declarative` module.

Note that `relationship()` is historically known as `relation()` in older versions of SQLAlchemy.

One To Many

A one to many relationship places a foreign key in the child table referencing the parent. SQLAlchemy creates the relationship as a collection on the parent object containing instances of the child object.

```
parent_table = Table('parent', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True))

child_table = Table('child', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('parent_id', Integer, ForeignKey('parent.id'))
)

class Parent(object):
    pass

class Child(object):
```

```
pass
```

```
mapper(Parent, parent_table, properties={
    'children': relationship(Child)
})
```

```
mapper(Child, child_table)
```

To establish a bi-directional relationship in one-to-many, where the “reverse” side is a many to one, specify the `backref` option:

```
mapper(Parent, parent_table, properties={
    'children': relationship(Child, backref='parent')
})
```

```
mapper(Child, child_table)
```

Child will get a `parent` attribute with many-to-one semantics.

Declarative:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
Base = declarative_base()
```

```
class Parent(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'parent'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    children = relationship("Child", backref="parent")
```

```
class Child(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'child'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    parent_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('parent.id'))
```

Many To One

Many to one places a foreign key in the parent table referencing the child. The mapping setup is identical to one-to-many, however SQLAlchemy creates the relationship as a scalar attribute on the parent object referencing a single instance of the child object.

```
parent_table = Table('parent', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('child_id', Integer, ForeignKey('child.id')))
```

```
child_table = Table('child', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    )
```

```
class Parent(object):
    pass
```

```
class Child(object):
    pass
```

```
mapper(Parent, parent_table, properties={
    'child': relationship(Child)
```

```
}}
```

```
mapper(Child, child_table)
```

Backref behavior is available here as well, where `backref="parents"` will place a one-to-many collection on the `Child` class:

```
mapper(Parent, parent_table, properties={
    'child': relationship(Child, backref="parents")
})
```

Declarative:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
Base = declarative_base()
```

```
class Parent(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'parent'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    child_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('child.id'))
    child = relationship("Child", backref="parents")
```

```
class Child(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'child'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
```

One To One

One To One is essentially a bi-directional relationship with a scalar attribute on both sides. To achieve this, the `uselist=False` flag indicates the placement of a scalar attribute instead of a collection on the “many” side of the relationship. To convert one-to-many into one-to-one:

```
parent_table = Table('parent', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True)
)

child_table = Table('child', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('parent_id', Integer, ForeignKey('parent.id'))
)

mapper(Parent, parent_table, properties={
    'child': relationship(Child, uselist=False, backref='parent')
})

mapper(Child, child_table)
```

Or to turn a one-to-many backref into one-to-one, use the `backref()` function to provide arguments for the reverse side:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import backref

parent_table = Table('parent', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('child_id', Integer, ForeignKey('child.id'))
)
```

```

child_table = Table('child', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True)
)

mapper(Parent, parent_table, properties={
    'child': relationship(Child, backref=backref('parent', uselist=False))
})

mapper(Child, child_table)

```

The second example above as declarative:

```

from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
Base = declarative_base()

class Parent(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'parent'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    child_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('child.id'))
    child = relationship("Child", backref=backref("parent", uselist=False))

class Child(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'child'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)

```

Many To Many

Many to Many adds an association table between two classes. The association table is indicated by the secondary argument to `relationship()`.

```

left_table = Table('left', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True)
)

right_table = Table('right', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True)
)

association_table = Table('association', metadata,
    Column('left_id', Integer, ForeignKey('left.id')),
    Column('right_id', Integer, ForeignKey('right.id'))
)

mapper(Parent, left_table, properties={
    'children': relationship(Child, secondary=association_table)
})

mapper(Child, right_table)

```

For a bi-directional relationship, both sides of the relationship contain a collection. The `backref` keyword will automatically use the same secondary argument for the reverse relationship:

```

mapper(Parent, left_table, properties={
    'children': relationship(Child, secondary=association_table,
                            backref='parents')
})

```

With declarative, we still use the `Table` for the `secondary` argument. A class is not mapped to this table, so it remains in its plain schematic form:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
Base = declarative_base()

association_table = Table('association', Base.metadata,
    Column('left_id', Integer, ForeignKey('left.id')),
    Column('right_id', Integer, ForeignKey('right.id'))
)

class Parent(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'left'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    children = relationship("Child",
        secondary=association_table,
        backref="parents")

class Child(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'right'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
```

Association Object

The association object pattern is a variant on many-to-many: it specifically is used when your association table contains additional columns beyond those which are foreign keys to the left and right tables. Instead of using the `secondary` argument, you map a new class directly to the association table. The left side of the relationship references the association object via one-to-many, and the association class references the right side via many-to-one.

```
left_table = Table('left', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True)
)

right_table = Table('right', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True)
)

association_table = Table('association', metadata,
    Column('left_id', Integer, ForeignKey('left.id'), primary_key=True),
    Column('right_id', Integer, ForeignKey('right.id'), primary_key=True),
    Column('data', String(50))
)

mapper(Parent, left_table, properties={
    'children':relationship(Association)
})

mapper(Association, association_table, properties={
    'child':relationship(Child)
})

mapper(Child, right_table)
```

The bi-directional version adds backrefs to both relationships:

```
mapper(Parent, left_table, properties={
    'children':relationship(Association, backref="parent")
})
```

```
mapper(Association, association_table, properties={
    'child':relationship(Child, backref="parent_assocs")
})
```

```
mapper(Child, right_table)
```

Declarative:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
Base = declarative_base()

class Association(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'association'
    left_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('left.id'), primary_key=True)
    right_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('right.id'), primary_key=True)
    child = relationship("Child", backref="parent_assocs")

class Parent(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'left'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    children = relationship(Association, backref="parent")

class Child(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'right'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
```

Working with the association pattern in its direct form requires that child objects are associated with an association instance before being appended to the parent; similarly, access from parent to child goes through the association object:

```
# create parent, append a child via association
p = Parent()
a = Association()
a.child = Child()
p.children.append(a)

# iterate through child objects via association, including association
# attributes
for assoc in p.children:
    print assoc.data
    print assoc.child
```

To enhance the association object pattern such that direct access to the Association object is optional, SQLAlchemy provides the [Association Proxy](#) extension. This extension allows the configuration of attributes which will access two “hops” with a single access, one “hop” to the associated object, and a second to a target attribute.

Note: When using the association object pattern, it is advisable that the association-mapped table not be used as the secondary argument on a [relationship\(\)](#) elsewhere, unless that [relationship\(\)](#) contains the option `viewonly=True`. SQLAlchemy otherwise may attempt to emit redundant INSERT and DELETE statements on the same table, if similar state is detected on the related attribute as well as the associated object.

2.3.2 Adjacency List Relationships

The **adjacency list** pattern is a common relational pattern whereby a table contains a foreign key reference to itself. This is the most common and simple way to represent hierarchical data in flat tables. The other way is the “nested sets” model, sometimes called “modified preorder”. Despite what many online articles say about modified preorder, the adjacency list model is probably the most appropriate pattern for the large majority of hierarchical storage needs, for reasons of concurrency, reduced complexity, and that modified preorder has little advantage over an application which can fully load subtrees into the application space.

SQLAlchemy commonly refers to an adjacency list relationship as a **self-referential mapper**. In this example, we’ll work with a single table called `nodes` to represent a tree structure:

```
nodes = Table('nodes', metadata,
              Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
              Column('parent_id', Integer, ForeignKey('nodes.id')),
              Column('data', String(50)),
              )
```

A graph such as the following:

```
root --+---> child1
      +---> child2 --+---> subchild1
      |               +--> subchild2
      +---> child3
```

Would be represented with data such as:

id	parent_id	data
1	NULL	root
2	1	child1
3	1	child2
4	3	subchild1
5	3	subchild2
6	1	child3

SQLAlchemy’s `mapper()` configuration for a self-referential one-to-many relationship is exactly like a “normal” one-to-many relationship. When SQLAlchemy encounters the foreign key relationship from `nodes` to `nodes`, it assumes one-to-many unless told otherwise:

```
# entity class
class Node(object):
    pass

mapper(Node, nodes, properties={
    'children': relationship(Node)
})
```

To create a many-to-one relationship from child to parent, an extra indicator of the “remote side” is added, which contains the `Column` object or objects indicating the remote side of the relationship:

```
mapper(Node, nodes, properties={
    'parent': relationship(Node, remote_side=[nodes.c.id])
})
```

And the bi-directional version combines both:

```
mapper(Node, nodes, properties={
    'children': relationship(Node,
                             backref=backref('parent', remote_side=[nodes.c.id])
    )
})
```



```
    )
})
```

For comparison, the declarative version typically uses the inline `id` `Column` attribute to declare `remote_side` (note the list form is optional when the collection is only one column):

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
Base = declarative_base()

class Node(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'nodes'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    parent_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('nodes.id'))
    data = Column(String(50))
    children = relationship("Node",
                           backref=backref('parent', remote_side=id))
```

There are several examples included with SQLAlchemy illustrating self-referential strategies; these include *Adjacency List* and *XML Persistence*.

Self-Referential Query Strategies

Querying self-referential structures is done in the same way as any other query in SQLAlchemy, such as below, we query for any node whose data attribute stores the value `child2`:

```
# get all nodes named 'child2'
session.query(Node).filter(Node.data=='child2')
```

On the subject of joins, i.e. those described in *datamapping_joins*, self-referential structures require the usage of aliases so that the same table can be referenced multiple times within the FROM clause of the query. Aliasing can be done either manually using the nodes `Table` object as a source of aliases:

```
# get all nodes named 'subchild1' with a parent named 'child2'
nodealias = nodes.alias()
session.query(Node).filter(Node.data=='subchild1').\
    filter(and_(Node.parent_id==nodealias.c.id, nodealias.c.data=='child2')).all()
SELECT nodes.id AS nodes_id, nodes.parent_id AS nodes_parent_id, nodes.data AS nodes_data
FROM nodes, nodes AS nodes_1
WHERE nodes.data = ? AND nodes.parent_id = nodes_1.id AND nodes_1.data = ?
['subchild1', 'child2']
```

or automatically, using `join()` with `aliased=True`:

```
# get all nodes named 'subchild1' with a parent named 'child2'
session.query(Node).filter(Node.data=='subchild1').\
    join('parent', aliased=True).filter(Node.data=='child2').all()
SELECT nodes.id AS nodes_id, nodes.parent_id AS nodes_parent_id, nodes.data AS nodes_data
FROM nodes JOIN nodes AS nodes_1 ON nodes_1.id = nodes.parent_id
WHERE nodes.data = ? AND nodes_1.data = ?
['subchild1', 'child2']
```

To add criterion to multiple points along a longer join, use `from_joinpoint=True`:

```
# get all nodes named 'subchild1' with a parent named 'child2' and a grandparent 'root'
session.query(Node).filter(Node.data=='subchild1').\
    join('parent', aliased=True).filter(Node.data=='child2').\
    join('parent', aliased=True, from_joinpoint=True).filter(Node.data=='root').all()
```

```
SELECT nodes.id AS nodes_id, nodes.parent_id AS nodes_parent_id, nodes.data AS nodes_data
FROM nodes JOIN nodes AS nodes_1 ON nodes_1.id = nodes.parent_id JOIN nodes AS nodes_2 ON nodes_1.parent_id = nodes_2.id
WHERE nodes.data = ? AND nodes_1.data = ? AND nodes_2.data = ?
['subchild1', 'child2', 'root']
```

Configuring Eager Loading

Eager loading of relationships occurs using joins or outerjoins from parent to child table during a normal query operation, such that the parent and its child collection can be populated from a single SQL statement, or a second statement for all collections at once. SQLAlchemy's joined and subquery eager loading uses aliased tables in all cases when joining to related items, so it is compatible with self-referential joining. However, to use eager loading with a self-referential relationship, SQLAlchemy needs to be told how many levels deep it should join; otherwise the eager load will not take place. This depth setting is configured via `join_depth`:

```
mapper(Node, nodes, properties={
    'children': relationship(Node, lazy='joined', join_depth=2)
})

session.query(Node).all()
SELECT nodes_1.id AS nodes_1_id, nodes_1.parent_id AS nodes_1_parent_id, nodes_1.data AS nodes_1_data
FROM nodes LEFT OUTER JOIN nodes AS nodes_2 ON nodes.id = nodes_2.parent_id LEFT OUTER JOIN nodes AS nodes_3 ON nodes_2.id = nodes_3.parent_id
[]
```

2.3.3 Linking relationships with Backref

The `backref` keyword argument was first introduced in *Object Relational Tutorial*, and has been mentioned throughout many of the examples here. What does it actually do? Let's start with the canonical User and Address scenario:

```
from sqlalchemy import Integer, ForeignKey, String, Column
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
from sqlalchemy.orm import relationship

Base = declarative_base()

class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'user'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String)

    addresses = relationship("Address", backref="user")

class Address(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'address'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    email = Column(String)
    user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('user.id'))
```

The above configuration establishes a collection of Address objects on User called `User.addresses`. It also establishes a `.user` attribute on Address which will refer to the parent User object.

In fact, the `backref` keyword is only a common shortcut for placing a second relationship onto the Address mapping, including the establishment of an event listener on both sides which will mirror attribute operations in both directions. The above configuration is equivalent to:

```

from sqlalchemy import Integer, ForeignKey, String, Column
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
from sqlalchemy.orm import relationship

Base = declarative_base()

class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'user'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String)

    addresses = relationship("Address", back_populates="user")

class Address(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'address'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    email = Column(String)
    user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('user.id'))

    user = relationship("User", back_populates="addresses")

```

Above, we add a `.user` relationship to `Address` explicitly. On both relationships, the `back_populates` directive tells each relationship about the other one, indicating that they should establish “bi-directional” behavior between each other. The primary effect of this configuration is that the relationship adds event handlers to both attributes which have the behavior of “when an append or set event occurs here, set ourselves onto the incoming attribute using this particular attribute name”. The behavior is illustrated as follows. Start with a `User` and an `Address` instance. The `.addresses` collection is empty, and the `.user` attribute is `None`:

```

>>> u1 = User()
>>> a1 = Address()
>>> u1.addresses
[]
>>> print a1.user
None

```

However, once the `Address` is appended to the `u1.addresses` collection, both the collection and the scalar attribute have been populated:

```

>>> u1.addresses.append(a1)
>>> u1.addresses
[<__main__.Address object at 0x12a6ed0>]
>>> a1.user
<__main__.User object at 0x12a6590>

```

This behavior of course works in reverse for removal operations as well, as well as for equivalent operations on both sides. Such as when `.user` is set again to `None`, the `Address` object is removed from the reverse collection:

```

>>> a1.user = None
>>> u1.addresses
[]

```

The manipulation of the `.addresses` collection and the `.user` attribute occurs entirely in Python without any interaction with the SQL database. Without this behavior, the proper state would be apparent on both sides once the data has been flushed to the database, and later reloaded after a commit or expiration operation occurs. The `backref/back_populates` behavior has the advantage that common bidirectional operations can reflect the correct state without requiring a database round trip.

Remember, when the `backref` keyword is used on a single relationship, it's exactly the same as if the above two relationships were created individually using `back_populates` on each.

Backref Arguments

We've established that the `backref` keyword is merely a shortcut for building two individual `relationship()` constructs that refer to each other. Part of the behavior of this shortcut is that certain configurational arguments applied to the `relationship()` will also be applied to the other direction - namely those arguments that describe the relationship at a schema level, and are unlikely to be different in the reverse direction. The usual case here is a many-to-many `relationship()` that has a `secondary` argument, or a one-to-many or many-to-one which has a `primaryjoin` argument (the `primaryjoin` argument is discussed in *Specifying Alternate Join Conditions to relationship()*). Such as if we limited the list of `Address` objects to those which start with "tony":

```
from sqlalchemy import Integer, ForeignKey, String, Column
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
from sqlalchemy.orm import relationship

Base = declarative_base()

class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'user'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String)

    addresses = relationship("Address",
                             primaryjoin="and_(User.id==Address.user_id, "
                             "Address.email.startswith('tony'))",
                             backref="user")

class Address(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'address'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    email = Column(String)
    user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('user.id'))
```

We can observe, by inspecting the resulting property, that both sides of the relationship have this join condition applied:

```
>>> print User.addresses.property.primaryjoin
"user".id = address.user_id AND address.email LIKE :email_1 || '%%'
>>>
>>> print Address.user.property.primaryjoin
"user".id = address.user_id AND address.email LIKE :email_1 || '%%'
>>>
```

This reuse of arguments should pretty much do the “right thing” - it uses only arguments that are applicable, and in the case of a many-to-many relationship, will reverse the usage of `primaryjoin` and `secondaryjoin` to correspond to the other direction (see the example in *Self-Referential Many-to-Many Relationship* for this).

It's very often the case however that we'd like to specify arguments that are specific to just the side where we happened to place the “backref”. This includes `relationship()` arguments like `lazy`, `remote_side`, `cascade` and `cascade_backrefs`. For this case we use the `backref()` function in place of a string:

```
# <other imports>
from sqlalchemy.orm import backref

class User(Base):
```

```

__tablename__ = 'user'
id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
name = Column(String)

addresses = relationship("Address",
                        backref=backref("user", lazy="joined"))

```

Where above, we placed a `lazy="joined"` directive only on the `Address.user` side, indicating that when a query against `Address` is made, a join to the `User` entity should be made automatically which will populate the `.user` attribute of each returned `Address`. The `backref()` function formatted the arguments we gave it into a form that is interpreted by the receiving `relationship()` as additional arguments to be applied to the new relationship it creates.

One Way Backrefs

An unusual case is that of the “one way backref”. This is where the “back-populating” behavior of the backref is only desirable in one direction. An example of this is a collection which contains a filtering `primaryjoin` condition. We’d like to append items to this collection as needed, and have them populate the “parent” object on the incoming object. However, we’d also like to have items that are not part of the collection, but still have the same “parent” association - these items should never be in the collection.

Taking our previous example, where we established a `primaryjoin` that limited the collection only to `Address` objects whose email address started with the word `tony`, the usual backref behavior is that all items populate in both directions. We wouldn’t want this behavior for a case like the following:

```

>>> u1 = User()
>>> a1 = Address(email='mary')
>>> a1.user = u1
>>> u1.addresses
[<__main__.Address object at 0x1411910>]

```

Above, the `Address` object that doesn’t match the criterion of “starts with ‘tony’” is present in the `addresses` collection of `u1`. After these objects are flushed, the transaction committed and their attributes expired for a re-load, the `addresses` collection will hit the database on next access and no longer have this `Address` object present, due to the filtering condition. But we can do away with this unwanted side of the “backref” behavior on the Python side by using two separate `relationship()` constructs, placing `back_populates` only on one side:

```

from sqlalchemy import Integer, ForeignKey, String, Column
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
from sqlalchemy.orm import relationship

Base = declarative_base()

class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'user'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String)
    addresses = relationship("Address",
                            primaryjoin="and_(User.id==Address.user_id, "
                                           "Address.email.startswith('tony'))",
                            back_populates="user")

class Address(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'address'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    email = Column(String)

```

```
user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('user.id'))
user = relationship("User")
```

With the above scenario, appending an Address object to the `.addresses` collection of a User will always establish the `.user` attribute on that Address:

```
>>> u1 = User()
>>> a1 = Address(email='tony')
>>> u1.addresses.append(a1)
>>> a1.user
<__main__.User object at 0x1411850>
```

However, applying a User to the `.user` attribute of an Address, will not append the Address object to the collection:

```
>>> a2 = Address(email='mary')
>>> a2.user = u1
>>> a2 in u1.addresses
False
```

Of course, we've disabled some of the usefulness of backref here, in that when we do append an Address that corresponds to the criteria of `email.startswith('tony')`, it won't show up in the `User.addresses` collection until the session is flushed, and the attributes reloaded after a commit or expire operation. While we could consider an attribute event that checks this criterion in Python, this starts to cross the line of duplicating too much SQL behavior in Python. The backref behavior itself is only a slight transgression of this philosophy - SQLAlchemy tries to keep these to a minimum overall.

2.3.4 Specifying Alternate Join Conditions to `relationship()`

The `relationship()` function uses the foreign key relationship between the parent and child tables to formulate the **primary join condition** between parent and child; in the case of a many-to-many relationship it also formulates the **secondary join condition**:

one to many/many to one:

```
parent_table --> parent_table.c.id == child_table.c.parent_id --> child_table
                    primaryjoin
```

many to many:

```
parent_table --> parent_table.c.id == secondary_table.c.parent_id -->
                    primaryjoin
```

```
                    secondary_table.c.child_id == child_table.c.id --> child_table
                    secondaryjoin
```

If you are working with a `Table` which has no `ForeignKey` metadata established (which can be the case when using reflected tables with MySQL), or if the join condition cannot be expressed by a simple foreign key relationship, use the `primaryjoin`, and for many-to-many relationships `secondaryjoin`, directives to create the appropriate relationship.

In this example, using the `User` class as well as an `Address` class which stores a street address, we create a relationship `boston_addresses` which will only load those `Address` objects which specify a city of "Boston":

```
from sqlalchemy import Integer, ForeignKey, String, Column
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
```

```

from sqlalchemy.orm import relationship

Base = declarative_base()

class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'user'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String)
    addresses = relationship("Address",
                             primaryjoin="and_(User.id==Address.user_id, "
                             "Address.city=='Boston' ")

class Address(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'address'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('user.id'))

    street = Column(String)
    city = Column(String)
    state = Column(String)
    zip = Column(String)

```

Note above we specified the `primaryjoin` argument as a string - this feature is available only when the mapping is constructed using the Declarative extension, and allows us to specify a full SQL expression between two entities before those entities have been fully constructed. When all mappings have been defined, an automatic “mapper configuration” step interprets these string arguments when first needed.

Within this string SQL expression, we also made usage of the `and_()` conjunction construct to establish two distinct predicates for the join condition - joining both the `User.id` and `Address.user_id` columns to each other, as well as limiting rows in `Address` to just `city='Boston'`. When using Declarative, rudimentary SQL functions like `and_()` are automatically available in the evaluated namespace of a string `relationship()` argument.

When using classical mappings, we have the advantage of the `Table` objects already being present when the mapping is defined, so that the SQL expression can be created immediately:

```

from sqlalchemy.orm import relationship, mapper

class User(object):
    pass
class Address(object):
    pass

mapper(Address, addresses_table)
mapper(User, users_table, properties={
    'boston_addresses': relationship(Address, primaryjoin=
        and_(users_table.c.id==addresses_table.c.user_id,
              addresses_table.c.city=='Boston'))
})

```

Note that the custom criteria we use in a `primaryjoin` is generally only significant when SQLAlchemy is rendering SQL in order to load or represent this relationship. That is, it’s used in the SQL statement that’s emitted in order to perform a per-attribute lazy load, or when a join is constructed at query time, such as via `Query.join()`, or via the eager “joined” or “subquery” styles of loading. When in-memory objects are being manipulated, we can place any `Address` object we’d like into the `boston_addresses` collection, regardless of what the value of the `.city` attribute is. The objects will remain present in the collection until the attribute is expired and re-loaded from the database where the criterion is applied. When a flush occurs, the objects inside of `boston_addresses`

will be flushed unconditionally, assigning value of the primary key `user.id` column onto the foreign-key-holding `address.user_id` column for each row. The `city` criteria has no effect here, as the flush process only cares about synchronizing primary key values into referencing foreign key values.

Self-Referential Many-to-Many Relationship

Many to many relationships can be customized by one or both of `primaryjoin` and `secondaryjoin`. A common situation for custom primary and secondary joins is when establishing a many-to-many relationship from a class to itself, as shown below:

```
from sqlalchemy import Integer, ForeignKey, String, Column, Table
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
from sqlalchemy.orm import relationship

Base = declarative_base()

node_to_node = Table("node_to_node", Base.metadata,
    Column("left_node_id", Integer, ForeignKey("node.id"), primary_key=True),
    Column("right_node_id", Integer, ForeignKey("node.id"), primary_key=True)
)

class Node(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'node'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    label = Column(String)
    right_nodes = relationship("Node",
        secondary=node_to_node,
        primaryjoin=id==node_to_node.c.left_node_id,
        secondaryjoin=id==node_to_node.c.right_node_id,
        backref="left_nodes"
    )
```

Where above, SQLAlchemy can't know automatically which columns should connect to which for the `right_nodes` and `left_nodes` relationships. The `primaryjoin` and `secondaryjoin` arguments establish how we'd like to join to the association table. In the Declarative form above, as we are declaring these conditions within the Python block that corresponds to the `Node` class, the `id` variable is available directly as the `Column` object we wish to join with.

A classical mapping situation here is similar, where `node_to_node` can be joined to `node.c.id`:

```
from sqlalchemy import Integer, ForeignKey, String, Column, Table, MetaData
from sqlalchemy.orm import relationship, mapper

metadata = MetaData()

node_to_node = Table("node_to_node", metadata,
    Column("left_node_id", Integer, ForeignKey("node.id"), primary_key=True),
    Column("right_node_id", Integer, ForeignKey("node.id"), primary_key=True)
)

node = Table("node", metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('label', String)
)

class Node(object):
```


pass

```
mapper(Node, node, properties={
    'right_nodes': relationship(Node,
                                secondary=node_to_node,
                                primaryjoin=node.c.id==node_to_node.c.left_node_id,
                                secondaryjoin=node.c.id==node_to_node.c.right_node_id,
                                backref="left_nodes"
                                )))
```

Note that in both examples, the `backref` keyword specifies a `left_nodes` backref - when `relationship()` creates the second relationship in the reverse direction, it's smart enough to reverse the `primaryjoin` and `secondaryjoin` arguments.

Specifying Foreign Keys

When using `primaryjoin` and `secondaryjoin`, SQLAlchemy also needs to be aware of which columns in the relationship reference the other. In most cases, a `Table` construct will have `ForeignKey` constructs which take care of this; however, in the case of reflected tables on a database that does not report FKs (like MySQL ISAM) or when using join conditions on columns that don't have foreign keys, the `relationship()` needs to be told specifically which columns are "foreign" using the `foreign_keys` collection:

```
mapper(Address, addresses_table)
mapper(User, users_table, properties={
    'addresses': relationship(Address, primaryjoin=
        users_table.c.user_id==addresses_table.c.user_id,
        foreign_keys=[addresses_table.c.user_id])
})
```

Building Query-Enabled Properties

Very ambitious custom join conditions may fail to be directly persistable, and in some cases may not even load correctly. To remove the persistence part of the equation, use the flag `viewonly=True` on the `relationship()`, which establishes it as a read-only attribute (data written to the collection will be ignored on `flush()`). However, in extreme cases, consider using a regular Python property in conjunction with `Query` as follows:

```
class User(object):
    def _get_addresses(self):
        return object_session(self).query(Address).with_parent(self).filter(...).all()
    addresses = property(_get_addresses)
```

Multiple Relationships against the Same Parent/Child

There's no restriction on how many times you can relate from parent to child. SQLAlchemy can usually figure out what you want, particularly if the join conditions are straightforward. Below we add a `newyork_addresses` attribute to complement the `boston_addresses` attribute:

```
mapper(User, users_table, properties={
    'boston_addresses': relationship(Address, primaryjoin=
        and_(users_table.c.user_id==addresses_table.c.user_id,
              addresses_table.c.city=='Boston')),
    'newyork_addresses': relationship(Address, primaryjoin=
        and_(users_table.c.user_id==addresses_table.c.user_id,
```

```
addresses_table.c.city=='New York'))),
})
```

2.3.5 Rows that point to themselves / Mutually Dependent Rows

This is a very specific case where `relationship()` must perform an INSERT and a second UPDATE in order to properly populate a row (and vice versa an UPDATE and DELETE in order to delete without violating foreign key constraints). The two use cases are:

- A table contains a foreign key to itself, and a single row will have a foreign key value pointing to its own primary key.
- Two tables each contain a foreign key referencing the other table, with a row in each table referencing the other.

For example:

```

      user
-----
user_id  name  related_user_id
    1      'ed'             1
```

Or:

```

      widget                                entry
-----
widget_id  name  favorite_entry_id  entry_id  name  widget_id
    1      'somewidget'             5         5  'someentry'    1
```

In the first case, a row points to itself. Technically, a database that uses sequences such as PostgreSQL or Oracle can INSERT the row at once using a previously generated value, but databases which rely upon autoincrement-style primary key identifiers cannot. The `relationship()` always assumes a “parent/child” model of row population during flush, so unless you are populating the primary key/foreign key columns directly, `relationship()` needs to use two statements.

In the second case, the “widget” row must be inserted before any referring “entry” rows, but then the “favorite_entry_id” column of that “widget” row cannot be set until the “entry” rows have been generated. In this case, it’s typically impossible to insert the “widget” and “entry” rows using just two INSERT statements; an UPDATE must be performed in order to keep foreign key constraints fulfilled. The exception is if the foreign keys are configured as “deferred until commit” (a feature some databases support) and if the identifiers were populated manually (again essentially bypassing `relationship()`).

To enable the UPDATE after INSERT / UPDATE before DELETE behavior on `relationship()`, use the `post_update` flag on *one* of the relationships, preferably the many-to-one side:

```
mapper(Widget, widget, properties={
    'entries':relationship(Entry, primaryjoin=widget.c.widget_id==entry.c.widget_id),
    'favorite_entry':relationship(Entry, primaryjoin=widget.c.favorite_entry_id==entry.c.e
})
```

When a structure using the above mapping is flushed, the “widget” row will be INSERTed minus the “favorite_entry_id” value, then all the “entry” rows will be INSERTed referencing the parent “widget” row, and then an UPDATE statement will populate the “favorite_entry_id” column of the “widget” table (it’s one row at a time for the time being).

2.3.6 Mutable Primary Keys / Update Cascades

When the primary key of an entity changes, related items which reference the primary key must also be updated as well. For databases which enforce referential integrity, it’s required to use the database’s ON UPDATE CASCADE

functionality in order to propagate primary key changes to referenced foreign keys - the values cannot be out of sync for any moment.

For databases that don't support this, such as SQLite and MySQL without their referential integrity options turned on, the `passive_updates` flag can be set to `False`, most preferably on a one-to-many or many-to-many `relationship()`, which instructs SQLAlchemy to issue UPDATE statements individually for objects referenced in the collection, loading them into memory if not already locally present. The `passive_updates` flag can also be `False` in conjunction with ON UPDATE CASCADE functionality, although in that case the unit of work will be issuing extra SELECT and UPDATE statements unnecessarily.

A typical mutable primary key setup might look like:

```
users = Table('users', metadata,
              Column('username', String(50), primary_key=True),
              Column('fullname', String(100)))

addresses = Table('addresses', metadata,
                  Column('email', String(50), primary_key=True),
                  Column('username', String(50), ForeignKey('users.username', onupdate="cascade"))))

class User(object):
    pass
class Address(object):
    pass

# passive_updates=False *only* needed if the database
# does not implement ON UPDATE CASCADE

mapper(User, users, properties={
    'addresses': relationship(Address, passive_updates=False)
})
mapper(Address, addresses)
```

`passive_updates` is set to `True` by default, indicating that ON UPDATE CASCADE is expected to be in place in the usual case for foreign keys that expect to have a mutating parent key.

`passive_updates=False` may be configured on any direction of relationship, i.e. one-to-many, many-to-one, and many-to-many, although it is much more effective when placed just on the one-to-many or many-to-many side. Configuring the `passive_updates=False` only on the many-to-one side will have only a partial effect, as the unit of work searches only through the current identity map for objects that may be referencing the one with a mutating primary key, not throughout the database.

2.3.7 Relationships API

`sqlalchemy.orm.relationship` (*argument*, *secondary=None*, ***kwargs*)

Provide a relationship of a primary Mapper to a secondary Mapper.

Note: `relationship()` is historically known as `relation()` prior to version 0.6.

This corresponds to a parent-child or associative table relationship. The constructed class is an instance of `RelationshipProperty`.

A typical `relationship()`:

```
mapper(Parent, properties={
    'children': relationship(Children)
})
```

Parameters

- **argument** – a class or `Mapper` instance, representing the target of the relationship.
- **secondary** – for a many-to-many relationship, specifies the intermediary table. The *secondary* keyword argument should generally only be used for a table that is not otherwise expressed in any class mapping. In particular, using the Association Object Pattern is generally mutually exclusive with the use of the *secondary* keyword argument.
- **active_history=False** – When `True`, indicates that the “previous” value for a many-to-one reference should be loaded when replaced, if not already loaded. Normally, history tracking logic for simple many-to-ones only needs to be aware of the “new” value in order to perform a flush. This flag is available for applications that make use of `attributes.get_history()` which also need to know the “previous” value of the attribute. (New in 0.6.6)
- **backref** – indicates the string name of a property to be placed on the related mapper’s class that will handle this relationship in the other direction. The other property will be created automatically when the mappers are configured. Can also be passed as a `backref()` object to control the configuration of the new relationship.
- **back_populates** – Takes a string name and has the same meaning as `backref`, except the complementing property is **not** created automatically, and instead must be configured explicitly on the other mapper. The complementing property should also indicate `back_populates` to this relationship to ensure proper functioning.
- **cascade** – a comma-separated list of cascade rules which determines how Session operations should be “cascaded” from parent to child. This defaults to `False`, which means the default cascade should be used. The default value is `"save-update, merge"`.

Available cascades are:

- `save-update` - cascade the `Session.add()` operation. This cascade applies both to future and past calls to `add()`, meaning new items added to a collection or scalar relationship get placed into the same session as that of the parent, and also applies to items which have been removed from this relationship but are still part of unflushed history.
- `merge` - cascade the `merge()` operation
- `expunge` - cascade the `Session.expunge()` operation
- `delete` - cascade the `Session.delete()` operation
- `delete-orphan` - if an item of the child’s type with no parent is detected, mark it for deletion. Note that this option prevents a pending item of the child’s class from being persisted without a parent present.
- `refresh-expire` - cascade the `Session.expire()` and `refresh()` operations
- `all` - shorthand for “save-update,merge,refresh-expire,expunge,delete”
- **cascade_backrefs=True** – a boolean value indicating if the `save-update` cascade should operate along an assignment event intercepted by a `backref`. When set to `False`, the attribute managed by this relationship will not cascade an incoming transient object into the session of a persistent parent, if the event is received via `backref`.

That is:

```
mapper(A, a_table, properties={
    'bs':relationship(B, backref="a", cascade_backrefs=False)
})
```

If an `A()` is present in the session, assigning it to the “a” attribute on a transient `B()` will not place the `B()` into the session. To set the flag in the other direction, i.e. so that `A().bs.append(B())` won’t add a transient `A()` into the session for a persistent `B()`:

```
mapper(A, a_table, properties={
    'bs':relationship(B,
        backref=backref("a", cascade_backrefs=False)
    )
})
```

`cascade_backrefs` is new in 0.6.5.

- **collection_class** – a class or callable that returns a new list-holding object. will be used in place of a plain list for storing elements. Behavior of this attribute is described in detail at [Customizing Collection Access](#).
- **comparator_factory** – a class which extends `RelationshipProperty.Comparator` which provides custom SQL clause generation for comparison operations.
- **doc** – docstring which will be applied to the resulting descriptor.
- **extension** – an `AttributeExtension` instance, or list of extensions, which will be prepended to the list of attribute listeners for the resulting descriptor placed on the class. **Deprecated.** Please see `AttributeEvents`.
- **foreign_keys** – a list of columns which are to be used as “foreign key” columns. Normally, `relationship()` uses the `ForeignKey` and `ForeignKeyConstraint` objects present within the mapped or secondary `Table` to determine the “foreign” side of the join condition. This is used to construct SQL clauses in order to load objects, as well as to “synchronize” values from primary key columns to referencing foreign key columns. The `foreign_keys` parameter overrides the notion of what’s “foreign” in the table metadata, allowing the specification of a list of `Column` objects that should be considered part of the foreign key.

There are only two use cases for `foreign_keys` - one, when it is not convenient for `Table` metadata to contain its own foreign key metadata (which should be almost never, unless reflecting a large amount of tables from a MySQL MyISAM schema, or a schema that doesn’t actually have foreign keys on it). The other is for extremely rare and exotic composite foreign key setups where some columns should artificially not be considered as foreign.

- **innerjoin=False** – when `True`, joined eager loads will use an inner join to join against related tables instead of an outer join. The purpose of this option is strictly one of performance, as inner joins generally perform better than outer joins. This flag can be set to `True` when the relationship references an object via many-to-one using local foreign keys that are not nullable, or when the reference is one-to-one or a collection that is guaranteed to have one or at least one entry.
- **join_depth** – when non-`None`, an integer value indicating how many levels deep “eager” loaders should join on a self-referring or cyclical relationship. The number counts how many times the same Mapper shall be present in the loading condition along a particular join branch. When left at its default of `None`, eager loaders will stop chaining when they encounter a the same target mapper which is already higher up in the chain. This option applies both to joined- and subquery- eager loaders.
- **lazy='select'** – specifies how the related items should be loaded. Default value is `select`. Values include:

- `select` - items should be loaded lazily when the property is first accessed, using a separate SELECT statement, or identity map fetch for simple many-to-one references.
- `immediate` - items should be loaded as the parents are loaded, using a separate SELECT statement, or identity map fetch for simple many-to-one references. (new as of 0.6.5)
- `joined` - items should be loaded “eagerly” in the same query as that of the parent, using a JOIN or LEFT OUTER JOIN. Whether the join is “outer” or not is determined by the `innerjoin` parameter.
- `subquery` - items should be loaded “eagerly” within the same query as that of the parent, using a second SQL statement which issues a JOIN to a subquery of the original statement.
- `noload` - no loading should occur at any time. This is to support “write-only” attributes, or attributes which are populated in some manner specific to the application.
- `dynamic` - the attribute will return a pre-configured `Query` object for all read operations, onto which further filtering operations can be applied before iterating the results. The dynamic collection supports a limited set of mutation operations, allowing `append()` and `remove()`. Changes to the collection will not be visible until flushed to the database, where it is then refetched upon iteration.
- `True` - a synonym for ‘select’
- `False` - a synonym for ‘joined’
- `None` - a synonym for ‘noload’

Detailed discussion of loader strategies is at [Relationship Loading Techniques](#).

- **load_on_pending=False** – Indicates loading behavior for transient or pending parent objects.

When set to `True`, causes the lazy-loader to issue a query for a parent object that is not persistent, meaning it has never been flushed. This may take effect for a pending object when autoflush is disabled, or for a transient object that has been “attached” to a `Session` but is not part of its pending collection. Attachment of transient objects to the session without moving to the “pending” state is not a supported behavior at this time.

Note that the load of related objects on a pending or transient object also does not trigger any attribute change events - no user-defined events will be emitted for these attributes, and if and when the object is ultimately flushed, only the user-specific foreign key attributes will be part of the modified state.

The `load_on_pending` flag does not improve behavior when the ORM is used normally - object references should be constructed at the object level, not at the foreign key level, so that they are present in an ordinary way before `flush()` proceeds. This flag is not intended for general use.

New in 0.6.5.

- **order_by** – indicates the ordering that should be applied when loading these items.
- **passive_deletes=False** – Indicates loading behavior during delete operations.

A value of `True` indicates that unloaded child items should not be loaded during a delete operation on the parent. Normally, when a parent item is deleted, all child items are loaded so that they can either be marked as deleted, or have their foreign key to the parent set to `NULL`. Marking this flag as `True` usually implies an `ON DELETE <CASCADE|SET NULL>` rule is in place which will handle updating/deleting child rows on the database side.

Additionally, setting the flag to the string value ‘all’ will disable the “nulling out” of the child foreign keys, when there is no delete or delete-orphan cascade enabled. This is typically used when a triggering or error raise scenario is in place on the database side. Note that the foreign key attributes on in-session child objects will not be changed after a flush occurs so this is a very special use-case setting.

- **passive_updates=True** – Indicates loading and INSERT/UPDATE/DELETE behavior when the source of a foreign key value changes (i.e. an “on update” cascade), which are typically the primary key columns of the source row.

When True, it is assumed that ON UPDATE CASCADE is configured on the foreign key in the database, and that the database will handle propagation of an UPDATE from a source column to dependent rows. Note that with databases which enforce referential integrity (i.e. PostgreSQL, MySQL with InnoDB tables), ON UPDATE CASCADE is required for this operation. The `relationship()` will update the value of the attribute on related items which are locally present in the session during a flush.

When False, it is assumed that the database does not enforce referential integrity and will not be issuing its own CASCADE operation for an update. The `relationship()` will issue the appropriate UPDATE statements to the database in response to the change of a referenced key, and items locally present in the session during a flush will also be refreshed.

This flag should probably be set to False if primary key changes are expected and the database in use doesn’t support CASCADE (i.e. SQLite, MySQL MyISAM tables).

Also see the `passive_updates` flag on `mapper()`.

A future SQLAlchemy release will provide a “detect” feature for this flag.

- **post_update** – this indicates that the relationship should be handled by a second UPDATE statement after an INSERT or before a DELETE. Currently, it also will issue an UPDATE after the instance was UPDATED as well, although this technically should be improved. This flag is used to handle saving bi-directional dependencies between two individual rows (i.e. each row references the other), where it would otherwise be impossible to INSERT or DELETE both rows fully since one row exists before the other. Use this flag when a particular mapping arrangement will incur two rows that are dependent on each other, such as a table that has a one-to-many relationship to a set of child rows, and also has a column that references a single child row within that list (i.e. both tables contain a foreign key to each other). If a `flush()` operation returns an error that a “cyclical dependency” was detected, this is a cue that you might want to use `post_update` to “break” the cycle.
- **primaryjoin** – a `ColumnElement` (i.e. WHERE criterion) that will be used as the primary join of this child object against the parent object, or in a many-to-many relationship the join of the primary object to the association table. By default, this value is computed based on the foreign key relationships of the parent and child tables (or association table).
- **remote_side** – used for self-referential relationships, indicates the column or list of columns that form the “remote side” of the relationship.
- **query_class** – a `Query` subclass that will be used as the base of the “appender query” returned by a “dynamic” relationship, that is, a relationship that specifies `lazy="dynamic"` or was otherwise constructed using the `orm.dynamic_loader()` function.
- **secondaryjoin** – a `ColumnElement` (i.e. WHERE criterion) that will be used as the join of an association table to the child object. By default, this value is computed based on the foreign key relationships of the association and child tables.
- **single_parent=(True|False)** – when True, installs a validator which will prevent objects from being associated with more than one parent at a time. This is used for many-to-one or many-to-many relationships that should be treated either as one-to-one or one-to-many.

Its usage is optional unless delete-orphan cascade is also set on this `relationship()`, in which case its required (new in 0.5.2).

- **uselist=(True|False)** – a boolean that indicates if this property should be loaded as a list or a scalar. In most cases, this value is determined automatically by `relationship()`, based on the type and direction of the relationship - one to many forms a list, many to one forms a scalar, many to many is a list. If a scalar is desired where normally a list would be present, such as a bi-directional one-to-one relationship, set `uselist` to `False`.
- **viewonly=False** – when set to `True`, the relationship is used only for loading objects within the relationship, and has no effect on the unit-of-work flush process. Relationships with `viewonly` can specify any kind of join conditions to provide additional views of related objects onto a parent object. Note that the functionality of a `viewonly` relationship has its limits - complicated join conditions may not compile into eager or lazy loaders properly. If this is the case, use an alternative method.

`sqlalchemy.orm.backref` (*name*, ***kwargs*)

Create a back reference with explicit keyword arguments, which are the same arguments one can send to `relationship()`.

Used with the `backref` keyword argument to `relationship()` in place of a string argument, e.g.:

```
'items':relationship(SomeItem, backref=backref('parent', lazy='subquery'))
```

`sqlalchemy.orm.relation` (**arg*, ***kw*)

A synonym for `relationship()`.

`sqlalchemy.orm.dynamic_loader` (*argument*, ***kw*)

Construct a dynamically-loading mapper property.

This is essentially the same as using the `lazy='dynamic'` argument with `relationship()`:

```
dynamic_loader(SomeClass)
```

```
# vs.
```

```
relationship(SomeClass, lazy="dynamic")
```

A `relationship()` that is “dynamic” features the behavior that read operations return an active `Query` object which reads from the database when accessed. Items may be appended to the attribute via `append()`, or removed via `remove()`; changes will be persisted to the database during a `Session.flush()`. However, no other Python list or collection mutation operations are available.

All arguments accepted by `relationship()` are accepted here, other than `lazy` which is fixed at `dynamic`.

2.4 Collection Configuration and Techniques

The `relationship()` function defines a linkage between two classes. When the linkage defines a one-to-many or many-to-many relationship, it's represented as a Python collection when objects are loaded and manipulated. This section presents additional information about collection configuration and techniques.

2.4.1 Working with Large Collections

The default behavior of `relationship()` is to fully load the collection of items in, as according to the loading strategy of the relationship. Additionally, the Session by default only knows how to delete objects which are actually present within the session. When a parent instance is marked for deletion and flushed, the Session loads its full list of child items in so that they may either be deleted as well, or have their foreign key value set to null; this is to avoid constraint violations. For large collections of child items, there are several strategies to bypass full loading of child items both at load time as well as deletion time.

Dynamic Relationship Loaders

A key feature to enable management of a large collection is the so-called “dynamic” relationship. This is an optional form of `relationship()` which returns a `Query` object in place of a collection when accessed. `filter()` criterion may be applied as well as limits and offsets, either explicitly or via array slices:

```
mapper(User, users_table, properties={
    'posts': relationship(Post, lazy="dynamic")
})

jack = session.query(User).get(id)

# filter Jack's blog posts
posts = jack.posts.filter(Post.headline=='this is a post')

# apply array slices
posts = jack.posts[5:20]
```

The dynamic relationship supports limited write operations, via the `append()` and `remove()` methods:

```
oldpost = jack.posts.filter(Post.headline=='old post').one()
jack.posts.remove(oldpost)

jack.posts.append(Post('new post'))
```

Since the read side of the dynamic relationship always queries the database, changes to the underlying collection will not be visible until the data has been flushed. However, as long as “autoflush” is enabled on the `Session` in use, this will occur automatically each time the collection is about to emit a query.

To place a dynamic relationship on a backref, use the `backref()` function in conjunction with `lazy='dynamic'`:

```
mapper(Post, posts_table, properties={
    'user': relationship(User, backref=backref('posts', lazy='dynamic'))
})
```

Note that eager/lazy loading options cannot be used in conjunction dynamic relationships at this time.

Note: The `dynamic_loader()` function is essentially the same as `relationship()` with the `lazy='dynamic'` argument specified.

Setting Noload

The opposite of the dynamic relationship is simply “noload”, specified using `lazy='noload'`:

```
mapper(MyClass, table, properties={
    'children': relationship(MyOtherClass, lazy='noload')
})
```

Above, the `children` collection is fully writeable, and changes to it will be persisted to the database as well as locally available for reading at the time they are added. However when instances of `MyClass` are freshly loaded from the database, the `children` collection stays empty.

Using Passive Deletes

Use `passive_deletes=True` to disable child object loading on a `DELETE` operation, in conjunction with “ON DELETE (CASCADE|SET NULL)” on your database to automatically cascade deletes to child objects. Note that “ON DELETE” is not supported on SQLite, and requires InnoDB tables when using MySQL:

```
mytable = Table('mytable', meta,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
)

myothertable = Table('myothertable', meta,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('parent_id', Integer),
    ForeignKeyConstraint(['parent_id'], ['mytable.id'], ondelete="CASCADE"),
)

mapper(MyOtherClass, myothertable)

mapper(MyClass, mytable, properties={
    'children': relationship(MyOtherClass, cascade="all, delete-orphan", passive_deletes=True)
})
```

When `passive_deletes` is applied, the `children` relationship will not be loaded into memory when an instance of `MyClass` is marked for deletion. The `cascade="all, delete-orphan"` *will* take effect for instances of `MyOtherClass` which are currently present in the session; however for instances of `MyOtherClass` which are not loaded, SQLAlchemy assumes that “ON DELETE CASCADE” rules will ensure that those rows are deleted by the database and that no foreign key violation will occur.

2.4.2 Customizing Collection Access

Mapping a one-to-many or many-to-many relationship results in a collection of values accessible through an attribute on the parent instance. By default, this collection is a `list`:

```
mapper(Parent, properties={
    'children' : relationship(Child)
})
```

```
parent = Parent()
parent.children.append(Child())
print parent.children[0]
```

Collections are not limited to lists. Sets, mutable sequences and almost any other Python object that can act as a container can be used in place of the default list, by specifying the `collection_class` option on `relationship()`.

```
# use a set
mapper(Parent, properties={
    'children' : relationship(Child, collection_class=set)
})

parent = Parent()
child = Child()
```

```
parent.children.add(child)
assert child in parent.children
```

Custom Collection Implementations

You can use your own types for collections as well. For most cases, simply inherit from `list` or `set` and add the custom behavior.

Collections in SQLAlchemy are transparently *instrumented*. Instrumentation means that normal operations on the collection are tracked and result in changes being written to the database at flush time. Additionally, collection operations can fire *events* which indicate some secondary operation must take place. Examples of a secondary operation include saving the child item in the parent's `Session` (i.e. the `save-update` cascade), as well as synchronizing the state of a bi-directional relationship (i.e. a `backref`).

The collections package understands the basic interface of lists, sets and dicts and will automatically apply instrumentation to those built-in types and their subclasses. Object-derived types that implement a basic collection interface are detected and instrumented via duck-typing:

```
class ListLike(object):
    def __init__(self):
        self.data = []
    def append(self, item):
        self.data.append(item)
    def remove(self, item):
        self.data.remove(item)
    def extend(self, items):
        self.data.extend(items)
    def __iter__(self):
        return iter(self.data)
    def foo(self):
        return 'foo'
```

`append`, `remove`, and `extend` are known list-like methods, and will be instrumented automatically. `__iter__` is not a mutator method and won't be instrumented, and `foo` won't be either.

Duck-typing (i.e. guesswork) isn't rock-solid, of course, so you can be explicit about the interface you are implementing by providing an `__emulates__` class attribute:

```
class SetLike(object):
    __emulates__ = set

    def __init__(self):
        self.data = set()
    def append(self, item):
        self.data.add(item)
    def remove(self, item):
        self.data.remove(item)
    def __iter__(self):
        return iter(self.data)
```

This class looks list-like because of `append`, but `__emulates__` forces it to set-like. `remove` is known to be part of the set interface and will be instrumented.

But this class won't work quite yet: a little glue is needed to adapt it for use by SQLAlchemy. The ORM needs to know which methods to use to append, remove and iterate over members of the collection. When using a type like `list` or `set`, the appropriate methods are well-known and used automatically when present. This set-like class does not provide the expected `add` method, so we must supply an explicit mapping for the ORM via a decorator.

Annotating Custom Collections via Decorators

Decorators can be used to tag the individual methods the ORM needs to manage collections. Use them when your class doesn't quite meet the regular interface for its container type, or you simply would like to use a different method to get the job done.

```
from sqlalchemy.orm.collections import collection

class SetLike(object):
    __emulates__ = set

    def __init__(self):
        self.data = set()

    @collection.append
    def append(self, item):
        self.data.add(item)

    def remove(self, item):
        self.data.remove(item)

    def __iter__(self):
        return iter(self.data)
```

And that's all that's needed to complete the example. SQLAlchemy will add instances via the `append` method. `remove` and `__iter__` are the default methods for sets and will be used for removing and iteration. Default methods can be changed as well:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm.collections import collection

class MyList(list):
    @collection.remover
    def zark(self, item):
        # do something special...

    @collection.iterator
    def hey_use_this_instead_for_iteration(self):
        # ...
```

There is no requirement to be list-, or set-like at all. Collection classes can be any shape, so long as they have the `append`, `remove` and `iterate` interface marked for SQLAlchemy's use. `Append` and `remove` methods will be called with a mapped entity as the single argument, and `iterator` methods are called with no arguments and must return an iterator.

Dictionary-Based Collections

A `dict` can be used as a collection, but a keying strategy is needed to map entities loaded by the ORM to key, value pairs. The `sqlalchemy.orm.collections` package provides several built-in types for dictionary-based collections:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm.collections import column_mapped_collection, attribute_mapped_collection

mapper(Item, items_table, properties={
    # key by column
    'notes': relationship(Note, collection_class=column_mapped_collection(notes_table.c.key),
    # or named attribute
    'notes2': relationship(Note, collection_class=attribute_mapped_collection('keyword')),
```

```

    # or any callable
    'notes3': relationship(Note, collection_class=mapped_collection(lambda entity: entity.
})

# ...
item = Item()
item.notes['color'] = Note('color', 'blue')
print item.notes['color']

```

These functions each provide a dict subclass with decorated set and remove methods and the keying strategy of your choice.

The `sqlalchemy.orm.collections.MappedCollection` class can be used as a base class for your custom types or as a mix-in to quickly add dict collection support to other classes. It uses a keying function to delegate to `__setitem__` and `__delitem__`:

```

from sqlalchemy.util import OrderedDict
from sqlalchemy.orm.collections import MappedCollection

class NodeMap(OrderedDict, MappedCollection):
    """Holds 'Node' objects, keyed by the 'name' attribute with insert order maintained."""

    def __init__(self, *args, **kw):
        MappedCollection.__init__(self, keyfunc=lambda node: node.name)
        OrderedDict.__init__(self, *args, **kw)

```

When subclassing `MappedCollection`, user-defined versions of `__setitem__()` or `__delitem__()` should be decorated with `collection.internally_instrumented()`, if they call down to those same methods on `MappedCollection`. This is because the methods on `MappedCollection` are already instrumented - calling them from within an already instrumented call can cause events to be fired off repeatedly, or inappropriately, leading to internal state corruption in rare cases:

```

from sqlalchemy.orm.collections import MappedCollection, \
    collection

class MyMappedCollection(MappedCollection):
    """Use @internally_instrumented when your methods
    call down to already-instrumented methods.

    """

    @collection.internally_instrumented
    def __setitem__(self, key, value, _sa_initiator=None):
        # do something with key, value
        super(MyMappedCollection, self).__setitem__(key, value, _sa_initiator)

    @collection.internally_instrumented
    def __delitem__(self, key, _sa_initiator=None):
        # do something with key
        super(MyMappedCollection, self).__delitem__(key, _sa_initiator)

```

The ORM understands the dict interface just like lists and sets, and will automatically instrument all dict-like methods if you choose to subclass dict or provide dict-like collection behavior in a duck-typed class. You must decorate appender and remover methods, however- there are no compatible methods in the basic dictionary interface for SQLAlchemy to use by default. Iteration will go through `itervalues()` unless otherwise decorated.

Instrumentation and Custom Types

Many custom types and existing library classes can be used as a entity collection type as-is without further ado. However, it is important to note that the instrumentation process `_will_` modify the type, adding decorators around methods automatically.

The decorations are lightweight and no-op outside of relationships, but they do add unneeded overhead when triggered elsewhere. When using a library class as a collection, it can be good practice to use the “trivial subclass” trick to restrict the decorations to just your usage in relationships. For example:

```
class MyAwesomeList(some.great.library.AwesomeList):
    pass

# ... relationship(..., collection_class=MyAwesomeList)
```

The ORM uses this approach for built-ins, quietly substituting a trivial subclass when a `list`, `set` or `dict` is used directly.

The `collections` package provides additional decorators and support for authoring custom types. See the `sqlalchemy.orm.collections` package for more information and discussion of advanced usage and Python 2.3-compatible decoration options.

Collections API

`sqlalchemy.orm.collections.attribute_mapped_collection(attr_name)`

A dictionary-based collection type with attribute-based keying.

Returns a `MappedCollection` factory with a keying based on the ‘`attr_name`’ attribute of entities in the collection, where `attr_name` is the string name of the attribute.

The key value must be immutable for the lifetime of the object. You can not, for example, map on foreign key values if those key values will change during the session, i.e. from `None` to a database-assigned integer after a session flush.

class `sqlalchemy.orm.collections.collection`

Decorators for entity collection classes.

The decorators fall into two groups: annotations and interception recipes.

The annotating decorators (`appender`, `remover`, `iterator`, `internally_instrumented`, `link`) indicate the method’s purpose and take no arguments. They are not written with parens:

```
@collection.appender
def append(self, append): ...
```

The recipe decorators all require parens, even those that take no arguments:

```
@collection.adds('entity')
def insert(self, position, entity): ...

@collection.removes_return()
def popitem(self): ...
```

Decorators can be specified in long-hand for Python 2.3, or with the class-level dict attribute ‘`_instrumentation_`’- see the source for details.

static `adds(arg)`

Mark the method as adding an entity to the collection.

Adds “add to collection” handling to the method. The decorator argument indicates which method argument holds the SQLAlchemy-relevant value. Arguments can be specified positionally (i.e. integer) or by name:

```
@collection.adds(1)
def push(self, item): ...

@collection.adds('entity')
def do_stuff(self, thing, entity=None): ...
```

static appender (*fn*)

Tag the method as the collection appender.

The appender method is called with one positional argument: the value to append. The method will be automatically decorated with ‘adds(1)’ if not already decorated:

```
@collection.appender
def add(self, append): ...

# or, equivalently
@collection.appender
@collection.adds(1)
def add(self, append): ...

# for mapping type, an 'append' may kick out a previous value
# that occupies that slot. consider d['a'] = 'foo' - any previous
# value in d['a'] is discarded.
@collection.appender
@collection.replaces(1)
def add(self, entity):
    key = some_key_func(entity)
    previous = None
    if key in self:
        previous = self[key]
    self[key] = entity
    return previous
```

If the value to append is not allowed in the collection, you may raise an exception. Something to remember is that the appender will be called for each object mapped by a database query. If the database contains rows that violate your collection semantics, you will need to get creative to fix the problem, as access via the collection will not work.

If the appender method is internally instrumented, you must also receive the keyword argument ‘_sa_initiator’ and ensure its promulgation to collection events.

static converter (*fn*)

Tag the method as the collection converter.

This optional method will be called when a collection is being replaced entirely, as in:

```
myobj.collection = [newvalue1, newvalue2]
```

The converter method will receive the object being assigned and should return an iterable of values suitable for use by the appender method. A converter must not assign values or mutate the collection, it’s sole job is to adapt the value the user provides into an iterable of values for the ORM’s use.

The default converter implementation will use duck-typing to do the conversion. A dict-like collection will be convert into an iterable of dictionary values, and other types will simply be iterated:

```
@collection.converter
def convert(self, other): ...
```

If the duck-typing of the object does not match the type of this collection, a `TypeError` is raised.

Supply an implementation of this method if you want to expand the range of possible types that can be assigned in bulk or perform validation on the values about to be assigned.

static internally_instrumented (*fn*)

Tag the method as instrumented.

This tag will prevent any decoration from being applied to the method. Use this if you are orchestrating your own calls to `collection_adapter()` in one of the basic SQLAlchemy interface methods, or to prevent an automatic ABC method decoration from wrapping your implementation:

```
# normally an 'extend' method on a list-like class would be
# automatically intercepted and re-implemented in terms of
# SQLAlchemy events and append(). your implementation will
# never be called, unless:
@collection.internally_instrumented
def extend(self, items): ...
```

static iterator (*fn*)

Tag the method as the collection remover.

The iterator method is called with no arguments. It is expected to return an iterator over all collection members:

```
@collection.iterator
def __iter__(self): ...
```

static link (*fn*)

Tag the method as a the “linked to attribute” event handler.

This optional event handler will be called when the collection class is linked to or unlinked from the `InstrumentedAttribute`. It is invoked immediately after the `‘_sa_adapter’` property is set on the instance. A single argument is passed: the collection adapter that has been linked, or `None` if unlinking.

static remover (*fn*)

Tag the method as the collection remover.

The remover method is called with one positional argument: the value to remove. The method will be automatically decorated with `removes_return()` if not already decorated:

```
@collection.remover
def zap(self, entity): ...

# or, equivalently
@collection.remover
@collection.removes_return()
def zap(self, ): ...
```

If the value to remove is not present in the collection, you may raise an exception or return `None` to ignore the error.

If the remove method is internally instrumented, you must also receive the keyword argument ‘_sa_initiator’ and ensure its promulgation to collection events.

static removes (*arg*)

Mark the method as removing an entity in the collection.

Adds “remove from collection” handling to the method. The decorator argument indicates which method argument holds the SQLAlchemy-relevant value to be removed. Arguments can be specified positionally (i.e. integer) or by name:

```
@collection.removes(1)
def zap(self, item): ...
```

For methods where the value to remove is not known at call-time, use `collection.removes_return`.

static removes_return ()

Mark the method as removing an entity in the collection.

Adds “remove from collection” handling to the method. The return value of the method, if any, is considered the value to remove. The method arguments are not inspected:

```
@collection.removes_return()
def pop(self): ...
```

For methods where the value to remove is known at call-time, use `collection.remove`.

static replaces (*arg*)

Mark the method as replacing an entity in the collection.

Adds “add to collection” and “remove from collection” handling to the method. The decorator argument indicates which method argument holds the SQLAlchemy-relevant value to be added, and return value, if any will be considered the value to remove.

Arguments can be specified positionally (i.e. integer) or by name:

```
@collection.replaces(2)
def __setitem__(self, index, item): ...
```

`sqlalchemy.orm.collections.collection_adapter` (*collection*)

Fetch the `CollectionAdapter` for a collection.

`sqlalchemy.orm.collections.column_mapped_collection` (*mapping_spec*)

A dictionary-based collection type with column-based keying.

Returns a `MappedCollection` factory with a keying function generated from *mapping_spec*, which may be a `Column` or a sequence of `Columns`.

The key value must be immutable for the lifetime of the object. You can not, for example, map on foreign key values if those key values will change during the session, i.e. from `None` to a database-assigned integer after a session flush.

`sqlalchemy.orm.collections.mapped_collection` (*keyfunc*)

A dictionary-based collection type with arbitrary keying.

Returns a `MappedCollection` factory with a keying function generated from *keyfunc*, a callable that takes an entity and returns a key value.

The key value must be immutable for the lifetime of the object. You can not, for example, map on foreign key values if those key values will change during the session, i.e. from `None` to a database-assigned integer after a session flush.

class sqlalchemy.orm.collections.**MappedCollection** (*keyfunc*)

A basic dictionary-based collection class.

Extends dict with the minimal bag semantics that collection classes require. `set` and `remove` are implemented in terms of a keying function: any callable that takes an object and returns an object for use as a dictionary key.

__init__ (*keyfunc*)

Create a new collection with keying provided by keyfunc.

keyfunc may be any callable any callable that takes an object and returns an object for use as a dictionary key.

The keyfunc will be called every time the ORM needs to add a member by value-only (such as when loading instances from the database) or remove a member. The usual cautions about dictionary keying apply- `keyfunc(object)` should return the same output for the life of the collection. Keying based on mutable properties can result in unreachable instances “lost” in the collection.

remove (*value, _sa_initiator=None*)

Remove an item by value, consulting the keyfunc for the key.

set (*value, _sa_initiator=None*)

Add an item by value, consulting the keyfunc for the key.

2.5 Mapping Class Inheritance Hierarchies

SQLAlchemy supports three forms of inheritance: *single table inheritance*, where several types of classes are stored in one table, *concrete table inheritance*, where each type of class is stored in its own table, and *joined table inheritance*, where the parent/child classes are stored in their own tables that are joined together in a select. Whereas support for single and joined table inheritance is strong, concrete table inheritance is a less common scenario with some particular problems so is not quite as flexible.

When mappers are configured in an inheritance relationship, SQLAlchemy has the ability to load elements “polymorphically”, meaning that a single query can return objects of multiple types.

For the following sections, assume this class relationship:

```
class Employee(object):
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name
    def __repr__(self):
        return self.__class__.__name__ + " " + self.name

class Manager(Employee):
    def __init__(self, name, manager_data):
        self.name = name
        self.manager_data = manager_data
    def __repr__(self):
        return (
            self.__class__.__name__ + " " +
            self.name + " " + self.manager_data
        )

class Engineer(Employee):
    def __init__(self, name, engineer_info):
        self.name = name
        self.engineer_info = engineer_info
    def __repr__(self):
```

```

return (
    self.__class__.__name__ + " " +
    self.name + " " + self.engineer_info
)

```

2.5.1 Joined Table Inheritance

In joined table inheritance, each class along a particular classes' list of parents is represented by a unique table. The total set of attributes for a particular instance is represented as a join along all tables in its inheritance path. Here, we first define a table to represent the `Employee` class. This table will contain a primary key column (or columns), and a column for each attribute that's represented by `Employee`. In this case it's just `name`:

```

employees = Table('employees', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
    Column('type', String(30), nullable=False)
)

```

The table also has a column called `type`. It is strongly advised in both single- and joined- table inheritance scenarios that the root table contains a column whose sole purpose is that of the **discriminator**; it stores a value which indicates the type of object represented within the row. The column may be of any desired datatype. While there are some “tricks” to work around the requirement that there be a discriminator column, they are more complicated to configure when one wishes to load polymorphically.

Next we define individual tables for each of `Engineer` and `Manager`, which contain columns that represent the attributes unique to the subclass they represent. Each table also must contain a primary key column (or columns), and in most cases a foreign key reference to the parent table. It is standard practice that the same column is used for both of these roles, and that the column is also named the same as that of the parent table. However this is optional in SQLAlchemy; separate columns may be used for primary key and parent-relationship, the column may be named differently than that of the parent, and even a custom join condition can be specified between parent and child tables instead of using a foreign key:

```

engineers = Table('engineers', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer,
        ForeignKey('employees.employee_id'),
        primary_key=True),
    Column('engineer_info', String(50)),
)

managers = Table('managers', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer,
        ForeignKey('employees.employee_id'),
        primary_key=True),
    Column('manager_data', String(50)),
)

```

One natural effect of the joined table inheritance configuration is that the identity of any mapped object can be determined entirely from the base table. This has obvious advantages, so SQLAlchemy always considers the primary key columns of a joined inheritance class to be those of the base table only, unless otherwise manually configured. In other words, the `employee_id` column of both the `engineers` and `managers` table is not used to locate the `Engineer` or `Manager` object itself - only the value in `employees.employee_id` is considered, and the primary key in this case is non-composite. `engineers.employee_id` and `managers.employee_id` are still of course critical to the proper operation of the pattern overall as they are used to locate the joined row, once the parent row has been determined, either through a distinct `SELECT` statement or all at once within a `JOIN`.

We then configure mappers as usual, except we use some additional arguments to indicate the inheritance relationship, the polymorphic discriminator column, and the **polymorphic identity** of each class; this is the value that will be stored in the polymorphic discriminator column.

```
mapper(Employee, employees, polymorphic_on=employees.c.type,
      polymorphic_identity='employee')
mapper(Engineer, engineers, inherits=Employee,
      polymorphic_identity='engineer')
mapper(Manager, managers, inherits=Employee,
      polymorphic_identity='manager')
```

And that's it. Querying against `Employee` will return a combination of `Employee`, `Engineer` and `Manager` objects. Newly saved `Engineer`, `Manager`, and `Employee` objects will automatically populate the `employees.type` column with `engineer`, `manager`, or `employee`, as appropriate.

Basic Control of Which Tables are Queried

The `with_polymorphic()` method of `Query` affects the specific subclass tables which the `Query` selects from. Normally, a query such as this:

```
session.query(Employee).all()
```

...selects only from the `employees` table. When loading fresh from the database, our joined-table setup will query from the parent table only, using SQL such as this:

```
SELECT employees.employee_id AS employees_employee_id,
       employees.name AS employees_name, employees.type AS employees_type
FROM employees
[]
```

As attributes are requested from those `Employee` objects which are represented in either the `engineers` or `managers` child tables, a second load is issued for the columns in that related row, if the data was not already loaded. So above, after accessing the objects you'd see further SQL issued along the lines of:

```
SELECT managers.employee_id AS managers_employee_id,
       managers.manager_data AS managers_manager_data
FROM managers
WHERE ? = managers.employee_id
[5]
SELECT engineers.employee_id AS engineers_employee_id,
       engineers.engineer_info AS engineers_engineer_info
FROM engineers
WHERE ? = engineers.employee_id
[2]
```

This behavior works well when issuing searches for small numbers of items, such as when using `Query.get()`, since the full range of joined tables are not pulled in to the SQL statement unnecessarily. But when querying a larger span of rows which are known to be of many types, you may want to actively join to some or all of the joined tables. The `with_polymorphic` feature of `Query` and `mapper` provides this.

Telling our query to polymorphically load `Engineer` and `Manager` objects:

```
query = session.query(Employee).with_polymorphic([Engineer, Manager])
```

produces a query which joins the `employees` table to both the `engineers` and `managers` tables like the following:

```
query.all()
```

```
SELECT employees.employee_id AS employees_employee_id,
       engineers.employee_id AS engineers_employee_id,
       managers.employee_id AS managers_employee_id,
       employees.name AS employees_name,
       employees.type AS employees_type,
       engineers.engineer_info AS engineers_engineer_info,
       managers.manager_data AS managers_manager_data
FROM employees
     LEFT OUTER JOIN engineers
     ON employees.employee_id = engineers.employee_id
     LEFT OUTER JOIN managers
     ON employees.employee_id = managers.employee_id
[]
```

`with_polymorphic()` accepts a single class or mapper, a list of classes/mappers, or the string `'*'` to indicate all subclasses:

```
# join to the engineers table
query.with_polymorphic(Engineer)

# join to the engineers and managers tables
query.with_polymorphic([Engineer, Manager])

# join to all subclass tables
query.with_polymorphic('*')
```

It also accepts a second argument `selectable` which replaces the automatic join creation and instead selects directly from the selectable given. This feature is normally used with “concrete” inheritance, described later, but can be used with any kind of inheritance setup in the case that specialized SQL should be used to load polymorphically:

```
# custom selectable
query.with_polymorphic(
    [Engineer, Manager],
    employees.outerjoin(managers).outerjoin(engineers)
)
```

`with_polymorphic()` is also needed when you wish to add filter criteria that are specific to one or more subclasses; it makes the subclasses’ columns available to the WHERE clause:

```
session.query(Employee).with_polymorphic([Engineer, Manager]).\
    filter(or_(Engineer.engineer_info=='w', Manager.manager_data=='q'))
```

Note that if you only need to load a single subtype, such as just the `Engineer` objects, `with_polymorphic()` is not needed since you would query against the `Engineer` class directly.

The mapper also accepts `with_polymorphic` as a configurational argument so that the joined-style load will be issued automatically. This argument may be the string `'*'`, a list of classes, or a tuple consisting of either, followed by a selectable.

```
mapper(Employee, employees, polymorphic_on=employees.c.type,
       polymorphic_identity='employee',
       with_polymorphic=*)
mapper(Engineer, engineers, inherits=Employee,
       polymorphic_identity='engineer')
mapper(Manager, managers, inherits=Employee,
       polymorphic_identity='manager')
```

The above mapping will produce a query similar to that of `with_polymorphic('*')` for every query of `Employee` objects.

Using `with_polymorphic()` with `Query` will override the mapper-level `with_polymorphic` setting.

Advanced Control of Which Tables are Queried

The `Query.with_polymorphic()` method and configuration works fine for simplistic scenarios. However, it currently does not work with any `Query` that selects against individual columns or against multiple classes - it also has to be called at the outset of a query.

For total control of how `Query` joins along inheritance relationships, use the `Table` objects directly and construct joins manually. For example, to query the name of employees with particular criterion:

```
session.query(Employee.name).\
    outerjoin((engineer, engineer.c.employee_id==Employee.employee_id)).\
    outerjoin((manager, manager.c.employee_id==Employee.employee_id)).\
    filter(or_(Engineer.engineer_info=='w', Manager.manager_data=='q'))
```

The base table, in this case the “employees” table, isn’t always necessary. A SQL query is always more efficient with fewer joins. Here, if we wanted to just load information specific to managers or engineers, we can instruct `Query` to use only those tables. The FROM clause is determined by what’s specified in the `Session.query()`, `Query.filter()`, or `Query.select_from()` methods:

```
session.query(Manager.manager_data).select_from(manager)
```

```
session.query(engineer.c.id).\
    filter(engineer.c.engineer_info==manager.c.manager_data)
```

Creating Joins to Specific Subtypes

The `of_type()` method is a helper which allows the construction of joins along `relationship()` paths while narrowing the criterion to specific subclasses. Suppose the `employees` table represents a collection of employees which are associated with a `Company` object. We’ll add a `company_id` column to the `employees` table and a new table `companies`:

```
companies = Table('companies', metadata,
    Column('company_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50))
)

employees = Table('employees', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
    Column('type', String(30), nullable=False),
    Column('company_id', Integer, ForeignKey('companies.company_id'))
)
```

```
class Company(object):
    pass
```

```
mapper(Company, companies, properties={
    'employees': relationship(Employee)
})
```

When querying from `Company` onto the `Employee` relationship, the `join()` method as well as the `any()` and `has()` operators will create a join from `companies` to `employees`, without including `engineers` or `managers` in the mix. If we wish to have criterion which is specifically against the `Engineer` class, we can tell those methods to join or subquery against the joined table representing the subclass using the `of_type()` operator:

```
session.query(Company).\
    join(Company.employees.of_type(Engineer)).\
    filter(Engineer.engineer_info=='someinfo')
```

A longhand version of this would involve spelling out the full target selectable within a 2-tuple:

```
session.query(Company).\
    join((employees.join(engineers), Company.employees)).\
    filter(Engineer.engineer_info=='someinfo')
```

Currently, `of_type()` accepts a single class argument. It may be expanded later on to accept multiple classes. For now, to join to any group of subclasses, the longhand notation allows this flexibility:

```
session.query(Company).\
    join(
        (employees.outerjoin(engineers).outerjoin(managers),
         Company.employees)
    ).\
    filter(
        or_(Engineer.engineer_info=='someinfo',
            Manager.manager_data=='somedata')
    )
```

The `any()` and `has()` operators also can be used with `of_type()` when the embedded criterion is in terms of a subclass:

```
session.query(Company).\
    filter(
        Company.employees.of_type(Engineer).\
            any(Engineer.engineer_info=='someinfo')
    ).all()
```

Note that the `any()` and `has()` are both shorthand for a correlated EXISTS query. To build one by hand looks like:

```
session.query(Company).filter(
    exists([1],
        and_(Engineer.engineer_info=='someinfo',
            employees.c.company_id==companies.c.company_id),
        from_obj=employees.join(engineers)
    )
).all()
```

The EXISTS subquery above selects from the join of `employees` to `engineers`, and also specifies criterion which correlates the EXISTS subselect back to the parent `companies` table.

2.5.2 Single Table Inheritance

Single table inheritance is where the attributes of the base class as well as all subclasses are represented within a single table. A column is present in the table for every attribute mapped to the base class and all subclasses; the columns which correspond to a single subclass are nullable. This configuration looks much like joined-table inheritance except there's only one table. In this case, a `type` column is required, as there would be no other way to discriminate between classes. The table is specified in the base mapper only; for the inheriting classes, leave their `table` parameter blank:

```
employees_table = Table('employees', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
    Column('manager_data', String(50)),
    Column('engineer_info', String(50)),
    Column('type', String(20), nullable=False)
)

employee_mapper = mapper(Employee, employees_table, \
    polymorphic_on=employees_table.c.type, polymorphic_identity='employee')
manager_mapper = mapper(Manager, inherits=employee_mapper,
    polymorphic_identity='manager')
engineer_mapper = mapper(Engineer, inherits=employee_mapper,
    polymorphic_identity='engineer')
```

Note that the mappers for the derived classes `Manager` and `Engineer` omit the specification of their associated table, as it is inherited from the `employee_mapper`. Omitting the table specification for derived mappers in single-table inheritance is required.

2.5.3 Concrete Table Inheritance

This form of inheritance maps each class to a distinct table, as below:

```
employees_table = Table('employees', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
)

managers_table = Table('managers', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
    Column('manager_data', String(50)),
)

engineers_table = Table('engineers', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
    Column('engineer_info', String(50)),
)
```

Notice in this case there is no type column. If polymorphic loading is not required, there's no advantage to using `inherits` here; you just define a separate mapper for each class.

```
mapper(Employee, employees_table)
mapper(Manager, managers_table)
mapper(Engineer, engineers_table)
```

To load polymorphically, the `with_polymorphic` argument is required, along with a selectable indicating how rows should be loaded. In this case we must construct a UNION of all three tables. SQLAlchemy includes a helper function to create these called `polymorphic_union()`, which will map all the different columns into a structure of selects with the same numbers and names of columns, and also generate a virtual `type` column for each subselect:

```
pjoin = polymorphic_union({
    'employee': employees_table,
    'manager': managers_table,
    'engineer': engineers_table
```



```

}, 'type', 'pjoin')

employee_mapper = mapper(Employee, employees_table,
                           with_polymorphic=('*', pjoin),
                           polymorphic_on=pjoin.c.type,
                           polymorphic_identity='employee')
manager_mapper = mapper(Manager, managers_table,
                         inherits=employee_mapper,
                         concrete=True,
                         polymorphic_identity='manager')
engineer_mapper = mapper(Engineer, engineers_table,
                          inherits=employee_mapper,
                          concrete=True,
                          polymorphic_identity='engineer')

```

Upon select, the polymorphic union produces a query like this:

```

session.query(Employee).all()

SELECT pjoin.type AS pjoin_type,
       pjoin.manager_data AS pjoin_manager_data,
       pjoin.employee_id AS pjoin_employee_id,
pjoin.name AS pjoin_name, pjoin.engineer_info AS pjoin_engineer_info
FROM (
    SELECT employees.employee_id AS employee_id,
           CAST(NULL AS VARCHAR(50)) AS manager_data, employees.name AS name,
           CAST(NULL AS VARCHAR(50)) AS engineer_info, 'employee' AS type
    FROM employees
UNION ALL
    SELECT managers.employee_id AS employee_id,
           managers.manager_data AS manager_data, managers.name AS name,
           CAST(NULL AS VARCHAR(50)) AS engineer_info, 'manager' AS type
    FROM managers
UNION ALL
    SELECT engineers.employee_id AS employee_id,
           CAST(NULL AS VARCHAR(50)) AS manager_data, engineers.name AS name,
           engineers.engineer_info AS engineer_info, 'engineer' AS type
    FROM engineers
) AS pjoin
[]

```

For a recipe that sets up concrete inheritance using declarative, see the [DeclarativeAbstractConcreteBase](#) recipe on the wiki.

2.5.4 Using Relationships with Inheritance

Both joined-table and single table inheritance scenarios produce mappings which are usable in `relationship()` functions; that is, it's possible to map a parent object to a child object which is polymorphic. Similarly, inheriting mappers can have `relationship()` objects of their own at any level, which are inherited to each child class. The only requirement for relationships is that there is a table relationship between parent and child. An example is the following modification to the joined table inheritance example, which sets a bi-directional relationship between `Employee` and `Company`:

```

employees_table = Table('employees', metadata,
                        Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),

```

```
        Column('name', String(50)),
        Column('company_id', Integer, ForeignKey('companies.company_id'))
    )

companies = Table('companies', metadata,
    Column('company_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)))

class Company(object):
    pass

mapper(Company, companies, properties={
    'employees': relationship(Employee, backref='company')
})
```

Relationships with Concrete Inheritance

In a concrete inheritance scenario, mapping relationships is more challenging since the distinct classes do not share a table. In this case, you *can* establish a relationship from parent to child if a join condition can be constructed from parent to child, if each child table contains a foreign key to the parent:

```
companies = Table('companies', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)))

employees_table = Table('employees', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
    Column('company_id', Integer, ForeignKey('companies.id')))

managers_table = Table('managers', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
    Column('manager_data', String(50)),
    Column('company_id', Integer, ForeignKey('companies.id')))

engineers_table = Table('engineers', metadata,
    Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
    Column('engineer_info', String(50)),
    Column('company_id', Integer, ForeignKey('companies.id')))

mapper(Employee, employees_table,
    with_polymorphic=('*', pjoin),
    polymorphic_on=pjoin.c.type,
    polymorphic_identity='employee')

mapper(Manager, managers_table,
    inherits=employee_mapper,
    concrete=True,
    polymorphic_identity='manager')
```

```

mapper(Engineer, engineers_table,
       inherits=employee_mapper,
       concrete=True,
       polymorphic_identity='engineer')

```

```

mapper(Company, companies, properties={
    'employees': relationship(Employee)
})

```

The big limitation with concrete table inheritance is that `relationship()` objects placed on each concrete mapper do **not** propagate to child mappers. If you want to have the same `relationship()` objects set up on all concrete mappers, they must be configured manually on each. To configure back references in such a configuration the `back_populates` keyword may be used instead of `backref`, such as below where both A (object) and B (A) bidirectionally reference C:

```

ajoin = polymorphic_union({
    'a': a_table,
    'b': b_table
}, 'type', 'ajoin')

mapper(A, a_table, with_polymorphic=('*', ajoin),
       polymorphic_on=ajoin.c.type, polymorphic_identity='a',
       properties={
           'some_c': relationship(C, back_populates='many_a')
       })
mapper(B, b_table, inherits=A, concrete=True,
       polymorphic_identity='b',
       properties={
           'some_c': relationship(C, back_populates='many_a')
       })
mapper(C, c_table, properties={
    'many_a': relationship(A, collection_class=set,
                           back_populates='some_c'),
})

```

2.5.5 Using Inheritance with Declarative

Declarative makes inheritance configuration more intuitive. See the docs at [Inheritance Configuration](#).

2.6 Using the Session

The `orm.mapper()` function and `declarative` extensions are the primary configurational interface for the ORM. Once mappings are configured, the primary usage interface for persistence operations is the `Session`.

2.6.1 What does the Session do ?

In the most general sense, the `Session` establishes all conversations with the database and represents a “holding zone” for all the objects which you’ve loaded or associated with it during its lifespan. It provides the entypoint to acquire a `Query` object, which sends queries to the database using the `Session` object’s current database connection, populating result rows into objects that are then stored in the `Session`, inside a structure called the `Identity Map` - a

data structure that maintains unique copies of each object, where “unique” means “only one object with a particular primary key”.

The `Session` begins in an essentially stateless form. Once queries are issued or other objects are persisted with it, it requests a connection resource from an `Engine` that is associated either with the `Session` itself or with the mapped `Table` objects being operated upon. This connection represents an ongoing transaction, which remains in effect until the `Session` is instructed to commit or roll back its pending state.

All changes to objects maintained by a `Session` are tracked - before the database is queried again or before the current transaction is committed, it **flushes** all pending changes to the database. This is known as the **Unit of Work** pattern.

When using a `Session`, it’s important to note that the objects which are associated with it are **proxy objects** to the transaction being held by the `Session` - there are a variety of events that will cause objects to re-access the database in order to keep synchronized. It is possible to “detach” objects from a `Session`, and to continue using them, though this practice has its caveats. It’s intended that usually, you’d re-associate detached objects another `Session` when you want to work with them again, so that they can resume their normal task of representing database state.

2.6.2 Getting a Session

`Session` is a regular Python class which can be directly instantiated. However, to standardize how sessions are configured and acquired, the `sessionmaker()` function is normally used to create a top level `Session` configuration which can then be used throughout an application without the need to repeat the configurational arguments.

The usage of `sessionmaker()` is illustrated below:

```
from sqlalchemy import create_engine
from sqlalchemy.orm import sessionmaker

# an Engine, which the Session will use for connection
# resources
some_engine = create_engine('postgresql://scott:tiger@localhost/')

# create a configured "Session" class
Session = sessionmaker(bind=some_engine)

# create a Session
session = Session()

# work with sess
myobject = MyObject('foo', 'bar')
session.add(myobject)
session.commit()
```

Above, the `sessionmaker()` call creates a class for us, which we assign to the name `Session`. This class is a subclass of the actual `Session` class, which when instantiated, will use the arguments we’ve given the function, in this case to use a particular `Engine` for connection resources.

A typical setup will associate the `sessionmaker()` with an `Engine`, so that each `Session` generated will use this `Engine` to acquire connection resources. This association can be set up as in the example above, using the `bind` argument.

When you write your application, place the result of the `sessionmaker()` call at the global level. The resulting `Session` class, configured for your application, should then be used by the rest of the application as the source of new `Session` instances.

An extremely common step taken by applications, including virtually all web applications, is to further wrap the `sessionmaker()` construct in a so-called “contextual” session, provided by the `scoped_session()` construct.

This construct places the `sessionmaker()` into a **registry** that maintains a single `Session` per application thread. Information on using contextual sessions is at *Contextual/Thread-local Sessions*.

Adding additional configuration to an Existing sessionmaker()

A common scenario is where the `sessionmaker()` is invoked at module import time, however the generation of one or more `Engine` instances to be associated with the `sessionmaker()` has not yet proceeded. For this use case, the `sessionmaker()` construct offers the `sessionmaker.configure()` method, which will place additional configuration directives into an existing `sessionmaker()` that will take place when the construct is invoked:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import sessionmaker
from sqlalchemy import create_engine

# configure Session class with desired options
Session = sessionmaker()

# later, we create the engine
engine = create_engine('postgresql://...')

# associate it with our custom Session class
Session.configure(bind=engine)

# work with the session
session = Session()
```

Creating Ad-Hoc Session Objects with Alternate Arguments

For the use case where an application needs to create a new `Session` with special arguments that deviate from what is normally used throughout the application, such as a `Session` that binds to an alternate source of connectivity, or a `Session` that should have other arguments such as `expire_on_commit` established differently from what most of the application wants, specific arguments can be passed to the `sessionmaker()` construct's class itself. These arguments will override whatever configurations have already been placed, such as below, where a new `Session` is constructed against a specific `Connection`:

```
# at the module level, the global sessionmaker,
# bound to a specific Engine
Session = sessionmaker(bind=engine)

# later, some unit of code wants to create a
# Session that is bound to a specific Connection
conn = engine.connect()
session = Session(bind=conn)
```

The typical rationale for the association of a `Session` with a specific `Connection` is that of a test fixture that maintains an external transaction - see *Joining a Session into an External Transaction* for an example of this.

2.6.3 Using the Session

Quickie Intro to Object States

It's helpful to know the states which an instance can have within a session:

- *Transient* - an instance that's not in a session, and is not saved to the database; i.e. it has no database identity. The only relationship such an object has to the ORM is that its class has a `mapper()` associated with it.

- *Pending* - when you `add()` a transient instance, it becomes pending. It still wasn't actually flushed to the database yet, but it will be when the next flush occurs.
- *Persistent* - An instance which is present in the session and has a record in the database. You get persistent instances by either flushing so that the pending instances become persistent, or by querying the database for existing instances (or moving persistent instances from other sessions into your local session).
- *Detached* - an instance which has a record in the database, but is not in any session. There's nothing wrong with this, and you can use objects normally when they're detached, **except** they will not be able to issue any SQL in order to load collections or attributes which are not yet loaded, or were marked as "expired".

Knowing these states is important, since the `Session` tries to be strict about ambiguous operations (such as trying to save the same object to two different sessions at the same time).

Frequently Asked Questions

- When do I make a `sessionmaker()` ?

Just one time, somewhere in your application's global scope. It should be looked upon as part of your application's configuration. If your application has three .py files in a package, you could, for example, place the `sessionmaker()` line in your `__init__.py` file; from that point on your other modules say "from mypackage import Session". That way, everyone else just uses `Session()`, and the configuration of that session is controlled by that central point.

If your application starts up, does imports, but does not know what database it's going to be connecting to, you can bind the `Session` at the "class" level to the engine later on, using `configure()`.

In the examples in this section, we will frequently show the `sessionmaker()` being created right above the line where we actually invoke `Session()`. But that's just for example's sake ! In reality, the `sessionmaker()` would be somewhere at the module level, and your individual `Session()` calls would be sprinkled all throughout your app, such as in a web application within each controller method.

- When do I make a `Session` ?

You typically invoke `Session` when you first need to talk to your database, and want to save some objects or load some existing ones. It then remains in use for the lifespan of a particular database conversation, which includes not just the initial loading of objects but throughout the whole usage of those instances.

Objects become detached if their owning session is discarded. They are still functional in the detached state if the user has ensured that their state has not been expired before detachment, but they will not be able to represent the current state of database data. Because of this, it's best to consider persisted objects as an extension of the state of a particular `Session`, and to keep that session around until all referenced objects have been discarded.

An exception to this is when objects are placed in caches or otherwise shared among threads or processes, in which case their detached state can be stored, transmitted, or shared. However, the state of detached objects should still be transferred back into a new `Session` using `Session.add()` or `Session.merge()` before working with the object (or in the case of merge, its state) again.

It is also very common that a `Session` as well as its associated objects are only referenced by a single thread. Sharing objects between threads is most safely accomplished by sharing their state among multiple instances of those objects, each associated with a distinct `Session` per thread, `Session.merge()` to transfer state between threads. This pattern is not a strict requirement by any means, but it has the least chance of introducing concurrency issues.

To help with the recommended `Session`-per-thread, `Session`-per-set-of-objects patterns, the `scoped_session()` function is provided which produces a thread-managed registry of `Session`

objects. It is commonly used in web applications so that a single global variable can be used to safely represent transactional sessions with sets of objects, localized to a single thread. More on this object is in *Contextual/Thread-local Sessions*.

- Is the Session a cache ?

Yeee...no. It's somewhat used as a cache, in that it implements the identity map pattern, and stores objects keyed to their primary key. However, it doesn't do any kind of query caching. This means, if you say `session.query(Foo).filter_by(name='bar')`, even if `Foo(name='bar')` is right there, in the identity map, the session has no idea about that. It has to issue SQL to the database, get the rows back, and then when it sees the primary key in the row, *then* it can look in the local identity map and see that the object is already there. It's only when you say `query.get({some primary key})` that the `Session` doesn't have to issue a query.

Additionally, the Session stores object instances using a weak reference by default. This also defeats the purpose of using the Session as a cache.

The `Session` is not designed to be a global object from which everyone consults as a “registry” of objects. That's more the job of a **second level cache**. SQLAlchemy provides a pattern for implementing second level caching using `Beaker`, via the *Beaker Caching* example.

- How can I get the Session for a certain object ?

Use the `object_session()` classmethod available on `Session`:

```
session = Session.object_session(someobject)
```

- Is the session thread-safe?

Nope. It has no thread synchronization of any kind built in, and particularly when you do a flush operation, it definitely is not open to concurrent threads accessing it, because it holds onto a single database connection at that point. If you use a session which is non-transactional (meaning, `autocommit` is set to `True`, not the default setting) for read operations only, it's still not thread-“safe”, but you also won't get any catastrophic failures either, since it checks out and returns connections to the connection pool on an as-needed basis; it's just that different threads might load the same objects independently of each other, but only one will wind up in the identity map (however, the other one might still live in a collection somewhere).

But the bigger point here is, you should not *want* to use the session with multiple concurrent threads. That would be like having everyone at a restaurant all eat from the same plate. The session is a local “workspace” that you use for a specific set of tasks; you don't want to, or need to, share that session with other threads who are doing some other task. If, on the other hand, there are other threads participating in the same task you are, such as in a desktop graphical application, then you would be sharing the session with those threads, but you also will have implemented a proper locking scheme (or your graphical framework does) so that those threads do not collide.

A multithreaded application is usually going to want to make usage of `scoped_session()` to transparently manage sessions per thread. More on this at *Contextual/Thread-local Sessions*.

Querying

The `query()` function takes one or more *entities* and returns a new `Query` object which will issue mapper queries within the context of this Session. An entity is defined as a mapped class, a `Mapper` object, an orm-enabled *descriptor*, or an `AliasedClass` object:

```
# query from a class
session.query(User).filter_by(name='ed').all()
```

```
# query with multiple classes, returns tuples
```

```
session.query(User, Address).join('addresses').filter_by(name='ed').all()

# query using orm-enabled descriptors
session.query(User.name, User.fullname).all()

# query from a mapper
user_mapper = class_mapper(User)
session.query(user_mapper)
```

When `Query` returns results, each object instantiated is stored within the identity map. When a row matches an object which is already present, the same object is returned. In the latter case, whether or not the row is populated onto an existing object depends upon whether the attributes of the instance have been *expired* or not. A default-configured `Session` automatically expires all instances along transaction boundaries, so that with a normally isolated transaction, there shouldn't be any issue of instances representing data which is stale with regards to the current transaction.

The `Query` object is introduced in great detail in *Object Relational Tutorial*, and further documented in *Querying*.

Adding New or Existing Items

`add()` is used to place instances in the session. For *transient* (i.e. brand new) instances, this will have the effect of an INSERT taking place for those instances upon the next flush. For instances which are *persistent* (i.e. were loaded by this session), they are already present and do not need to be added. Instances which are *detached* (i.e. have been removed from a session) may be re-associated with a session using this method:

```
user1 = User(name='user1')
user2 = User(name='user2')
session.add(user1)
session.add(user2)

session.commit()      # write changes to the database
```

To add a list of items to the session at once, use `add_all()`:

```
session.add_all([item1, item2, item3])
```

The `add()` operation **cascades** along the save-update cascade. For more details see the section *Cascades*.

Merging

`merge()` reconciles the current state of an instance and its associated children with existing data in the database, and returns a copy of the instance associated with the session. Usage is as follows:

```
merged_object = session.merge(existing_object)
```

When given an instance, it follows these steps:

- It examines the primary key of the instance. If it's present, it attempts to load an instance with that primary key (or pulls from the local identity map).
- If there's no primary key on the given instance, or the given primary key does not exist in the database, a new instance is created.
- The state of the given instance is then copied onto the located/newly created instance.
- The operation is cascaded to associated child items along the `merge` cascade. Note that all changes present on the given instance, including changes to collections, are merged.
- The new instance is returned.

With `merge()`, the given instance is not placed within the session, and can be associated with a different session or detached. `merge()` is very useful for taking the state of any kind of object structure without regard for its origins or current session associations and placing that state within a session. Here's two examples:

- An application which reads an object structure from a file and wishes to save it to the database might parse the file, build up the structure, and then use `merge()` to save it to the database, ensuring that the data within the file is used to formulate the primary key of each element of the structure. Later, when the file has changed, the same process can be re-run, producing a slightly different object structure, which can then be merged in again, and the `Session` will automatically update the database to reflect those changes.
- A web application stores mapped entities within an HTTP session object. When each request starts up, the serialized data can be merged into the session, so that the original entity may be safely shared among requests and threads.

`merge()` is frequently used by applications which implement their own second level caches. This refers to an application which uses an in memory dictionary, or an tool like Memcached to store objects over long running spans of time. When such an object needs to exist within a `Session`, `merge()` is a good choice since it leaves the original cached object untouched. For this use case, merge provides a keyword option called `load=False`. When this boolean flag is set to `False`, `merge()` will not issue any SQL to reconcile the given object against the current state of the database, thereby reducing query overhead. The limitation is that the given object and all of its children may not contain any pending changes, and it's also of course possible that newer information in the database will not be present on the merged object, since no load is issued.

Merge Tips

`merge()` is an extremely useful method for many purposes. However, it deals with the intricate border between objects that are transient/detached and those that are persistent, as well as the automated transference of state. The wide variety of scenarios that can present themselves here often require a more careful approach to the state of objects. Common problems with merge usually involve some unexpected state regarding the object being passed to `merge()`.

Lets use the canonical example of the User and Address objects:

```
class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'user'

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String(50), nullable=False)
    addresses = relationship("Address", backref="user")

class Address(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'address'

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    email_address = Column(String(50), nullable=False)
    user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('user.id'), nullable=False)
```

Assume a User object with one Address, already persistent:

```
>>> u1 = User(name='ed', addresses=[Address(email_address='ed@ed.com')])
>>> session.add(u1)
>>> session.commit()
```

We now create `a1`, an object outside the session, which we'd like to merge on top of the existing Address:

```
>>> existing_a1 = u1.addresses[0]
>>> a1 = Address(id=existing_a1.id)
```

A surprise would occur if we said this:

```
>>> a1.user = u1
>>> a1 = session.merge(a1)
>>> session.commit()
sqlalchemy.exc.FlushError: New instance <Address at 0x1298f50>
with identity key (<class '__main__.Address'>, (1,)) conflicts with
persistent instance <Address at 0x12a25d0>
```

Why is that ? We weren't careful with our cascades. The assignment of `a1.user` to a persistent object cascaded to the backref of `User.addresses` and made our `a1` object pending, as though we had added it. Now we have *two* `Address` objects in the session:

```
>>> a1 = Address()
>>> a1.user = u1
>>> a1 in session
True
>>> existing_a1 in session
True
>>> a1 is existing_a1
False
```

Above, our `a1` is already pending in the session. The subsequent `merge()` operation essentially does nothing. Cascade can be configured via the `cascade` option on `relationship()`, although in this case it would mean removing the save-update cascade from the `User.addresses` relationship - and usually, that behavior is extremely convenient. The solution here would usually be to not assign `a1.user` to an object already persistent in the target session.

Note that a new `relationship()` option introduced in 0.6.5, `cascade_backrefs=False`, will also prevent the `Address` from being added to the session via the `a1.user = u1` assignment.

Further detail on cascade operation is at [Cascades](#).

Another example of unexpected state:

```
>>> a1 = Address(id=existing_a1.id, user_id=u1.id)
>>> assert a1.user is None
>>> True
>>> a1 = session.merge(a1)
>>> session.commit()
sqlalchemy.exc.IntegrityError: (IntegrityError) address.user_id
may not be NULL
```

Here, we accessed `a1.user`, which returned its default value of `None`, which as a result of this access, has been placed in the `__dict__` of our object `a1`. Normally, this operation creates no change event, so the `user_id` attribute takes precedence during a flush. But when we merge the `Address` object into the session, the operation is equivalent to:

```
>>> existing_a1.id = existing_a1.id
>>> existing_a1.user_id = u1.id
>>> existing_a1.user = None
```

Where above, both `user_id` and `user` are assigned to, and change events are emitted for both. The `user` association takes precedence, and `None` is applied to `user_id`, causing a failure.

Most `merge()` issues can be examined by first checking - is the object prematurely in the session ?

```
>>> a1 = Address(id=existing_a1, user_id=user.id)
>>> assert a1 not in session
>>> a1 = session.merge(a1)
```

Or is there state on the object that we don't want ? Examining `__dict__` is a quick way to check:

```

>>> a1 = Address(id=existing_a1, user_id=user.id)
>>> a1.user
>>> a1.__dict__
{'_sa_instance_state': <sqlalchemy.orm.state.InstanceState object at 0x1298d10>,
 'user_id': 1,
 'id': 1,
 'user': None}
>>> # we don't want user=None merged, remove it
>>> del a1.user
>>> a1 = session.merge(a1)
>>> # success
>>> session.commit()

```

Deleting

The `delete()` method places an instance into the Session's list of objects to be marked as deleted:

```

# mark two objects to be deleted
session.delete(obj1)
session.delete(obj2)

# commit (or flush)
session.commit()

```

Deleting from Collections

A common confusion that arises regarding `delete()` is when objects which are members of a collection are being deleted. While the collection member is marked for deletion from the database, this does not impact the collection itself in memory until the collection is expired. Below, we illustrate that even after an `Address` object is marked for deletion, it's still present in the collection associated with the parent `User`, even after a flush:

```

>>> address = user.addresses[1]
>>> session.delete(address)
>>> session.flush()
>>> address in user.addresses
True

```

When the above session is committed, all attributes are expired. The next access of `user.addresses` will re-load the collection, revealing the desired state:

```

>>> session.commit()
>>> address in user.addresses
False

```

The usual practice of deleting items within collections is to forego the usage of `delete()` directly, and instead use cascade behavior to automatically invoke the deletion as a result of removing the object from the parent collection. The delete-orphan cascade accomplishes this, as illustrated in the example below:

```

mapper(User, users_table, properties={
    'addresses':relationship(Address, cascade="all, delete, delete-orphan")
})
del user.addresses[1]
session.flush()

```

Where above, upon removing the `Address` object from the `User.addresses` collection, the delete-orphan cascade has the effect of marking the `Address` object for deletion in the same way as passing it to `delete()`.

See also [Cascades](#) for detail on cascades.

Deleting based on Filter Criterion

The caveat with `Session.delete()` is that you need to have an object handy already in order to delete. The `Query` includes a `delete()` method which deletes based on filtering criteria:

```
session.query(User).filter(User.id==7).delete()
```

The `Query.delete()` method includes functionality to “expire” objects already in the session which match the criteria. However it does have some caveats, including that “delete” and “delete-orphan” cascades won’t be fully expressed for collections which are already loaded. See the API docs for `delete()` for more details.

Flushing

When the `Session` is used with its default configuration, the flush step is nearly always done transparently. Specifically, the flush occurs before any individual `Query` is issued, as well as within the `commit()` call before the transaction is committed. It also occurs before a SAVEPOINT is issued when `begin_nested()` is used.

Regardless of the autoflush setting, a flush can always be forced by issuing `flush()`:

```
session.flush()
```

The “flush-on-Query” aspect of the behavior can be disabled by constructing `sessionmaker()` with the flag `autoflush=False`:

```
Session = sessionmaker(autoflush=False)
```

Additionally, autoflush can be temporarily disabled by setting the `autoflush` flag at any time:

```
mysession = Session()
mysession.autoflush = False
```

Some autoflush-disable recipes are available at [DisableAutoFlush](#).

The flush process *always* occurs within a transaction, even if the `Session` has been configured with `autocommit=True`, a setting that disables the session’s persistent transactional state. If no transaction is present, `flush()` creates its own transaction and commits it. Any failures during flush will always result in a rollback of whatever transaction is present. If the `Session` is not in `autocommit=True` mode, an explicit call to `rollback()` is required after a flush fails, even though the underlying transaction will have been rolled back already - this is so that the overall nesting pattern of so-called “subtransactions” is consistently maintained.

Committing

`commit()` is used to commit the current transaction. It always issues `flush()` beforehand to flush any remaining state to the database; this is independent of the “autoflush” setting. If no transaction is present, it raises an error. Note that the default behavior of the `Session` is that a “transaction” is always present; this behavior can be disabled by setting `autocommit=True`. In `autocommit` mode, a transaction can be initiated by calling the `begin()` method.

Note: The term “transaction” here refers to a transactional construct within the `Session` itself which may be maintaining zero or more actual database (DBAPI) transactions. An individual DBAPI connection begins participation in the “transaction” as it is first used to execute a SQL statement, then remains present until the session-level “transaction” is completed. See [Managing Transactions](#) for further detail.

Another behavior of `commit()` is that by default it expires the state of all instances present after the commit is complete. This is so that when the instances are next accessed, either through attribute access or by them being present

in a `Query` result set, they receive the most recent state. To disable this behavior, configure `sessionmaker()` with `expire_on_commit=False`.

Normally, instances loaded into the `Session` are never changed by subsequent queries; the assumption is that the current transaction is isolated so the state most recently loaded is correct as long as the transaction continues. Setting `autocommit=True` works against this model to some degree since the `Session` behaves in exactly the same way with regard to attribute state, except no transaction is present.

Rolling Back

`rollback()` rolls back the current transaction. With a default configured session, the post-rollback state of the session is as follows:

- All transactions are rolled back and all connections returned to the connection pool, unless the `Session` was bound directly to a `Connection`, in which case the connection is still maintained (but still rolled back).
- Objects which were initially in the *pending* state when they were added to the `Session` within the lifespan of the transaction are expunged, corresponding to their `INSERT` statement being rolled back. The state of their attributes remains unchanged.
- Objects which were marked as *deleted* within the lifespan of the transaction are promoted back to the *persistent* state, corresponding to their `DELETE` statement being rolled back. Note that if those objects were first *pending* within the transaction, that operation takes precedence instead.
- All objects not expunged are fully expired.

With that state understood, the `Session` may safely continue usage after a rollback occurs.

When a `flush()` fails, typically for reasons like primary key, foreign key, or “not nullable” constraint violations, a `rollback()` is issued automatically (it’s currently not possible for a flush to continue after a partial failure). However, the flush process always uses its own transactional demarcator called a *subtransaction*, which is described more fully in the docstrings for `Session`. What it means here is that even though the database transaction has been rolled back, the end user must still issue `rollback()` to fully reset the state of the `Session`.

Expunging

`Expunge` removes an object from the `Session`, sending persistent instances to the detached state, and pending instances to the transient state:

```
session.expunge(obj1)
```

To remove all items, call `expunge_all()` (this method was formerly known as `clear()`).

Closing

The `close()` method issues a `expunge_all()`, and releases any transactional/connection resources. When connections are returned to the connection pool, transactional state is rolled back as well.

Refreshing / Expiring

The `Session` normally works in the context of an ongoing transaction (with the default setting of `autoflush=False`). Most databases offer “isolated” transactions - this refers to a series of behaviors that allow the work within a transaction to remain consistent as time passes, regardless of the activities outside of that transaction. A key feature of a high degree of transaction isolation is that emitting the same `SELECT` statement twice will return the same results as when it was called the first time, even if the data has been modified in another transaction.

For this reason, the `Session` gains very efficient behavior by loading the attributes of each instance only once. Subsequent reads of the same row in the same transaction are assumed to have the same value. The user application also gains directly from this assumption, that the transaction is regarded as a temporary shield against concurrent changes - a good application will ensure that isolation levels are set appropriately such that this assumption can be made, given the kind of data being worked with.

To clear out the currently loaded state on an instance, the instance or its individual attributes can be marked as “expired”, which results in a reload to occur upon next access of any of the instance’s attributes. The instance can also be immediately reloaded from the database. The `expire()` and `refresh()` methods achieve this:

```
# immediately re-load attributes on obj1, obj2
session.refresh(obj1)
session.refresh(obj2)

# expire objects obj1, obj2, attributes will be reloaded
# on the next access:
session.expire(obj1)
session.expire(obj2)
```

When an expired object reloads, all non-deferred column-based attributes are loaded in one query. Current behavior for expired relationship-based attributes is that they load individually upon access - this behavior may be enhanced in a future release. When a refresh is invoked on an object, the ultimate operation is equivalent to a `Query.get()`, so any relationships configured with eager loading should also load within the scope of the refresh operation.

`refresh()` and `expire()` also support being passed a list of individual attribute names in which to be refreshed. These names can refer to any attribute, column-based or relationship based:

```
# immediately re-load the attributes 'hello', 'world' on obj1, obj2
session.refresh(obj1, ['hello', 'world'])
session.refresh(obj2, ['hello', 'world'])

# expire the attributes 'hello', 'world' objects obj1, obj2, attributes will be reloaded
# on the next access:
session.expire(obj1, ['hello', 'world'])
session.expire(obj2, ['hello', 'world'])
```

The full contents of the session may be expired at once using `expire_all()`:

```
session.expire_all()
```

Note that `expire_all()` is called **automatically** whenever `commit()` or `rollback()` are called. If using the session in its default mode of `autocommit=False` and with a well-isolated transactional environment (which is provided by most backends with the notable exception of MySQL MyISAM), there is virtually *no reason* to ever call `expire_all()` directly - plenty of state will remain on the current transaction until it is rolled back or committed or otherwise removed.

`refresh()` and `expire()` similarly are usually only necessary when an UPDATE or DELETE has been issued manually within the transaction using `Session.execute()`.

Session Attributes

The `Session` itself acts somewhat like a set-like collection. All items present may be accessed using the iterator interface:

```
for obj in session:
    print obj
```

And presence may be tested for using regular “contains” semantics:

```
if obj in session:
    print "Object is present"
```

The session is also keeping track of all newly created (i.e. pending) objects, all objects which have had changes since they were last loaded or saved (i.e. “dirty”), and everything that’s been marked as deleted:

```
# pending objects recently added to the Session
session.new

# persistent objects which currently have changes detected
# (this collection is now created on the fly each time the property is called)
session.dirty

# persistent objects that have been marked as deleted via session.delete(obj)
session.deleted
```

Note that objects within the session are by default *weakly referenced*. This means that when they are dereferenced in the outside application, they fall out of scope from within the `Session` as well and are subject to garbage collection by the Python interpreter. The exceptions to this include objects which are pending, objects which are marked as deleted, or persistent objects which have pending changes on them. After a full flush, these collections are all empty, and all objects are again weakly referenced. To disable the weak referencing behavior and force all objects within the session to remain until explicitly expunged, configure `sessionmaker()` with the `weak_identity_map=False` setting.

2.6.4 Cascades

Mappers support the concept of configurable *cascade* behavior on `relationship()` constructs. This behavior controls how the Session should treat the instances that have a parent-child relationship with another instance that is operated upon by the Session. Cascade is indicated as a comma-separated list of string keywords, with the possible values `all`, `delete`, `save-update`, `refresh-expire`, `merge`, `expunge`, and `delete-orphan`.

Cascading is configured by setting the `cascade` keyword argument on a `relationship()`:

```
mapper(Order, order_table, properties={
    'items' : relationship(Item, cascade="all, delete-orphan"),
    'customer' : relationship(User, secondary=user_orders_table, cascade="save-update"),
})
```

The above mapper specifies two relationships, `items` and `customer`. The `items` relationship specifies “all, delete-orphan” as its cascade value, indicating that all add, merge, expunge, refresh delete and expire operations performed on a parent `Order` instance should also be performed on the child `Item` instances attached to it. The `delete-orphan` cascade value additionally indicates that if an `Item` instance is no longer associated with an `Order`, it should also be deleted. The “all, delete-orphan” cascade argument allows a so-called *lifecycle* relationship between an `Order` and an `Item` object.

The `customer` relationship specifies only the “save-update” cascade value, indicating most operations will not be cascaded from a parent `Order` instance to a child `User` instance except for the `add()` operation. `save-update` cascade indicates that an `add()` on the parent will cascade to all child items, and also that items added to a parent which is already present in a session will also be added to that same session. “save-update” cascade also cascades the *pending history* of a `relationship()`-based attribute, meaning that objects which were removed from a scalar or collection attribute whose changes have not yet been flushed are also placed into the new session - this so that foreign key clear operations and deletions will take place (new in 0.6).

Note that the `delete-orphan` cascade only functions for relationships where the target object can have a single parent at a time, meaning it is only appropriate for one-to-one or one-to-many relationships. For a `relationship()` which establishes one-to-one via a local foreign key, i.e. a many-to-one that stores only a single parent, or one-to-one/one-to-many via a “secondary” (association) table, a warning will be issued if `delete-orphan` is configured.

To disable this warning, specify the `single_parent=True` flag on the relationship, which constrains objects to allow attachment to only one parent at a time.

The default value for `cascade` on `relationship()` is `save-update, merge`.

`save-update` cascade also takes place on backrefs by default. This means that, given a mapping such as this:

```
mapper(Order, order_table, properties={
    'items' : relationship(Item, backref='order')
})
```

If an `Order` is already in the session, and is assigned to the `order` attribute of an `Item`, the backref appends the `Order` to the `items` collection of that `Order`, resulting in the `save-update` cascade taking place:

```
>>> o1 = Order()
>>> session.add(o1)
>>> o1 in session
True

>>> i1 = Item()
>>> i1.order = o1
>>> i1 in o1.items
True
>>> i1 in session
True
```

This behavior can be disabled as of 0.6.5 using the `cascade_backrefs` flag:

```
mapper(Order, order_table, properties={
    'items' : relationship(Item, backref='order',
                           cascade_backrefs=False)
})
```

So above, the assignment of `i1.order = o1` will append `i1` to the `items` collection of `o1`, but will not add `i1` to the session. You can, of course, `add()` `i1` to the session at a later point. This option may be helpful for situations where an object needs to be kept out of a session until it's construction is completed, but still needs to be given associations to objects which are already persistent in the target session.

2.6.5 Managing Transactions

A newly constructed `Session` may be said to be in the “begin” state. In this state, the `Session` has not established any connection or transactional state with any of the `Engine` objects that may be associated with it.

The `Session` then receives requests to operate upon a database connection. Typically, this means it is called upon to execute SQL statements using a particular `Engine`, which may be via `Session.query()`, `Session.execute()`, or within a flush operation of pending data, which occurs when such state exists and `Session.commit()` or `Session.flush()` is called.

As these requests are received, each new `Engine` encountered is associated with an ongoing transactional state maintained by the `Session`. When the first `Engine` is operated upon, the `Session` can be said to have left the “begin” state and entered “transactional” state. For each `Engine` encountered, a `Connection` is associated with it, which is acquired via the `Engine.contextual_connect()` method. If a `Connection` was directly associated with the `Session` (see *Joining a Session into an External Transaction* for an example of this), it is added to the transactional state directly.

For each `Connection`, the `Session` also maintains a `Transaction` object, which is acquired by calling `Connection.begin()` on each `Connection`, or if the `Session` object has been established using the flag `twophase=True`, a `TwoPhaseTransaction` object acquired via `Connection.begin_twophase()`. These transactions are all committed or rolled back corresponding to

the invocation of the `Session.commit()` and `Session.rollback()` methods. A commit operation will also call the `TwoPhaseTransaction.prepare()` method on all transactions if applicable.

When the transactional state is completed after a rollback or commit, the `Session` releases all `Transaction` and `Connection` resources (which has the effect of returning DBAPI connections to the connection pool of each `Engine`), and goes back to the “begin” state, which will again invoke new `Connection` and `Transaction` objects as new requests to emit SQL statements are received.

The example below illustrates this lifecycle:

```
engine = create_engine("...")
Session = sessionmaker(bind=engine)

# new session.  no connections are in use.
session = Session()
try:
    # first query.  a Connection is acquired
    # from the Engine, and a Transaction
    # started.
    item1 = session.query(Item).get(1)

    # second query.  the same Connection/Transaction
    # are used.
    item2 = session.query(Item).get(2)

    # pending changes are created.
    item1.foo = 'bar'
    item2.bar = 'foo'

    # commit.  The pending changes above
    # are flushed via flush(), the Transaction
    # is committed, the Connection object closed
    # and discarded, the underlying DBAPI connection
    # returned to the connection pool.
    session.commit()
except:
    # on rollback, the same closure of state
    # as that of commit proceeds.
    session.rollback()
    raise
```

Using SAVEPOINT

SAVEPOINT transactions, if supported by the underlying engine, may be delineated using the `begin_nested()` method:

```
Session = sessionmaker()
session = Session()
session.add(u1)
session.add(u2)

session.begin_nested() # establish a savepoint
session.add(u3)
session.rollback()    # rolls back u3, keeps u1 and u2
```

```
session.commit() # commits u1 and u2
```

`begin_nested()` may be called any number of times, which will issue a new SAVEPOINT with a unique identifier for each call. For each `begin_nested()` call, a corresponding `rollback()` or `commit()` must be issued.

When `begin_nested()` is called, a `flush()` is unconditionally issued (regardless of the `autoflush` setting). This is so that when a `rollback()` occurs, the full state of the session is expired, thus causing all subsequent attribute/instance access to reference the full state of the `Session` right before `begin_nested()` was called.

Autocommit Mode

The example of `Session` transaction lifecycle illustrated at the start of *Managing Transactions* applies to a `Session` configured in the default mode of `autocommit=False`. Constructing a `Session` with `autocommit=True` produces a `Session` placed into “autocommit” mode, where each SQL statement invoked by a `Session.query()` or `Session.execute()` occurs using a new connection from the connection pool, discarding it after results have been iterated. The `Session.flush()` operation still occurs within the scope of a single transaction, though this transaction is closed out after the `Session.flush()` operation completes.

“autocommit” mode should **not be considered for general use**. While very old versions of SQLAlchemy standardized on this mode, the modern `Session` benefits highly from being given a clear point of transaction demarcation via `Session.rollback()` and `Session.commit()`. The autoflush action can safely emit SQL to the database as needed without implicitly producing permanent effects, the contents of attributes are expired only when a logical series of steps has completed. If the `Session` were to be used in pure “autocommit” mode without an ongoing transaction, these features should be disabled, that is, `autoflush=False`, `expire_on_commit=False`.

Modern usage of “autocommit” is for framework integrations that need to control specifically when the “begin” state occurs. A session which is configured with `autocommit=True` may be placed into the “begin” state using the `Session.begin()` method. After the cycle completes upon `Session.commit()` or `Session.rollback()`, connection and transaction resources are released and the `Session` goes back into “autocommit” mode, until `Session.begin()` is called again:

```
Session = sessionmaker(bind=engine, autocommit=True)
session = Session()
session.begin()
try:
    item1 = session.query(Item).get(1)
    item2 = session.query(Item).get(2)
    item1.foo = 'bar'
    item2.bar = 'foo'
    session.commit()
except:
    session.rollback()
    raise
```

The `Session.begin()` method also returns a transactional token which is compatible with the Python 2.6 `with` statement:

```
Session = sessionmaker(bind=engine, autocommit=True)
session = Session()
with session.begin():
    item1 = session.query(Item).get(1)
    item2 = session.query(Item).get(2)
    item1.foo = 'bar'
    item2.bar = 'foo'
```

Using Subtransactions with Autocommit

A subtransaction indicates usage of the `Session.begin()` method in conjunction with the `subtransactions=True` flag. This produces a non-transactional, delimiting construct that allows nesting of calls to `begin()` and `commit()`. Its purpose is to allow the construction of code that can function within a transaction both independently of any external code that starts a transaction, as well as within a block that has already demarcated a transaction.

`subtransactions=True` is generally only useful in conjunction with autocommit, and is equivalent to the pattern described at *Nesting of Transaction Blocks*, where any number of functions can call `Connection.begin()` and `Transaction.commit()` as though they are the initiator of the transaction, but in fact may be participating in an already ongoing transaction:

```
# method_a starts a transaction and calls method_b
def method_a(session):
    session.begin(subtransactions=True)
    try:
        method_b(session)
        session.commit() # transaction is committed here
    except:
        session.rollback() # rolls back the transaction
        raise

# method_b also starts a transaction, but when
# called from method_a participates in the ongoing
# transaction.
def method_b(session):
    session.begin(subtransactions=True)
    try:
        session.add(SomeObject('bat', 'lala'))
        session.commit() # transaction is not committed yet
    except:
        session.rollback() # rolls back the transaction, in this case
                           # the one that was initiated in method_a().
        raise

# create a Session and call method_a
session = Session(autocommit=True)
method_a(session)
session.close()
```

Subtransactions are used by the `Session.flush()` process to ensure that the flush operation takes place within a transaction, regardless of autocommit. When autocommit is disabled, it is still useful in that it forces the `Session` into a “pending rollback” state, as a failed flush cannot be resumed in mid-operation, where the end user still maintains the “scope” of the transaction overall.

Enabling Two-Phase Commit

For backends which support two-phase operation (currently MySQL and PostgreSQL), the session can be instructed to use two-phase commit semantics. This will coordinate the committing of transactions across databases so that the transaction is either committed or rolled back in all databases. You can also `prepare()` the session for interacting with transactions not managed by SQLAlchemy. To use two phase transactions set the flag `twophase=True` on the session:

```
engine1 = create_engine('postgresql://db1')
engine2 = create_engine('postgresql://db2')

Session = sessionmaker(twophase=True)

# bind User operations to engine 1, Account operations to engine 2
Session.configure(binds={User:engine1, Account:engine2})

session = Session()

# .... work with accounts and users

# commit. session will issue a flush to all DBs, and a prepare step to all DBs,
# before committing both transactions
session.commit()
```

2.6.6 Embedding SQL Insert/Update Expressions into a Flush

This feature allows the value of a database column to be set to a SQL expression instead of a literal value. It's especially useful for atomic updates, calling stored procedures, etc. All you do is assign an expression to an attribute:

```
class SomeClass(object):
    pass
mapper(SomeClass, some_table)

someobject = session.query(SomeClass).get(5)

# set 'value' attribute to a SQL expression adding one
someobject.value = some_table.c.value + 1

# issues "UPDATE some_table SET value=value+1"
session.commit()
```

This technique works both for INSERT and UPDATE statements. After the flush/commit operation, the value attribute on `someobject` above is expired, so that when next accessed the newly generated value will be loaded from the database.

2.6.7 Using SQL Expressions with Sessions

SQL expressions and strings can be executed via the `Session` within its transactional context. This is most easily accomplished using the `execute()` method, which returns a `ResultProxy` in the same manner as an `Engine` or `Connection`:

```
Session = sessionmaker(bind=engine)
session = Session()

# execute a string statement
result = session.execute("select * from table where id=:id", {'id':7})

# execute a SQL expression construct
result = session.execute(select([mytable]).where(mytable.c.id==7))
```

The current `Connection` held by the `Session` is accessible using the `connection()` method:

```
connection = session.connection()
```

The examples above deal with a `Session` that's bound to a single `Engine` or `Connection`. To execute statements using a `Session` which is bound either to multiple engines, or none at all (i.e. relies upon bound metadata), both `execute()` and `connection()` accept a `mapper` keyword argument, which is passed a mapped class or `Mapper` instance, which is used to locate the proper context for the desired engine:

```
Session = sessionmaker()
session = Session()

# need to specify mapper or class when executing
result = session.execute("select * from table where id=:id", {'id':7}, mapper=MyMappedClass)

result = session.execute(select([mytable], mytable.c.id==7), mapper=MyMappedClass)

connection = session.connection(MyMappedClass)
```

2.6.8 Joining a Session into an External Transaction

If a `Connection` is being used which is already in a transactional state (i.e. has a `Transaction` established), a `Session` can be made to participate within that transaction by just binding the `Session` to that `Connection`. The usual rationale for this is a test suite that allows ORM code to work freely with a `Session`, including the ability to call `Session.commit()`, where afterwards the entire database interaction is rolled back:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import sessionmaker
from sqlalchemy import create_engine
from unittest import TestCase

# global application scope. create Session class, engine
Session = sessionmaker()

engine = create_engine('postgresql://...')

class SomeTest(TestCase):
    def setUp(self):
        # connect to the database
        self.connection = engine.connect()

        # begin a non-ORM transaction
        self.trans = connection.begin()

        # bind an individual Session to the connection
        self.session = Session(bind=self.connection)

    def test_something(self):
        # use the session in tests.

        self.session.add(Foo())
        self.session.commit()

    def tearDown(self):
        # rollback - everything that happened with the
        # Session above (including calls to commit())
        # is rolled back.
        self.trans.rollback()
        self.session.close()
```

Above, we issue `Session.commit()` as well as `Transaction.rollback()`. This is an example of where we take advantage of the `Connection` object's ability to maintain *subtransactions*, or nested begin/commit-or-rollback pairs where only the outermost begin/commit pair actually commits the transaction, or if the outermost block rolls back, everything is rolled back.

2.6.9 Contextual/Thread-local Sessions

A common need in applications, particularly those built around web frameworks, is the ability to “share” a `Session` object among disparate parts of an application, without needing to pass the object explicitly to all method and function calls. What you're really looking for is some kind of “global” session object, or at least “global” to all the parts of an application which are tasked with servicing the current request. For this pattern, SQLAlchemy provides the ability to enhance the `Session` class generated by `sessionmaker()` to provide auto-contextualizing support. This means that whenever you create a `Session` instance with its constructor, you get an *existing* `Session` object which is bound to some “context”. By default, this context is the current thread. This feature is what previously was accomplished using the `sessioncontext` SQLAlchemy extension.

Creating a Thread-local Context

The `scoped_session()` function wraps around the `sessionmaker()` function, and produces an object which behaves the same as the `Session` subclass returned by `sessionmaker()`:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import scoped_session, sessionmaker
Session = scoped_session(sessionmaker())
```

However, when you instantiate this `Session` “class”, in reality the object is pulled from a threadlocal variable, or if it doesn't exist yet, it's created using the underlying class generated by `sessionmaker()`:

```
>>> # call Session() the first time.  the new Session instance is created.
>>> session = Session()

>>> # later, in the same application thread, someone else calls Session()
>>> session2 = Session()

>>> # the two Session objects are *the same* object
>>> session is session2
True
```

Since the `Session()` constructor now returns the same `Session` object every time within the current thread, the object returned by `scoped_session()` also implements most of the `Session` methods and properties at the “class” level, such that you don't even need to instantiate `Session()`:

```
# create some objects
u1 = User()
u2 = User()

# save to the contextual session, without instantiating
Session.add(u1)
Session.add(u2)

# view the "new" attribute
assert u1 in Session.new

# commit changes
Session.commit()
```

The contextual session may be disposed of by calling `Session.remove()`:

```
# remove current contextual session
Session.remove()
```

After `remove()` is called, the next operation with the contextual session will start a new `Session` for the current thread.

Lifespan of a Contextual Session

A (really, really) common question is when does the contextual session get created, when does it get disposed ? We'll consider a typical lifespan as used in a web application:

Web Server	Web Framework	User-defined Controller Call
-----	-----	-----
web request ->	call controller ->	<pre># call Session(). this establishes a new, # contextual Session. session = Session() # load some objects, save some changes objects = session.query(MyClass).all() # some other code calls Session, it's the # same contextual session as "sess" session2 = Session() session2.add(foo) session2.commit() # generate content to be returned return generate_content()</pre>
web response <-	Session.remove() <-	

The above example illustrates an explicit call to `ScopedSession.remove()`. This has the effect such that each web request starts fresh with a brand new session, and is the most definitive approach to closing out a request.

It's not strictly necessary to remove the session at the end of the request - other options include calling `Session.close()`, `Session.rollback()`, `Session.commit()` at the end so that the existing session returns its connections to the pool and removes any existing transactional context. Doing nothing is an option too, if individual controller methods take responsibility for ensuring that no transactions remain open after a request ends.

Contextual Session API

`sqlalchemy.orm.scoped_session(session_factory, scopefunc=None)`

Provides thread-local or scoped management of `Session` objects.

This is a front-end function to `ScopedSession`:

```
Session = scoped_session(sessionmaker(autoflush=True))
```

To instantiate a `Session` object which is part of the scoped context, instantiate normally:

```
session = Session()
```

Most session methods are available as classmethods from the scoped session:

```
Session.commit()
Session.close()
```

See also: *Contextual/Thread-local Sessions*.

Parameters

- **session_factory** – a callable function that produces `Session` instances, such as `sessionmaker()`.
- **scopefunc** – Optional “scope” function which would be passed to the `ScopedRegistry`. If None, the `ThreadLocalRegistry` is used by default.

Returns a `ScopedSession` instance

class sqlalchemy.orm.scoping.**ScopedSession**(session_factory, scopefunc=None)
Provides thread-local management of Sessions.

Typical invocation is via the `scoped_session()` function:

```
Session = scoped_session(sessionmaker())
```

The internal registry is accessible, and by default is an instance of `ThreadLocalRegistry`.

See also: *Contextual/Thread-local Sessions*.

configure(**kwargs)
reconfigure the sessionmaker used by this `ScopedSession`.

query_property(query_cls=None)
return a class property which produces a *Query* object against the class when called.
e.g.:

```
Session = scoped_session(sessionmaker())
```

```
class MyClass(object):
    query = Session.query_property()

# after mappers are defined
result = MyClass.query.filter(MyClass.name=='foo').all()
```

Produces instances of the session’s configured query class by default. To override and use a custom implementation, provide a `query_cls` callable. The callable will be invoked with the class’s mapper as a positional argument and a session keyword argument.

There is no limit to the number of query properties placed on a class.

remove()
Dispose of the current contextual session.

class sqlalchemy.util.**ScopedRegistry**(createfunc, scopefunc)
A Registry that can store one or multiple instances of a single class on the basis of a “scope” function.

The object implements `__call__` as the “getter”, so by calling `myregistry()` the contained object is returned for the current scope.

Parameters

- **createfunc** – a callable that returns a new object to be placed in the registry
- **scopefunc** – a callable that will return a key to store/retrieve an object.


```
__init__(createfunc, scopefunc)
    Construct a new ScopedRegistry.
```

Parameters

- **createfunc** – A creation function that will generate a new value for the current scope, if none is present.
- **scopefunc** – A function that returns a hashable token representing the current scope (such as, current thread identifier).

```
clear()
    Clear the current scope, if any.
```

```
has()
    Return True if an object is present in the current scope.
```

```
set(obj)
    Set the value for the current scope.
```

```
class sqlalchemy.util.ThreadLocalRegistry(createfunc)
    A ScopedRegistry that uses a threading.local() variable for storage.
```

2.6.10 Partitioning Strategies

Vertical Partitioning

Vertical partitioning places different kinds of objects, or different tables, across multiple databases:

```
engine1 = create_engine('postgresql://db1')
engine2 = create_engine('postgresql://db2')

Session = sessionmaker(twophase=True)

# bind User operations to engine 1, Account operations to engine 2
Session.configure(binds={User:engine1, Account:engine2})

session = Session()
```

Horizontal Partitioning

Horizontal partitioning partitions the rows of a single table (or a set of tables) across multiple databases.

See the “sharding” example: [Horizontal Sharding](#).

2.6.11 Sessions API

Session and sessionmaker()

```
sqlalchemy.orm.session.sessionmaker(bind=None, class_=None, autoflush=True, autocommit=False, expire_on_commit=True, **kwargs)
    Generate a custom-configured Session class.
```

The returned object is a subclass of `Session`, which, when instantiated with no arguments, uses the keyword arguments configured here as its constructor arguments.

It is intended that the `sessionmaker()` function be called within the global scope of an application, and the returned class be made available to the rest of the application as the single class used to instantiate sessions.

e.g.:

```
# global scope
Session = sessionmaker(autoflush=False)

# later, in a local scope, create and use a session:
sess = Session()
```

Any keyword arguments sent to the constructor itself will override the “configured” keywords:

```
Session = sessionmaker()

# bind an individual session to a connection
sess = Session(bind=connection)
```

The class also includes a special classmethod `configure()`, which allows additional configurational options to take place after the custom `Session` class has been generated. This is useful particularly for defining the specific Engine (or engines) to which new instances of `Session` should be bound:

```
Session = sessionmaker()
Session.configure(bind=create_engine('sqlite:///foo.db'))

sess = Session()
```

For options, see the constructor options for `Session`.

```
class sqlalchemy.orm.session.Session(bind=None, autoflush=True, expire_on_commit=True,
                                     _enable_transaction_accounting=True, autocommit=False, twophase=False, weak_identity_map=True,
                                     binds=None, extension=None, query_cls=<class 'sqlalchemy.orm.query.Query'>)
```

Manages persistence operations for ORM-mapped objects.

The Session’s usage paradigm is described at [Using the Session](#).

```
__init__(bind=None, autoflush=True, expire_on_commit=True, _enable_transaction_accounting=True, autocommit=False, twophase=False,
         weak_identity_map=True, binds=None, extension=None, query_cls=<class 'sqlalchemy.orm.query.Query'>)
```

Construct a new Session.

See also the `sessionmaker()` function which is used to generate a `Session`-producing callable with a given set of arguments.

Parameters

- **autocommit** – Defaults to `False`. When `True`, the `Session` does not keep a persistent transaction running, and will acquire connections from the engine on an as-needed basis, returning them immediately after their use. Flushes will begin and commit (or possibly rollback) their own transaction if no transaction is present. When using this mode, the `session.begin()` method may be used to begin a transaction explicitly.

Leaving it on its default value of `False` means that the `Session` will acquire a connection and begin a transaction the first time it is used, which it will maintain persistently until `rollback()`, `commit()`, or `close()` is called. When the transaction is released by

any of these methods, the `Session` is ready for the next usage, which will again acquire and maintain a new connection/transaction.

- **autoflush** – When `True`, all query operations will issue a `flush()` call to this `Session` before proceeding. This is a convenience feature so that `flush()` need not be called repeatedly in order for database queries to retrieve results. It's typical that `autoflush` is used in conjunction with `autocommit=False`. In this scenario, explicit calls to `flush()` are rarely needed; you usually only need to call `commit()` (which flushes) to finalize changes.
- **bind** – An optional `Engine` or `Connection` to which this `Session` should be bound. When specified, all SQL operations performed by this session will execute via this connectable.
- **binds** –

An optional dictionary which contains more granular “bind” information than the `bind` parameter provides. This dictionary can map individual `Table` instances as well as `Mapper` instances to individual `Engine` or `Connection` objects. Operations which proceed relative to a particular `Mapper` will consult this dictionary for the direct `Mapper` instance as well as the `mapper's mapped_table` attribute in order to locate an connectable to use. The full resolution is described in the `get_bind()` method of `Session`. Usage looks like:

```
Session = sessionmaker(binds={
    SomeMappedClass: create_engine('postgresql://engine1'),
    somemapper: create_engine('postgresql://engine2'),
    some_table: create_engine('postgresql://engine3'),
})
```

Also see the `Session.bind_mapper()` and `Session.bind_table()` methods.

- **class_** – Specify an alternate class other than `sqlalchemy.orm.session.Session` which should be used by the returned class. This is the only argument that is local to the `sessionmaker()` function, and is not sent directly to the constructor for `Session`.
- **_enable_transaction_accounting** – Defaults to `True`. A legacy-only flag which when `False` disables *all* 0.5-style object accounting on transaction boundaries, including auto-expiry of instances on rollback and commit, maintenance of the “new” and “deleted” lists upon rollback, and autoflush of pending changes upon `begin()`, all of which are interdependent.
- **expire_on_commit** – Defaults to `True`. When `True`, all instances will be fully expired after each `commit()`, so that all attribute/object access subsequent to a completed transaction will load from the most recent database state.
- **extension** – An optional `SessionExtension` instance, or a list of such instances, which will receive pre- and post- commit and flush events, as well as a post-rollback event. **Deprecated.** Please see `SessionEvents`.
- **query_cls** – Class which should be used to create new `Query` objects, as returned by the `query()` method. Defaults to `Query`.
- **twophase** – When `True`, all transactions will be started as a “two phase” transaction, i.e. using the “two phase” semantics of the database in use along with an `XID`. During a `commit()`, after `flush()` has been issued for all attached databases, the `prepare()` method on each database's `TwoPhaseTransaction` will be called. This allows each database to roll back the entire transaction, before each transaction is committed.

- **weak_identity_map** – Defaults to `True` - when set to `False`, objects placed in the `Session` will be strongly referenced until explicitly removed or the `Session` is closed.
Deprecated - this option is obsolete.

add (*instance*)

Place an object in the `Session`.

Its state will be persisted to the database on the next flush operation.

Repeated calls to `add()` will be ignored. The opposite of `add()` is `expunge()`.

add_all (*instances*)

Add the given collection of instances to this `Session`.

begin (*subtransactions=False, nested=False*)

Begin a transaction on this `Session`.

If this `Session` is already within a transaction, either a plain transaction or nested transaction, an error is raised, unless `subtransactions=True` or `nested=True` is specified.

The `subtransactions=True` flag indicates that this `begin()` can create a subtransaction if a transaction is already in progress. For documentation on subtransactions, please see [Using Subtransactions with Autocommit](#).

The `nested` flag begins a SAVEPOINT transaction and is equivalent to calling `begin_nested()`. For documentation on SAVEPOINT transactions, please see [Using SAVEPOINT](#).

begin_nested ()

Begin a *nested* transaction on this `Session`.

The target database(s) must support SQL SAVEPOINTS or a SQLAlchemy-supported vendor implementation of the idea.

For documentation on SAVEPOINT transactions, please see [Using SAVEPOINT](#).

bind_mapper (*mapper, bind*)

Bind operations for a mapper to a `Connectable`.

mapper A mapper instance or mapped class

bind Any `Connectable`: a `Engine` or `Connection`.

All subsequent operations involving this mapper will use the given *bind*.

bind_table (*table, bind*)

Bind operations on a `Table` to a `Connectable`.

table A `Table` instance

bind Any `Connectable`: a `Engine` or `Connection`.

All subsequent operations involving this `Table` will use the given *bind*.

close ()

Close this `Session`.

This clears all items and ends any transaction in progress.

If this session were created with `autocommit=False`, a new transaction is immediately begun. Note that this new transaction does not use any connection resources until they are first needed.

classmethod close_all ()

Close *all* sessions in memory.

commit()

Flush pending changes and commit the current transaction.

If no transaction is in progress, this method raises an `InvalidRequestError`.

By default, the `Session` also expires all database loaded state on all ORM-managed attributes after transaction commit. This so that subsequent operations load the most recent data from the database. This behavior can be disabled using the `expire_on_commit=False` option to `sessionmaker()` or the `Session` constructor.

If a subtransaction is in effect (which occurs when `begin()` is called multiple times), the subtransaction will be closed, and the next call to `commit()` will operate on the enclosing transaction.

For a session configured with `autocommit=False`, a new transaction will be begun immediately after the commit, but note that the newly begun transaction does *not* use any connection resources until the first SQL is actually emitted.

connection (*mapper=None, clause=None, bind=None, close_with_result=False, **kw*)

Return a `Connection` object corresponding to this `Session` object's transactional state.

If this `Session` is configured with `autocommit=False`, either the `Connection` corresponding to the current transaction is returned, or if no transaction is in progress, a new one is begun and the `Connection` returned.

Alternatively, if this `Session` is configured with `autocommit=True`, an ad-hoc `Connection` is returned using `Engine.contextual_connect()` on the underlying `Engine`.

Ambiguity in multi-bind or unbound `Session` objects can be resolved through any of the optional keyword arguments. This ultimately makes usage of the `get_bind()` method for resolution.

Parameters

- **bind** – Optional `Engine` to be used as the bind. If this engine is already involved in an ongoing transaction, that connection will be used. This argument takes precedence over `mapper`, `clause`.
- **mapper** – Optional `mapper()` mapped class, used to identify the appropriate bind. This argument takes precedence over `clause`.
- **clause** – A `ClauseElement` (i.e. `select()`, `text()`, etc.) which will be used to locate a bind, if a bind cannot otherwise be identified.
- **close_with_result** – Passed to `Engine.connect()`, indicating the `Connection` should be considered “single use”, automatically closing when the first result set is closed. This flag only has an effect if this `Session` is configured with `autocommit=True` and does not already have a transaction in progress.
- ****kw** – Additional keyword arguments are sent to `get_bind()`, allowing additional arguments to be passed to custom implementations of `get_bind()`.

delete (*instance*)

Mark an instance as deleted.

The database delete operation occurs upon `flush()`.

deleted

The set of all instances marked as ‘deleted’ within this `Session`

dirty

The set of all persistent instances considered dirty.

Instances are considered dirty when they were modified but not deleted.

Note that this ‘dirty’ calculation is ‘optimistic’; most attribute-setting or collection modification operations will mark an instance as ‘dirty’ and place it in this set, even if there is no net change to the attribute’s value. At flush time, the value of each attribute is compared to its previously saved value, and if there’s no net change, no SQL operation will occur (this is a more expensive operation so it’s only done at flush time).

To check if an instance has actionable net changes to its attributes, use the `is_modified()` method.

execute (*clause*, *params=None*, *mapper=None*, *bind=None*, ***kw*)

Execute a clause within the current transaction.

Returns a `ResultProxy` representing results of the statement execution, in the same manner as that of an `Engine` or `Connection`.

`execute()` accepts any executable clause construct, such as `select()`, `insert()`, `update()`, `delete()`, and `text()`, and additionally accepts plain strings that represent SQL statements. If a plain string is passed, it is first converted to a `text()` construct, which here means that bind parameters should be specified using the format `:param`. If raw DBAPI statement execution is desired, use `Session.connection()` to acquire a `Connection`, then call its `execute()` method.

The statement is executed within the current transactional context of this `Session`, using the same behavior as that of the `Session.connection()` method to determine the active `Connection`. The `close_with_result` flag is set to `True` so that an `autocommit=True` `Session` with no active transaction will produce a result that auto-closes the underlying `Connection`.

Parameters

- **clause** – A `ClauseElement` (i.e. `select()`, `text()`, etc.) or string SQL statement to be executed. The clause will also be used to locate a bind, if this `Session` is not bound to a single engine already, and the `mapper` and `bind` arguments are not passed.
- **params** – Optional dictionary of bind names mapped to values.
- **mapper** – Optional `mapper()` or mapped class, used to identify the appropriate bind. This argument takes precedence over `clause` when locating a bind.
- **bind** – Optional `Engine` to be used as the bind. If this engine is already involved in an ongoing transaction, that connection will be used. This argument takes precedence over `mapper` and `clause` when locating a bind.
- ****kw** – Additional keyword arguments are sent to `get_bind()`, allowing additional arguments to be passed to custom implementations of `get_bind()`.

expire (*instance*, *attribute_names=None*)

Expire the attributes on an instance.

Marks the attributes of an instance as out of date. When an expired attribute is next accessed, a query will be issued to the `Session` object’s current transactional context in order to load all expired attributes for the given instance. Note that a highly isolated transaction will return the same values as were previously read in that same transaction, regardless of changes in database state outside of that transaction.

To expire all objects in the `Session` simultaneously, use `Session.expire_all()`.

The `Session` object’s default behavior is to expire all state whenever the `Session.rollback()` or `Session.commit()` methods are called, so that new state can be loaded for the new transaction. For this reason, calling `Session.expire()` only makes sense for the specific case that a non-ORM SQL statement was emitted in the current transaction.

Parameters

- **instance** – The instance to be refreshed.
- **attribute_names** – optional list of string attribute names indicating a subset of attributes to be expired.

expire_all()

Expires all persistent instances within this Session.

When any attributes on a persistent instance is next accessed, a query will be issued using the `Session` object's current transactional context in order to load all expired attributes for the given instance. Note that a highly isolated transaction will return the same values as were previously read in that same transaction, regardless of changes in database state outside of that transaction.

To expire individual objects and individual attributes on those objects, use `Session.expire()`.

The `Session` object's default behavior is to expire all state whenever the `Session.rollback()` or `Session.commit()` methods are called, so that new state can be loaded for the new transaction. For this reason, calling `Session.expire_all()` should not be needed when `autocommit` is `False`, assuming the transaction is isolated.

expunge(instance)

Remove the *instance* from this Session.

This will free all internal references to the instance. Cascading will be applied according to the *expunge* cascade rule.

expunge_all()

Remove all object instances from this Session.

This is equivalent to calling `expunge(obj)` on all objects in this Session.

flush(objects=None)

Flush all the object changes to the database.

Writes out all pending object creations, deletions and modifications to the database as INSERTs, DELETEs, UPDATEs, etc. Operations are automatically ordered by the Session's unit of work dependency solver.

Database operations will be issued in the current transactional context and do not affect the state of the transaction, unless an error occurs, in which case the entire transaction is rolled back. You may `flush()` as often as you like within a transaction to move changes from Python to the database's transaction buffer.

For `autocommit` Sessions with no active manual transaction, `flush()` will create a transaction on the fly that surrounds the entire set of operations into the flush.

objects Optional; a list or tuple collection. Restricts the flush operation to only these objects, rather than all pending changes. Deprecated - this flag prevents the session from properly maintaining accounting among inter-object relations and can cause invalid results.

get_bind(mapper, clause=None)

Return an engine corresponding to the given arguments.

All arguments are optional.

mapper Optional, a Mapper or mapped class

clause Optional, A ClauseElement (i.e. `select()`, `text()`, etc.)

is_active

True if this Session has an active transaction.

is_modified(instance, include_collections=True, passive=<symbol 'PASSIVE_OFF'>)

Return True if instance has modified attributes.

This method retrieves a history instance for each instrumented attribute on the instance and performs a comparison of the current value to its previously committed value.

`include_collections` indicates if multivalued collections should be included in the operation. Setting this to `False` is a way to detect only local-column based properties (i.e. scalar columns or many-to-one foreign keys) that would result in an `UPDATE` for this instance upon flush.

The `passive` flag indicates if unloaded attributes and collections should not be loaded in the course of performing this test. Allowed values include `PASSIVE_OFF`, `PASSIVE_NO_INITIALIZE`.

A few caveats to this method apply:

- Instances present in the ‘dirty’ collection may result in a value of `False` when tested with this method. This because while the object may have received attribute set events, there may be no net changes on its state.
- Scalar attributes may not have recorded the “previously” set value when a new value was applied, if the attribute was not loaded, or was expired, at the time the new value was received - in these cases, the attribute is assumed to have a change, even if there is ultimately no net change against its database value. SQLAlchemy in most cases does not need the “old” value when a set event occurs, so it skips the expense of a SQL call if the old value isn’t present, based on the assumption that an `UPDATE` of the scalar value is usually needed, and in those few cases where it isn’t, is less expensive on average than issuing a defensive `SELECT`.

The “old” value is fetched unconditionally only if the attribute container has the “active_history” flag set to `True`. This flag is set typically for primary key attributes and scalar references that are not a simple many-to-one.

merge (*instance*, *load=True*, ***kw*)

Copy the state an instance onto the persistent instance with the same identifier.

If there is no persistent instance currently associated with the session, it will be loaded. Return the persistent instance. If the given instance is unsaved, save a copy of and return it as a newly persistent instance. The given instance does not become associated with the session.

This operation cascades to associated instances if the association is mapped with `cascade="merge"`.

See [Merging](#) for a detailed discussion of merging.

new

The set of all instances marked as ‘new’ within this `Session`.

classmethod object_session (*instance*)

Return the `Session` to which an object belongs.

prepare ()

Prepare the current transaction in progress for two phase commit.

If no transaction is in progress, this method raises an `InvalidRequestError`.

Only root transactions of two phase sessions can be prepared. If the current transaction is not such, an `InvalidRequestError` is raised.

prune ()

Remove unreferenced instances cached in the identity map. Deprecated since version 0.7: The non-weak-referencing identity map feature is no longer needed. Note that this method is only meaningful if “weak_identity_map” is set to `False`. The default weak identity map is self-pruning.

Removes any object in this `Session`’s identity map that is not referenced in user code, modified, new or scheduled for deletion. Returns the number of objects pruned.

query (**entities*, ***kwargs*)

Return a new `Query` object corresponding to this `Session`.

refresh (*instance*, *attribute_names=None*, *lockmode=None*)

Expire and refresh the attributes on the given instance.

A query will be issued to the database and all attributes will be refreshed with their current database value.

Lazy-loaded relational attributes will remain lazily loaded, so that the instance-wide refresh operation will be followed immediately by the lazy load of that attribute.

Eagerly-loaded relational attributes will eagerly load within the single refresh operation.

Note that a highly isolated transaction will return the same values as were previously read in that same transaction, regardless of changes in database state outside of that transaction - usage of `refresh()` usually only makes sense if non-ORM SQL statement were emitted in the ongoing transaction, or if auto-commit mode is turned on.

Parameters

- **attribute_names** – optional. An iterable collection of string attribute names indicating a subset of attributes to be refreshed.
- **lockmode** – Passed to the `Query` as used by `with_lockmode()`.

`rollback()`

Rollback the current transaction in progress.

If no transaction is in progress, this method is a pass-through.

This method rolls back the current transaction or nested transaction regardless of subtransactions being in effect. All subtransactions up to the first real transaction are closed. Subtransactions occur when `begin()` is called multiple times.

scalar (*clause*, *params=None*, *mapper=None*, *bind=None*, ***kw*)

Like `execute()` but return a scalar result.

Session Utilities

`sqlalchemy.orm.session.make_transient(instance)`

Make the given instance ‘transient’.

This will remove its association with any session and additionally will remove its “identity key”, such that it’s as though the object were newly constructed, except retaining its values. It also resets the “deleted” flag on the state if this object had been explicitly deleted by its session.

Attributes which were “expired” or deferred at the instance level are reverted to undefined, and will not trigger any loads.

`sqlalchemy.orm.session.object_session(instance)`

Return the `Session` to which instance belongs.

If the instance is not a mapped instance, an error is raised.

Attribute and State Management Utilities

These functions are provided by the SQLAlchemy attribute instrumentation API to provide a detailed interface for dealing with instances, attribute values, and history. Some of them are useful when constructing event listener functions, such as those described in *events_orm_toplevel*.

`sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.del_attribute(instance, key)`

Delete the value of an attribute, firing history events.

This function may be used regardless of instrumentation applied directly to the class, i.e. no descriptors are required. Custom attribute management schemes will need to make usage of this method to establish attribute state as understood by SQLAlchemy.

`sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.get_attribute(instance, key)`

Get the value of an attribute, firing any callables required.

This function may be used regardless of instrumentation applied directly to the class, i.e. no descriptors are required. Custom attribute management schemes will need to make usage of this method to make usage of attribute state as understood by SQLAlchemy.

`sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.get_history(obj, key, passive=<symbol 'PASSIVE_OFF'>)`

Return a [History](#) record for the given object and attribute key.

Parameters

- **obj** – an object whose class is instrumented by the attributes package.
- **key** – string attribute name.
- **passive** – indicates if the attribute should be loaded from the database if not already present (`PASSIVE_NO_FETCH`), and if the attribute should be not initialized to a blank value otherwise (`PASSIVE_NO_INITIALIZE`). Default is `PASSIVE_OFF`.

`sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.init_collection(obj, key)`

Initialize a collection attribute and return the collection adapter.

This function is used to provide direct access to collection internals for a previously unloaded attribute. e.g.:

```
collection_adapter = init_collection(someobject, 'elements')
for elem in values:
    collection_adapter.append_without_event(elem)
```

For an easier way to do the above, see [set_committed_value\(\)](#).

obj is an instrumented object instance. An `InstanceState` is accepted directly for backwards compatibility but this usage is deprecated.

`sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.flag_modified(instance, key)`

Mark an attribute on an instance as 'modified'.

This sets the 'modified' flag on the instance and establishes an unconditional change event for the given attribute.

`sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.instance_state()`

Return the [InstanceState](#) for a given object.

`sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.manager_of_class()`

Return the [ClassManager](#) for a given class.

`sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.set_attribute(instance, key, value)`

Set the value of an attribute, firing history events.

This function may be used regardless of instrumentation applied directly to the class, i.e. no descriptors are required. Custom attribute management schemes will need to make usage of this method to establish attribute state as understood by SQLAlchemy.

`sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.set_committed_value(instance, key, value)`

Set the value of an attribute with no history events.

Cancels any previous history present. The value should be a scalar value for scalar-holding attributes, or an iterable for any collection-holding attribute.

This is the same underlying method used when a lazy loader fires off and loads additional data from the database. In particular, this method can be used by application code which has loaded additional attributes or collections through separate queries, which can then be attached to an instance as though it were part of its original loaded state.

class sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.**History**

A 3-tuple of added, unchanged and deleted values, representing the changes which have occurred on an instrumented attribute.

Each tuple member is an iterable sequence.

added

Return the collection of items added to the attribute (the first tuple element).

deleted

Return the collection of items that have been removed from the attribute (the third tuple element).

empty()

Return True if this [History](#) has no changes and no existing, unchanged state.

has_changes()

Return True if this [History](#) has changes.

non_added()

Return a collection of unchanged + deleted.

non_deleted()

Return a collection of added + unchanged.

sum()

Return a collection of added + unchanged + deleted.

unchanged

Return the collection of items that have not changed on the attribute (the second tuple element).

sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.**PASSIVE_NO_INITIALIZE**

Symbol indicating that loader callables should not be fired off, and a non-initialized attribute should remain that way.

sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.**PASSIVE_NO_FETCH**

Symbol indicating that loader callables should not emit SQL, but a value can be fetched from the current session.

Non-initialized attributes should be initialized to an empty value.

sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.**PASSIVE_NO_FETCH_RELATED**

Symbol indicating that loader callables should not emit SQL for loading a related object, but can refresh the attributes of the local instance in order to locate a related object in the current session.

Non-initialized attributes should be initialized to an empty value.

The unit of work uses this mode to check if history is present on many-to-one attributes with minimal SQL emitted.

sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.**PASSIVE_ONLY_PERSISTENT**

Symbol indicating that loader callables should only fire off for parent objects which are persistent (i.e., have a database identity).

Load operations for the “previous” value of an attribute make use of this flag during change events.

sqlalchemy.orm.attributes.**PASSIVE_OFF**

Symbol indicating that loader callables should be executed normally.

2.7 Querying

This section provides API documentation for the [Query](#) object and related constructs.

For an in-depth introduction to querying with the SQLAlchemy ORM, please see the [Object Relational Tutorial](#).

2.7.1 The Query Object

`Query` is produced in terms of a given `Session`, using the `query()` function:

```
q = session.query(SomeMappedClass)
```

Following is the full interface for the `Query` object.

class sqlalchemy.orm.query.**Query** (*entities, session=None*)
ORM-level SQL construction object.

`Query` is the source of all SELECT statements generated by the ORM, both those formulated by end-user query operations as well as by high level internal operations such as related collection loading. It features a generative interface whereby successive calls return a new `Query` object, a copy of the former with additional criteria and options associated with it.

`Query` objects are normally initially generated using the `query()` method of `Session`. For a full walk-through of `Query` usage, see the *Object Relational Tutorial*.

add_column (*column*)

Add a column expression to the list of result columns to be returned.

Pending deprecation: `add_column()` will be superseded by `add_columns()`.

add_columns (**column*)

Add one or more column expressions to the list of result columns to be returned.

add_entity (*entity, alias=None*)

add a mapped entity to the list of result columns to be returned.

all ()

Return the results represented by this `Query` as a list.

This results in an execution of the underlying query.

as_scalar ()

Return the full SELECT statement represented by this `Query`, converted to a scalar subquery.

Analogous to `sqlalchemy.sql._SelectBaseMixin.as_scalar()`.

New in 0.6.5.

autoflush (*setting*)

Return a `Query` with a specific 'autoflush' setting.

Note that a `Session` with `autoflush=False` will not autoflush, even if this flag is set to `True` at the `Query` level. Therefore this flag is usually used only to disable autoflush for a specific `Query`.

column_descriptions

Return metadata about the columns which would be returned by this `Query`.

Format is a list of dictionaries:

```
user_alias = aliased(User, name='user2')
q = sess.query(User, User.id, user_alias)
```

```
# this expression:
```

```
q.column_descriptions
```

```
# would return:
```

```
[
    {
        'name': 'User',
```

```

        'type': User,
        'aliased': False,
        'expr': User,
    },
    {
        'name': 'id',
        'type': Integer(),
        'aliased': False,
        'expr': User.id,
    },
    {
        'name': 'user2',
        'type': User,
        'aliased': True,
        'expr': user_alias
    }
]

```

correlate(*args)

Return a `Query` construct which will correlate the given FROM clauses to that of an enclosing `Query` or `select()`.

The method here accepts mapped classes, `aliased()` constructs, and `mapper()` constructs as arguments, which are resolved into expression constructs, in addition to appropriate expression constructs.

The correlation arguments are ultimately passed to `Select.correlate()` after coercion to expression constructs.

The correlation arguments take effect in such cases as when `Query.from_self()` is used, or when a subquery as returned by `Query.subquery()` is embedded in another `select()` construct.

count()

Return a count of rows this Query would return.

This generates the SQL for this Query as follows:

```

SELECT count(1) AS count_1 FROM (
    SELECT <rest of query follows...>
) AS anon_1

```

Note the above scheme is newly refined in 0.7 (as of 0.7b3).

For fine grained control over specific columns to count, to skip the usage of a subquery or otherwise control of the FROM clause, or to use other aggregate functions, use `func` expressions in conjunction with `query()`, i.e.:

```

from sqlalchemy import func

# count User records, without
# using a subquery.
session.query(func.count(User.id))

# return count of user "id" grouped
# by "name"
session.query(func.count(User.id)).\
    group_by(User.name)

```

```
from sqlalchemy import distinct

# count distinct "name" values
session.query(func.count(distinct(User.name)))
```

delete (*synchronize_session='evaluate'*)

Perform a bulk delete query.

Deletes rows matched by this query from the database.

Parameters *synchronize_session* – chooses the strategy for the removal of matched objects from the session. Valid values are:

False - don't synchronize the session. This option is the most efficient and is reliable once the session is expired, which typically occurs after a `commit()`, or explicitly using `expire_all()`. Before the expiration, objects may still remain in the session which were in fact deleted which can lead to confusing results if they are accessed via `get()` or already loaded collections.

'fetch' - performs a select query before the delete to find objects that are matched by the delete query and need to be removed from the session. Matched objects are removed from the session.

'evaluate' - Evaluate the query's criteria in Python straight on the objects in the session. If evaluation of the criteria isn't implemented, an error is raised. In that case you probably want to use the 'fetch' strategy as a fallback.

The expression evaluator currently doesn't account for differing string collations between the database and Python.

Returns the number of rows deleted, excluding any cascades.

The method does *not* offer in-Python cascading of relationships - it is assumed that ON DELETE CASCADE is configured for any foreign key references which require it. The Session needs to be expired (occurs automatically after `commit()`, or call `expire_all()`) in order for the state of dependent objects subject to delete or delete-orphan cascade to be correctly represented.

Also, the `before_delete()` and `after_delete()` `MapperExtension` methods are not called from this method. For a delete hook here, use the `SessionExtension.after_bulk_delete()` event hook.

distinct (**criterion*)

Apply a DISTINCT to the query and return the newly resulting Query.

Parameters **expr* – optional column expressions. When present, the Postgresql dialect will render a DISTINCT ON (<expressions>>) construct.

enable_assertions (*value*)

Control whether assertions are generated.

When set to False, the returned Query will not assert its state before certain operations, including that LIMIT/OFFSET has not been applied when `filter()` is called, no criterion exists when `get()` is called, and no "from_statement()" exists when `filter()/order_by()/group_by()` etc. is called. This more permissive mode is used by custom Query subclasses to specify criterion or other modifiers outside of the usual usage patterns.

Care should be taken to ensure that the usage pattern is even possible. A statement applied by `from_statement()` will override any criterion set by `filter()` or `order_by()`, for example.

enable_eagerloads (*value*)

Control whether or not eager joins and subqueries are rendered.

When set to False, the returned Query will not render eager joins regardless of `joinedload()`, `subqueryload()` options or mapper-level `lazy='joined'`/`lazy='subquery'` configurations.

This is used primarily when nesting the Query's statement into a subquery or other selectable.

except_ (*q)

Produce an EXCEPT of this Query against one or more queries.

Works the same way as `union()`. See that method for usage examples.

except_all (*q)

Produce an EXCEPT ALL of this Query against one or more queries.

Works the same way as `union()`. See that method for usage examples.

execution_options (**kwargs)

Set non-SQL options which take effect during execution.

The options are the same as those accepted by `Connection.execution_options()`.

Note that the `stream_results` execution option is enabled automatically if the `yield_per()` method is used.

filter (criterion)

apply the given filtering criterion to the query and return the newly resulting Query

the criterion is any `sql.ClauseElement` applicable to the WHERE clause of a select.

filter_by (**kwargs)

apply the given filtering criterion to the query and return the newly resulting Query.

first ()

Return the first result of this Query or None if the result doesn't contain any row.

`first()` applies a limit of one within the generated SQL, so that only one primary entity row is generated on the server side (note this may consist of multiple result rows if join-loaded collections are present).

Calling `first()` results in an execution of the underlying query.

from_self (*entities)

return a Query that selects from this Query's SELECT statement.

*entities - optional list of entities which will replace those being selected.

from_statement (statement)

Execute the given SELECT statement and return results.

This method bypasses all internal statement compilation, and the statement is executed without modification.

The statement argument is either a string, a `select()` construct, or a `text()` construct, and should return the set of columns appropriate to the entity class represented by this Query.

get (ident)

Return an instance based on the given primary key identifier, or None if not found.

E.g.:

```
my_user = session.query(User).get(5)
```

```
some_object = session.query(VersionedFoo).get((5, 10))
```

`get()` is special in that it provides direct access to the identity map of the owning `Session`. If the given primary key identifier is present in the local identity map, the object is returned directly from this

collection and no SQL is emitted, unless the object has been marked fully expired. If not present, a SELECT is performed in order to locate the object.

`get()` also will perform a check if the object is present in the identity map and marked as expired - a SELECT is emitted to refresh the object as well as to ensure that the row is still present. If not, `ObjectDeletedError` is raised.

`get()` is only used to return a single mapped instance, not multiple instances or individual column constructs, and strictly on a single primary key value. The originating `Query` must be constructed in this way, i.e. against a single mapped entity, with no additional filtering criterion. Loading options via `options()` may be applied however, and will be used if the object is not yet locally present.

A lazy-loading, many-to-one attribute configured by `relationship()`, using a simple foreign-key-to-primary-key criterion, will also use an operation equivalent to `get()` in order to retrieve the target value from the local identity map before querying the database. See [Relationship Loading Techniques](#) for further details on relationship loading.

Parameters `ident` – A scalar or tuple value representing the primary key. For a composite primary key, the order of identifiers corresponds in most cases to that of the mapped `Table` object’s primary key columns. For a `mapper()` that was given the `primary_key` argument during construction, the order of identifiers corresponds to the elements present in this collection.

Returns The object instance, or `None`.

group_by (**criterion*)

apply one or more GROUP BY criterion to the query and return the newly resulting `Query`

having (*criterion*)

apply a HAVING criterion to the query and return the newly resulting `Query`.

instances (*cursor*, *_Query__context=None*)

Given a ResultProxy cursor as returned by `connection.execute()`, return an ORM result as an iterator.

e.g.:

```
result = engine.execute("select * from users")
for u in session.query(User).instances(result):
    print u
```

intersect (**q*)

Produce an INTERSECT of this `Query` against one or more queries.

Works the same way as `union()`. See that method for usage examples.

intersect_all (**q*)

Produce an INTERSECT ALL of this `Query` against one or more queries.

Works the same way as `union()`. See that method for usage examples.

join (**props*, ***kwargs*)

Create a join against this `Query` object’s criterion and apply generatively, returning the newly resulting `Query`.

Each element in `*props` may be:

- a string property name, i.e. “rooms”. This will join along the relationship of the same name from this `Query`’s “primary” mapper, if one is present.
- a class-mapped attribute, i.e. `Houses.rooms`. This will create a join from “Houses” table to that of the “rooms” relationship.

A two-element form of `*props` may also be passed. In this form, the first element is a target class or selectable, the second is a string property name, class-mapped attribute, or clause construct representing an “ON” clause. This supersedes the previous “tuple” calling form - multiple `join()` calls should be used for multiple (target, onclause) pairs.

e.g.:

```
# join along string attribute names
session.query(Company).join('employees')
session.query(Company).join('employees', 'tasks')

# join the Person entity to an alias of itself,
# along the "friends" relationship
PAlias = aliased(Person)
session.query(Person).join(PAlias, Person.friends)

# join from Houses to the "rooms" attribute on the
# "Colonials" subclass of Houses, then join to the
# "closets" relationship on Room
session.query(Houses).join(Colonials.rooms, Room.closets)

# join from Company entities to the "employees" collection,
# using "people JOIN engineers" as the target. Then join
# to the "computers" collection on the Engineer entity.
session.query(Company). \
    join(people.join(engineers), 'employees'). \
    join(Engineer.computers)

# join from Articles to Keywords, using the "keywords" attribute.
# assume this is a many-to-many relationship.
session.query(Article).join(Article.keywords)

# same thing, but spelled out entirely explicitly
# including the association table.
session.query(Article).join(article_keywords,
    Articles.id==article_keywords.c.article_id). \
    join(Keyword,
    Keyword.id==article_keywords.c.keyword_id)
```

****kwargs** include:

`aliased` - when joining, create anonymous aliases of each table. This is used for self-referential joins or multiple joins to the same table. Consider usage of the `aliased(SomeClass)` construct as a more explicit approach to this.

`from_joinpoint` - the given join conditions will attempt to join from the right endpoint of the most recent `join()`, instead of from the query’s root entity. I.e. any chain of joins, such as:

```
query.join(a, b, c)
```

is equivalent to:

```
query.join(a). \
    join(b, from_joinpoint=True). \
    join(c, from_joinpoint=True)
```

See also [Querying with Joins](#) in the ORM tutorial.

label (*name*)

Return the full SELECT statement represented by this [Query](#), converted to a scalar subquery with a label of the given name.

Analogous to `sqlalchemy.sql._SelectBaseMixin.label()`.

New in 0.6.5.

limit (*limit*)

Apply a LIMIT to the query and return the newly resulting

[Query](#).

merge_result (*iterator*, *load=True*)

Merge a result into this [Query](#)'s Session.

Given an iterator returned by a [Query](#) of the same structure as this one, return an identical iterator of results, with all mapped instances merged into the session using `Session.merge()`. This is an optimized method which will merge all mapped instances, preserving the structure of the result rows and unmapped columns with less method overhead than that of calling `Session.merge()` explicitly for each value.

The structure of the results is determined based on the column list of this [Query](#) - if these do not correspond, unchecked errors will occur.

The 'load' argument is the same as that of `Session.merge()`.

offset (*offset*)

Apply an OFFSET to the query and return the newly resulting [Query](#).

one ()

Return exactly one result or raise an exception.

Raises `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.NoResultFound` if the query selects no rows. Raises `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.MultipleResultsFound` if multiple object identities are returned, or if multiple rows are returned for a query that does not return object identities.

Note that an entity query, that is, one which selects one or more mapped classes as opposed to individual column attributes, may ultimately represent many rows but only one row of unique entity or entities - this is a successful result for `one()`.

Calling `one()` results in an execution of the underlying query. As of 0.6, `one()` fully fetches all results instead of applying any kind of limit, so that the "unique"-ing of entities does not conceal multiple object identities.

options (**args*)

Return a new [Query](#) object, applying the given list of mapper options.

Most supplied options regard changing how column- and relationship-mapped attributes are loaded. See the sections [Deferred Column Loading](#) and [Relationship Loading Techniques](#) for reference documentation.

order_by (**criterion*)

apply one or more ORDER BY criterion to the query and return the newly resulting [Query](#)

All existing ORDER BY settings can be suppressed by passing `None` - this will suppress any ORDER BY configured on mappers as well.

Alternatively, an existing ORDER BY setting on the [Query](#) object can be entirely cancelled by passing `False` as the value - use this before calling methods where an ORDER BY is invalid.

outerjoin (**props*, ***kwargs*)

Create a left outer join against this [Query](#) object's criterion and apply generatively, returning the newly resulting [Query](#).

Usage is the same as the `join()` method.

params (*args, **kwargs)

add values for bind parameters which may have been specified in `filter()`.

parameters may be specified using `**kwargs`, or optionally a single dictionary as the first positional argument. The reason for both is that `**kwargs` is convenient, however some parameter dictionaries contain unicode keys in which case `**kwargs` cannot be used.

populate_existing()

Return a `Query` that will expire and refresh all instances as they are loaded, or reused from the current `Session`.

`populate_existing()` does not improve behavior when the ORM is used normally - the `Session` object's usual behavior of maintaining a transaction and expiring all attributes after rollback or commit handles object state automatically. This method is not intended for general use.

reset_joinpoint()

return a new `Query` reset the 'joinpoint' of this `Query` reset back to the starting mapper. Subsequent generative calls will be constructed from the new joinpoint.

Note that each call to `join()` or `outerjoin()` also starts from the root.

scalar()

Return the first element of the first result or `None` if no rows present. If multiple rows are returned, raises `MultipleResultsFound`.

```
>>> session.query(Item).scalar()
<Item>
>>> session.query(Item.id).scalar()
1
>>> session.query(Item.id).filter(Item.id < 0).scalar()
None
>>> session.query(Item.id, Item.name).scalar()
1
>>> session.query(func.count(Parent.id)).scalar()
20
```

This results in an execution of the underlying query.

select_from (*from_obj)

Set the FROM clause of this `Query` explicitly.

Sending a mapped class or entity here effectively replaces the "left edge" of any calls to `Query.join()`, when no joinpoint is otherwise established - usually, the default "join point" is the leftmost entity in the `Query` object's list of entities to be selected.

Mapped entities or plain `Table` or other selectables can be sent here which will form the default FROM clause.

slice (start, stop)

apply LIMIT/OFFSET to the `Query` based on a "range and return the newly resulting `Query`.

statement

The full SELECT statement represented by this `Query`.

The statement by default will not have disambiguating labels applied to the construct unless `with_labels(True)` is called first.

subquery (name=None)

return the full SELECT statement represented by this `Query`, embedded within an `Alias`.

Eager JOIN generation within the query is disabled.

The statement will not have disambiguating labels applied to the list of selected columns unless the `Query.with_labels()` method is used to generate a new `Query` with the option enabled.

Parameters `name` – string name to be assigned as the alias; this is passed through to `FromClause.alias()`. If `None`, a name will be deterministically generated at compile time.

`union(*q)`

Produce a UNION of this Query against one or more queries.

e.g.:

```
q1 = sess.query(SomeClass).filter(SomeClass.foo=='bar')
q2 = sess.query(SomeClass).filter(SomeClass.bar=='foo')

q3 = q1.union(q2)
```

The method accepts multiple Query objects so as to control the level of nesting. A series of `union()` calls such as:

```
x.union(y).union(z).all()
```

will nest on each `union()`, and produces:

```
SELECT * FROM (SELECT * FROM (SELECT * FROM X UNION
                             SELECT * FROM y) UNION SELECT * FROM Z)
```

Whereas:

```
x.union(y, z).all()
```

produces:

```
SELECT * FROM (SELECT * FROM X UNION SELECT * FROM y UNION
               SELECT * FROM Z)
```

Note that many database backends do not allow ORDER BY to be rendered on a query called within UNION, EXCEPT, etc. To disable all ORDER BY clauses including those configured on mappers, issue `query.order_by(None)` - the resulting `Query` object will not render ORDER BY within its SELECT statement.

`union_all(*q)`

Produce a UNION ALL of this Query against one or more queries.

Works the same way as `union()`. See that method for usage examples.

`update(values, synchronize_session='evaluate')`

Perform a bulk update query.

Updates rows matched by this query in the database.

Parameters

- **values** – a dictionary with attributes names as keys and literal values or sql expressions as values.

- **synchronize_session** – chooses the strategy to update the attributes on objects in the session. Valid values are:

False - don't synchronize the session. This option is the most efficient and is reliable once the session is expired, which typically occurs after a commit(), or explicitly using expire_all(). Before the expiration, updated objects may still remain in the session with stale values on their attributes, which can lead to confusing results.

'fetch' - performs a select query before the update to find objects that are matched by the update query. The updated attributes are expired on matched objects.

'evaluate' - Evaluate the Query's criteria in Python straight on the objects in the session. If evaluation of the criteria isn't implemented, an exception is raised.

The expression evaluator currently doesn't account for differing string collations between the database and Python.

Returns the number of rows matched by the update.

The method does *not* offer in-Python cascading of relationships - it is assumed that ON UPDATE CASCADE is configured for any foreign key references which require it.

The Session needs to be expired (occurs automatically after commit(), or call expire_all()) in order for the state of dependent objects subject foreign key cascade to be correctly represented.

Also, the before_update() and after_update() MapperExtension methods are not called from this method. For an update hook here, use the SessionExtension.after_bulk_update() event hook.

value (*column*)

Return a scalar result corresponding to the given column expression.

values (**columns*)

Return an iterator yielding result tuples corresponding to the given list of columns

whereclause

A readonly attribute which returns the current WHERE criterion for this Query.

This returned value is a SQL expression construct, or None if no criterion has been established.

with_entities (**entities*)

Return a new Query replacing the SELECT list with the given entities.

e.g.:

```
# Users, filtered on some arbitrary criterion
# and then ordered by related email address
q = session.query(User). \
    join(User.address). \
    filter(User.name.like('%ed%')). \
    order_by(Address.email)

# given *only* User.id==5, Address.email, and 'q', what
# would the *next* User in the result be ?
subq = q.with_entities(Address.email). \
    order_by(None). \
    filter(User.id==5). \
    subquery()
q = q.join((subq, subq.c.email < Address.email)). \
    limit(1)
```

New in 0.6.5.

with_hint (*selectable*, *text*, *dialect_name*='*')

Add an indexing hint for the given entity or selectable to this [Query](#).

Functionality is passed straight through to [with_hint\(\)](#), with the addition that *selectable* can be a [Table](#), [Alias](#), or ORM entity / mapped class /etc.

with_labels ()

Apply column labels to the return value of [Query.statement](#).

Indicates that this [Query](#)'s *statement* accessor should return a SELECT statement that applies labels to all columns in the form <tablename>_<columnname>; this is commonly used to disambiguate columns from multiple tables which have the same name.

When the [Query](#) actually issues SQL to load rows, it always uses column labeling.

with_lockmode (*mode*)

Return a new [Query](#) object with the specified locking mode.

with_parent (*instance*, *property*=None)

Add filtering criterion that relates the given instance to a child object or collection, using its attribute state as well as an established [relationship\(\)](#) configuration.

The method uses the [with_parent\(\)](#) function to generate the clause, the result of which is passed to [Query.filter\(\)](#).

Parameters are the same as [with_parent\(\)](#), with the exception that the given property can be None, in which case a search is performed against this [Query](#) object's target mapper.

with_polymorphic (*cls_or_mappers*, *selectable*=None, *discriminator*=None)

Load columns for descendant mappers of this [Query](#)'s mapper.

Using this method will ensure that each descendant mapper's tables are included in the FROM clause, and will allow [filter\(\)](#) criterion to be used against those tables. The resulting instances will also have those columns already loaded so that no "post fetch" of those columns will be required.

Parameters

- **cls_or_mappers** – a single class or mapper, or list of class/mappers, which inherit from this [Query](#)'s mapper. Alternatively, it may also be the string '*', in which case all descending mappers will be added to the FROM clause.
- **selectable** – a table or [select\(\)](#) statement that will be used in place of the generated FROM clause. This argument is required if any of the desired mappers use concrete table inheritance, since SQLAlchemy currently cannot generate UNIONs among tables automatically. If used, the *selectable* argument must represent the full set of tables and columns mapped by every desired mapper. Otherwise, the unaccounted mapped columns will result in their table being appended directly to the FROM clause which will usually lead to incorrect results.
- **discriminator** – a column to be used as the "discriminator" column for the given selectable. If not given, the *polymorphic_on* attribute of the mapper will be used, if any. This is useful for mappers that don't have polymorphic loading behavior by default, such as concrete table mappers.

with_session (*session*)

Return a [Query](#) that will use the given [Session](#).

yield_per (*count*)

Yield only *count* rows at a time.

WARNING: use this method with caution; if the same instance is present in more than one batch of rows, end-user changes to attributes will be overwritten.

In particular, it's usually impossible to use this setting with eagerly loaded collections (i.e. any `lazy='joined'` or `'subquery'`) since those collections will be cleared for a new load when encountered in a subsequent result batch. In the case of `'subquery'` loading, the full result for all rows is fetched which generally defeats the purpose of `yield_per()`.

Also note that many DBAPIs do not “stream” results, pre-buffering all rows before making them available, including `mysql-python` and `psycopg2`. `yield_per()` will also set the `stream_results` execution option to `True`, which currently is only understood by `psycopg2` and causes server side cursors to be used.

2.7.2 ORM-Specific Query Constructs

class sqlalchemy.orm.**aliased**

The public name of the `AliasedClass` class.

class sqlalchemy.orm.util.**AliasedClass** (*cls, alias=None, name=None*)

Represents an “aliased” form of a mapped class for usage with `Query`.

The ORM equivalent of a `sqlalchemy.sql.expression.alias()` construct, this object mimics the mapped class using a `__getattr__` scheme and maintains a reference to a real `Alias` object.

Usage is via the `aliased()` synonym:

```
# find all pairs of users with the same name
user_alias = aliased(User)
session.query(User, user_alias).\
    join((user_alias, User.id > user_alias.id)).\
    filter(User.name==user_alias.name)
```

sqlalchemy.orm.**join** (*left, right, onclause=None, isouter=False, join_to_left=True*)

Produce an inner join between left and right clauses.

In addition to the interface provided by `join()`, left and right may be mapped classes or `AliasedClass` instances. The `onclause` may be a string name of a relationship(), or a class-bound descriptor representing a relationship.

`join_to_left` indicates to attempt aliasing the ON clause, in whatever form it is passed, to the selectable passed as the left side. If `False`, the `onclause` is used as is.

sqlalchemy.orm.**outerjoin** (*left, right, onclause=None, join_to_left=True*)

Produce a left outer join between left and right clauses.

In addition to the interface provided by `outerjoin()`, left and right may be mapped classes or `AliasedClass` instances. The `onclause` may be a string name of a relationship(), or a class-bound descriptor representing a relationship.

sqlalchemy.orm.**with_parent** (*instance, prop*)

Create filtering criterion that relates this query's primary entity to the given related instance, using established `relationship()` configuration.

The SQL rendered is the same as that rendered when a lazy loader would fire off from the given parent on that attribute, meaning that the appropriate state is taken from the parent object in Python without the need to render joins to the parent table in the rendered statement.

As of 0.6.4, this method accepts parent instances in all persistence states, including transient, persistent, and detached. Only the requisite primary key/foreign key attributes need to be populated. Previous versions didn't work with transient instances.

Parameters

- **instance** – An instance which has some `relationship()`.
- **property** – String property name, or class-bound attribute, which indicates what relationship from the instance should be used to reconcile the parent/child relationship.

2.8 Relationship Loading Techniques

A big part of SQLAlchemy is providing a wide range of control over how related objects get loaded when querying. This behavior can be configured at mapper construction time using the `lazy` parameter to the `relationship()` function, as well as by using options with the `Query` object.

2.8.1 Using Loader Strategies: Lazy Loading, Eager Loading

By default, all inter-object relationships are **lazy loading**. The scalar or collection attribute associated with a `relationship()` contains a trigger which fires the first time the attribute is accessed. This trigger, in all but one case, issues a SQL call at the point of access in order to load the related object or objects:

```
>>> jack.addresses
SELECT addresses.id AS addresses_id, addresses.email_address AS addresses_email_address,
addresses.user_id AS addresses_user_id
FROM addresses
WHERE ? = addresses.user_id
[5] [<Address(u' jack@google.com')>, <Address(u' j25@yahoo.com')>]
```

The one case where SQL is not emitted is for a simple many-to-one relationship, when the related object can be identified by its primary key alone and that object is already present in the current `Session`.

This default behavior of “load upon attribute access” is known as “lazy” or “select” loading - the name “select” because a “SELECT” statement is typically emitted when the attribute is first accessed.

In the *Object Relational Tutorial*, we introduced the concept of **Eager Loading**. We used an option in conjunction with the `Query` object in order to indicate that a relationship should be loaded at the same time as the parent, within a single SQL query. This option, known as `joinedload()`, connects a JOIN (by default a LEFT OUTER join) to the statement and populates the scalar/collection from the same result set as that of the parent:

```
>>> jack = session.query(User).\
... options(joinedload('addresses')).\
... filter_by(name='jack').all()
SELECT addresses_1.id AS addresses_1_id, addresses_1.email_address AS addresses_1_email_ad
addresses_1.user_id AS addresses_1_user_id, users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name,
users.fullname AS users_fullname, users.password AS users_password
FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN addresses AS addresses_1 ON users.id = addresses_1.user_id
WHERE users.name = ?
['jack']
```

In addition to “joined eager loading”, a second option for eager loading exists, called “subquery eager loading”. This kind of eager loading emits an additional SQL statement for each collection requested, aggregated across all parent objects:

```
>>> jack = session.query(User).\
... options(subqueryload('addresses')).\
... filter_by(name='jack').all()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname,
users.password AS users_password
```



```

FROM users
WHERE users.name = ?
('jack',)
SELECT addresses.id AS addresses_id, addresses.email_address AS addresses_email_address,
addresses.user_id AS addresses_user_id, anon_1.users_id AS anon_1_users_id
FROM (SELECT users.id AS users_id
FROM users
WHERE users.name = ?) AS anon_1 JOIN addresses ON anon_1.users_id = addresses.user_id
ORDER BY anon_1.users_id, addresses.id
('jack',)

```

The default **loader strategy** for any `relationship()` is configured by the `lazy` keyword argument, which defaults to `select` - this indicates a “select” statement. Below we set it as `joined` so that the children relationship is eager loading, using a join:

```

# load the 'children' collection using LEFT OUTER JOIN
mapper(Parent, parent_table, properties={
    'children': relationship(Child, lazy='joined')
})

```

We can also set it to eagerly load using a second query for all collections, using `subquery`:

```

# load the 'children' attribute using a join to a subquery
mapper(Parent, parent_table, properties={
    'children': relationship(Child, lazy='subquery')
})

```

When querying, all three choices of loader strategy are available on a per-query basis, using the `joinedload()`, `subqueryload()` and `lazyload()` query options:

```

# set children to load lazily
session.query(Parent).options(lazyload('children')).all()

# set children to load eagerly with a join
session.query(Parent).options(joinedload('children')).all()

# set children to load eagerly with a second statement
session.query(Parent).options(subqueryload('children')).all()

```

To reference a relationship that is deeper than one level, separate the names by periods:

```

session.query(Parent).options(joinedload('foo.bar.bat')).all()

```

When using dot-separated names with `joinedload()` or `subqueryload()`, the option applies **only** to the actual attribute named, and **not** its ancestors. For example, suppose a mapping from A to B to C, where the relationships, named `atob` and `btoc`, are both lazy-loading. A statement like the following:

```

session.query(A).options(joinedload('atob.btoc')).all()

```

will load only A objects to start. When the `atob` attribute on each A is accessed, the returned B objects will *eagerly* load their C objects.

Therefore, to modify the eager load to load both `atob` as well as `btoc`, place `joinedloads` for both:

```

session.query(A).options(joinedload('atob'), joinedload('atob.btoc')).all()

```

or more simply just use `joinedload_all()` or `subqueryload_all()`:

```

session.query(A).options(joinedload_all('atob.btoc')).all()

```

There are two other loader strategies available, **dynamic loading** and **no loading**; these are described in [Working with Large Collections](#).

2.8.2 The Zen of Eager Loading

The philosophy behind loader strategies is that any set of loading schemes can be applied to a particular query, and *the results don't change* - only the number of SQL statements required to fully load related objects and collections changes. A particular query might start out using all lazy loads. After using it in context, it might be revealed that particular attributes or collections are always accessed, and that it would be more efficient to change the loader strategy for these. The strategy can be changed with no other modifications to the query, the results will remain identical, but fewer SQL statements would be emitted. In theory (and pretty much in practice), nothing you can do to the `Query` would make it load a different set of primary or related objects based on a change in loader strategy.

How `joinedload()` in particular achieves this result of not impacting entity rows returned in any way is that it creates an anonymous alias of the joins it adds to your query, so that they can't be referenced by other parts of the query. For example, the query below uses `joinedload()` to create a LEFT OUTER JOIN from users to addresses, however the ORDER BY added against `Address.email_address` is not valid - the `Address` entity is not named in the query:

```
>>> jack = session.query(User).\
... options(joinedload(User.addresses)).\
... filter(User.name=='jack').\
... order_by(Address.email_address).all()
SELECT addresses_1.id AS addresses_1_id, addresses_1.email_address AS addresses_1_email_ad
addresses_1.user_id AS addresses_1_user_id, users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name,
users.fullname AS users_fullname, users.password AS users_password
FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN addresses AS addresses_1 ON users.id = addresses_1.user_id
WHERE users.name = ? ORDER BY addresses.email_address  <-- this part is wrong !
['jack']
```

Above, ORDER BY `addresses.email_address` is not valid since `addresses` is not in the FROM list. The correct way to load the User records and order by email address is to use `Query.join()`:

```
>>> jack = session.query(User).\
... join(User.addresses).\
... filter(User.name=='jack').\
... order_by(Address.email_address).all()

SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name,
users.fullname AS users_fullname, users.password AS users_password
FROM users JOIN addresses ON users.id = addresses.user_id
WHERE users.name = ? ORDER BY addresses.email_address
['jack']
```

The statement above is of course not the same as the previous one, in that the columns from `addresses` are not included in the result at all. We can add `joinedload()` back in, so that there are two joins - one is that which we are ordering on, the other is used anonymously to load the contents of the `User.addresses` collection:

```
>>> jack = session.query(User).\
... join(User.addresses).\
... options(joinedload(User.addresses)).\
... filter(User.name=='jack').\
... order_by(Address.email_address).all()
SELECT addresses_1.id AS addresses_1_id, addresses_1.email_address AS addresses_1_email_ad
addresses_1.user_id AS addresses_1_user_id, users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name,
users.fullname AS users_fullname, users.password AS users_password
FROM users JOIN addresses ON users.id = addresses.user_id
LEFT OUTER JOIN addresses AS addresses_1 ON users.id = addresses_1.user_id
WHERE users.name = ? ORDER BY addresses.email_address
['jack']
```

What we see above is that our usage of `Query.join()` is to supply JOIN clauses we'd like to use in subsequent query criterion, whereas our usage of `joinedload()` only concerns itself with the loading of the `User.addresses` collection, for each `User` in the result. In this case, the two joins most probably appear redundant - which they are. If we wanted to use just one JOIN for collection loading as well as ordering, we use the `contains_eager()` option, described in *Routing Explicit Joins/Statements into Eagerly Loaded Collections* below. But to see why `joinedload()` does what it does, consider if we were **filtering** on a particular `Address`:

```
>>> jack = session.query(User).\
... join(User.addresses).\
... options(joinedload(User.addresses)).\
... filter(User.name=='jack').\
... filter(Address.email_address=='someaddress@foo.com').\
... all()
SELECT addresses_1.id AS addresses_1_id, addresses_1.email_address AS addresses_1_email_ad
addresses_1.user_id AS addresses_1_user_id, users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name,
users.fullname AS users_fullname, users.password AS users_password
FROM users JOIN addresses ON users.id = addresses.user_id
LEFT OUTER JOIN addresses AS addresses_1 ON users.id = addresses_1.user_id
WHERE users.name = ? AND addresses.email_address = ?
['jack', 'someaddress@foo.com']
```

Above, we can see that the two JOINS have very different roles. One will match exactly one row, that of the join of `User` and `Address` where `Address.email_address=='someaddress@foo.com'`. The other LEFT OUTER JOIN will match *all* `Address` rows related to `User`, and is only used to populate the `User.addresses` collection, for those `User` objects that are returned.

By changing the usage of `joinedload()` to another style of loading, we can change how the collection is loaded completely independently of SQL used to retrieve the actual `User` rows we want. Below we change `joinedload()` into `subqueryload()`:

```
>>> jack = session.query(User).\
... join(User.addresses).\
... options(subqueryload(User.addresses)).\
... filter(User.name=='jack').\
... filter(Address.email_address=='someaddress@foo.com').\
... all()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name,
users.fullname AS users_fullname, users.password AS users_password
FROM users JOIN addresses ON users.id = addresses.user_id
WHERE users.name = ? AND addresses.email_address = ?
['jack', 'someaddress@foo.com']

# ... subqueryload() emits a SELECT in order
# to load all address records ...
```

When using joined eager loading, if the query contains a modifier that impacts the rows returned externally to the joins, such as when using `DISTINCT`, `LIMIT`, `OFFSET` or equivalent, the completed statement is first wrapped inside a subquery, and the joins used specifically for joined eager loading are applied to the subquery. SQLAlchemy's joined eager loading goes the extra mile, and then ten miles further, to absolutely ensure that it does not affect the end result of the query, only the way collections and related objects are loaded, no matter what the format of the query is.

2.8.3 What Kind of Loading to Use ?

Which type of loading to use typically comes down to optimizing the tradeoff between number of SQL executions, complexity of SQL emitted, and amount of data fetched. Lets take two examples, a `relationship()` which references a collection, and a `relationship()` that references a scalar many-to-one reference.

- One to Many Collection
- When using the default lazy loading, if you load 100 objects, and then access a collection on each of them, a total of 101 SQL statements will be emitted, although each statement will typically be a simple SELECT without any joins.
- When using joined loading, the load of 100 objects and their collections will emit only one SQL statement. However, the total number of rows fetched will be equal to the sum of the size of all the collections, plus one extra row for each parent object that has an empty collection. Each row will also contain the full set of columns represented by the parents, repeated for each collection item - SQLAlchemy does not re-fetch these columns other than those of the primary key, however most DBAPIs (with some exceptions) will transmit the full data of each parent over the wire to the client connection in any case. Therefore joined eager loading only makes sense when the size of the collections are relatively small. The LEFT OUTER JOIN can also be performance intensive compared to an INNER join.
- When using subquery loading, the load of 100 objects will emit two SQL statements. The second statement will fetch a total number of rows equal to the sum of the size of all collections. An INNER JOIN is used, and a minimum of parent columns are requested, only the primary keys. So a subquery load makes sense when the collections are larger.
- When multiple levels of depth are used with joined or subquery loading, loading collections-within- collections will multiply the total number of rows fetched in a cartesian fashion. Both forms of eager loading always join from the original parent class.
- Many to One Reference
- When using the default lazy loading, a load of 100 objects will like in the case of the collection emit as many as 101 SQL statements. However - there is a significant exception to this, in that if the many-to-one reference is a simple foreign key reference to the target's primary key, each reference will be checked first in the current identity map using `Query.get()`. So here, if the collection of objects references a relatively small set of target objects, or the full set of possible target objects have already been loaded into the session and are strongly referenced, using the default of `lazy='select'` is by far the most efficient way to go.
- When using joined loading, the load of 100 objects will emit only one SQL statement. The join will be a LEFT OUTER JOIN, and the total number of rows will be equal to 100 in all cases. If you know that each parent definitely has a child (i.e. the foreign key reference is NOT NULL), the joined load can be configured with `innerjoin=True`, which is usually specified within the `relationship()`. For a load of objects where there are many possible target references which may have not been loaded already, joined loading with an INNER JOIN is extremely efficient.
- Subquery loading will issue a second load for all the child objects, so for a load of 100 objects there would be two SQL statements emitted. There's probably not much advantage here over joined loading, however, except perhaps that subquery loading can use an INNER JOIN in all cases whereas joined loading requires that the foreign key is NOT NULL.

2.8.4 Routing Explicit Joins/Statements into Eagerly Loaded Collections

The behavior of `joinedload()` is such that joins are created automatically, using anonymous aliases as targets, the results of which are routed into collections and scalar references on loaded objects. It is often the case that a query already includes the necessary joins which represent a particular collection or scalar reference, and the joins added by the `joinedload` feature are redundant - yet you'd still like the collections/references to be populated.

For this SQLAlchemy supplies the `contains_eager()` option. This option is used in the same manner as the `joinedload()` option except it is assumed that the `Query` will specify the appropriate joins explicitly. Below it's used with a `from_statement` load:

```
# mapping is the users->addresses mapping
mapper(User, users_table, properties={
```

```

    'addresses': relationship(Address, addresses_table)
})

# define a query on USERS with an outer join to ADDRESSES
statement = users_table.outerjoin(addresses_table).select().apply_labels()

# construct a Query object which expects the "addresses" results
query = session.query(User).options(contains_eager('addresses'))

# get results normally
r = query.from_statement(statement)

```

It works just as well with an inline `Query.join()` or `Query.outerjoin()`:

```
session.query(User).outerjoin(User.addresses).options(contains_eager(User.addresses)).all()
```

If the “eager” portion of the statement is “aliased”, the `alias` keyword argument to `contains_eager()` may be used to indicate it. This is a string alias name or reference to an actual `Alias` (or other selectable) object:

```

# use an alias of the Address entity
adalias = aliased(Address)

# construct a Query object which expects the "addresses" results
query = session.query(User).\
    outerjoin(adalias, User.addresses).\
    options(contains_eager(User.addresses, alias=adalias))

# get results normally
r = query.all()
SELECT users.user_id AS users_user_id, users.user_name AS users_user_name, adalias.address_id AS adalias_address_id,
adalias.user_id AS adalias_user_id, adalias.email_address AS adalias_email_address, (...other columns...)
FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN email_addresses AS email_addresses_1 ON users.user_id = email_addresses_1.user_id

```

The `alias` argument is used only as a source of columns to match up to the result set. You can use it even to match up the result to arbitrary label names in a string SQL statement, by passing a `selectable()` which links those labels to the mapped `Table`:

```

# label the columns of the addresses table
eager_columns = select([
    addresses.c.address_id.label('a1'),
    addresses.c.email_address.label('a2'),
    addresses.c.user_id.label('a3')])

# select from a raw SQL statement which uses those label names for the
# addresses table. contains_eager() matches them up.
query = session.query(User).\
    from_statement("select users.*, addresses.address_id as a1, "
        "addresses.email_address as a2, addresses.user_id as a3 "
        "from users left outer join addresses on users.user_id=addresses.user_id").\
    options(contains_eager(User.addresses, alias=eager_columns))

```

The path given as the argument to `contains_eager()` needs to be a full path from the starting entity. For example if we were loading `Users->orders->Order->items->Item`, the string version would look like:

```
query(User).options(contains_eager('orders', 'items'))
```

Or using the class-bound descriptor:

```
query(User).options(contains_eager(User.orders, Order.items))
```

A variant on `contains_eager()` is the `contains_alias()` option, which is used in the rare case that the parent object is loaded from an alias within a user-defined SELECT statement:

```
# define an aliased UNION called 'ulist'
statement = users.select(users.c.user_id==7).union(users.select(users.c.user_id>7)).alias('ulist')

# add on an eager load of "addresses"
statement = statement.outerjoin(addresses).select().apply_labels()

# create query, indicating "ulist" is an alias for the main table, "addresses" property should
# be eager loaded
query = session.query(User).options(contains_alias('ulist'), contains_eager('addresses'))

# results
r = query.from_statement(statement)
```

2.8.5 Relation Loader API

`sqlalchemy.orm.contains_alias(alias)`

Return a `MapperOption` that will indicate to the query that the main table has been aliased.

alias is the string name or `Alias` object representing the alias.

`sqlalchemy.orm.contains_eager(*keys, **kwargs)`

Return a `MapperOption` that will indicate to the query that the given attribute should be eagerly loaded from columns currently in the query.

Used with `options()`.

The option is used in conjunction with an explicit join that loads the desired rows, i.e.:

```
sess.query(Order).\
    join(Order.user).\
    options(contains_eager(Order.user))
```

The above query would join from the `Order` entity to its related `User` entity, and the returned `Order` objects would have the `Order.user` attribute pre-populated.

`contains_eager()` also accepts an *alias* argument, which is the string name of an alias, an `alias()` construct, or an `aliased()` construct. Use this when the eagerly-loaded rows are to come from an aliased table:

```
user_alias = aliased(User)
sess.query(Order).\
    join((user_alias, Order.user)).\
    options(contains_eager(Order.user, alias=user_alias))
```

See also `eagerload()` for the “automatic” version of this functionality.

For additional examples of `contains_eager()` see *Routing Explicit Joins/Statements into Eagerly Loaded Collections*.

`sqlalchemy.orm.eagerload(*args, **kwargs)`

A synonym for `joinedload()`.

`sqlalchemy.orm.eagerload_all(*args, **kwargs)`

A synonym for `joinedload_all()`

`sqlalchemy.orm.joinedload(*keys, **kw)`

Return a `MapperOption` that will convert the property of the given name or series of mapped attributes into an joined eager load.

Note: This function is known as `eagerload()` in all versions of SQLAlchemy prior to version 0.6beta3, including the 0.5 and 0.4 series. `eagerload()` will remain available for the foreseeable future in order to enable cross-compatibility.

Used with `options()`.

examples:

```
# joined-load the "orders" collection on "User"
query(User).options(joinedload(User.orders))

# joined-load the "keywords" collection on each "Item",
# but not the "items" collection on "Order" - those
# remain lazily loaded.
query(Order).options(joinedload(Order.items, Item.keywords))

# to joined-load across both, use joinedload_all()
query(Order).options(joinedload_all(Order.items, Item.keywords))
```

`joinedload()` also accepts a keyword argument `innerjoin=True` which indicates using an inner join instead of an outer:

```
query(Order).options(joinedload(Order.user, innerjoin=True))
```

Note: The join created by `joinedload()` is anonymously aliased such that it **does not affect the query results**. An `Query.order_by()` or `Query.filter()` call **cannot** reference these aliased tables - so-called “user space” joins are constructed using `Query.join()`. The rationale for this is that `joinedload()` is only applied in order to affect how related objects or collections are loaded as an optimizing detail - it can be added or removed with no impact on actual results. See the section *The Zen of Eager Loading* for a detailed description of how this is used, including how to use a single explicit JOIN for filtering/ordering and eager loading simultaneously.

See also: `subqueryload()`, `lazyload()`

`sqlalchemy.orm.joinedload_all(*keys, **kw)`

Return a `MapperOption` that will convert all properties along the given dot-separated path or series of mapped attributes into an joined eager load.

Note: This function is known as `eagerload_all()` in all versions of SQLAlchemy prior to version 0.6beta3, including the 0.5 and 0.4 series. `eagerload_all()` will remain available for the foreseeable future in order to enable cross-compatibility.

Used with `options()`.

For example:

```
query.options(joinedload_all('orders.items.keywords'))...
```

will set all of ‘orders’, ‘orders.items’, and ‘orders.items.keywords’ to load in one joined eager load.

Individual descriptors are accepted as arguments as well:

```
query.options(joinedload_all(User.orders, Order.items, Item.keywords))
```


The keyword arguments accept a flag *innerjoin=True|False* which will override the value of the *innerjoin* flag specified on the relationship().

See also: `subqueryload_all()`, `lazyload()`

`sqlalchemy.orm.lazyload(*keys)`

Return a MapperOption that will convert the property of the given name or series of mapped attributes into a lazy load.

Used with `options()`.

See also: `eagerload()`, `subqueryload()`, `immediateload()`

`sqlalchemy.orm.subqueryload(*keys)`

Return a MapperOption that will convert the property of the given name or series of mapped attributes into an subquery eager load.

Used with `options()`.

examples:

```
# subquery-load the "orders" collection on "User"
query(User).options(subqueryload(User.orders))

# subquery-load the "keywords" collection on each "Item",
# but not the "items" collection on "Order" - those
# remain lazily loaded.
query(Order).options(subqueryload(Order.items, Item.keywords))

# to subquery-load across both, use subqueryload_all()
query(Order).options(subqueryload_all(Order.items, Item.keywords))
```

See also: `joinedload()`, `lazyload()`

`sqlalchemy.orm.subqueryload_all(*keys)`

Return a MapperOption that will convert all properties along the given dot-separated path or series of mapped attributes into a subquery eager load.

Used with `options()`.

For example:

```
query.options(subqueryload_all('orders.items.keywords'))...
```

will set all of 'orders', 'orders.items', and 'orders.items.keywords' to load in one subquery eager load.

Individual descriptors are accepted as arguments as well:

```
query.options(subqueryload_all(User.orders, Order.items,
Item.keywords))
```

See also: `joinedload_all()`, `lazyload()`, `immediateload()`

2.9 ORM Events

The ORM includes a wide variety of hooks available for subscription. The event system in 0.7 is all new and supercedes the previous system of “extension” classes. For an introduction to the event API, see [Events](#). Non-ORM events such as those regarding connections and low-level statement execution are described in [Core Events](#).

2.9.1 Attribute Events

class sqlalchemy.orm.events.**AttributeEvents**

Define events for object attributes.

These are typically defined on the class-bound descriptor for the target class.

e.g.:

```
from sqlalchemy import event

def my_append_listener(target, value, initiator):
    print "received append event for target: %s" % target

event.listen(MyClass.collection, 'append', my_append_listener)
```

Listeners have the option to return a possibly modified version of the value, when the `retval=True` flag is passed to `listen()`:

```
def validate_phone(target, value, oldvalue, initiator):
    "Strip non-numeric characters from a phone number"

    return re.sub(r'(?![0-9])', '', value)

# setup listener on UserContact.phone attribute, instructing
# it to use the return value
listen(UserContact.phone, 'set', validate_phone, retval=True)
```

A validation function like the above can also raise an exception such as `ValueError` to halt the operation.

Several modifiers are available to the `listen()` function.

Parameters

- **active_history=False** – When True, indicates that the “set” event would like to receive the “old” value being replaced unconditionally, even if this requires firing off database loads. Note that `active_history` can also be set directly via `column_property()` and `relationship()`.
- **propagate=False** – When True, the listener function will be established not just for the class attribute given, but for attributes of the same name on all current subclasses of that class, as well as all future subclasses of that class, using an additional listener that listens for instrumentation events.
- **raw=False** – When True, the “target” argument to the event will be the `InstanceState` management object, rather than the mapped instance itself.
- **retval=False** – when True, the user-defined event listening must return the “value” argument from the function. This gives the listening function the opportunity to change the value that is ultimately used for a “set” or “append” event.

append (*target, value, initiator*)

Receive a collection append event.

Parameters

- **target** – the object instance receiving the event. If the listener is registered with `raw=True`, this will be the `InstanceState` object.

- **value** – the value being appended. If this listener is registered with `retval=True`, the listener function must return this value, or a new value which replaces it.
- **initiator** – the attribute implementation object which initiated this event.

Returns if the event was registered with `retval=True`, the given value, or a new effective value, should be returned.

remove (*target, value, initiator*)

Receive a collection remove event.

Parameters

- **target** – the object instance receiving the event. If the listener is registered with `raw=True`, this will be the `InstanceState` object.
- **value** – the value being removed.
- **initiator** – the attribute implementation object which initiated this event.

Returns No return value is defined for this event.

set (*target, value, oldvalue, initiator*)

Receive a scalar set event.

Parameters

- **target** – the object instance receiving the event. If the listener is registered with `raw=True`, this will be the `InstanceState` object.
- **value** – the value being set. If this listener is registered with `retval=True`, the listener function must return this value, or a new value which replaces it.
- **oldvalue** – the previous value being replaced. This may also be the symbol `NEVER_SET` or `NO_VALUE`. If the listener is registered with `active_history=True`, the previous value of the attribute will be loaded from the database if the existing value is currently unloaded or expired.
- **initiator** – the attribute implementation object which initiated this event.

Returns if the event was registered with `retval=True`, the given value, or a new effective value, should be returned.

2.9.2 Mapper Events

class sqlalchemy.orm.events.**MapperEvents**

Define events specific to mappings.

e.g.:

```
from sqlalchemy import event

def my_before_insert_listener(mapper, connection, target):
    # execute a stored procedure upon INSERT,
    # apply the value to the row to be inserted
    target.calculated_value = connection.scalar(
        "select my_special_function(%d) "
        % target.special_number)

# associate the listener function with SomeMappedClass,
```

```
# to execute during the "before_insert" hook
event.listen(SomeMappedClass, 'before_insert', my_before_insert_listener)
```

Available targets include mapped classes, instances of `Mapper` (i.e. returned by `mapper()`, `class_mapper()` and similar), as well as the `Mapper` class and `mapper()` function itself for global event reception:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import mapper

def some_listener(mapper, connection, target):
    log.debug("Instance %s being inserted" % target)

# attach to all mappers
event.listen(mapper, 'before_insert', some_listener)
```

`Mapper` events provide hooks into critical sections of the mapper, including those related to object instrumentation, object loading, and object persistence. In particular, the persistence methods `before_insert()`, and `before_update()` are popular places to augment the state being persisted - however, these methods operate with several significant restrictions. The user is encouraged to evaluate the `SessionEvents.before_flush()` and `SessionEvents.after_flush()` methods as more flexible and user-friendly hooks in which to apply additional database state during a flush.

When using `MapperEvents`, several modifiers are available to the `event.listen()` function.

Parameters

- **propagate=False** – When True, the event listener should be applied to all inheriting mappers as well as the mapper which is the target of this listener.
- **raw=False** – When True, the “target” argument passed to applicable event listener functions will be the instance’s `InstanceState` management object, rather than the mapped instance itself.
- **retval=False** – when True, the user-defined event function must have a return value, the purpose of which is either to control subsequent event propagation, or to otherwise alter the operation in progress by the mapper. Possible return values are:
 - `sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.EXT_CONTINUE` - continue event processing normally.
 - `sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.EXT_STOP` - cancel all subsequent event handlers in the chain.
 - other values - the return value specified by specific listeners, such as `translate_row()` or `create_instance()`.

after_delete (*mapper, connection, target*)

Receive an object instance after a DELETE statement has been emitted corresponding to that instance.

This event is used to emit additional SQL statements on the given connection as well as to perform application specific bookkeeping related to a deletion event.

The event is often called for a batch of objects of the same class after their DELETE statements have been emitted at once in a previous step.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.

- **connection** – the `Connection` being used to emit DELETE statements for this instance. This provides a handle into the current transaction on the target database specific to this instance.
- **target** – the mapped instance being deleted. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.

Returns No return value is supported by this event.

after_insert (*mapper, connection, target*)

Receive an object instance after an INSERT statement is emitted corresponding to that instance.

This event is used to modify in-Python-only state on the instance after an INSERT occurs, as well as to emit additional SQL statements on the given connection.

The event is often called for a batch of objects of the same class after their INSERT statements have been emitted at once in a previous step. In the extremely rare case that this is not desirable, the `mapper()` can be configured with `batch=False`, which will cause batches of instances to be broken up into individual (and more poorly performing) event->persist->event steps.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.
- **connection** – the `Connection` being used to emit INSERT statements for this instance. This provides a handle into the current transaction on the target database specific to this instance.
- **target** – the mapped instance being persisted. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.

Returns No return value is supported by this event.

after_update (*mapper, connection, target*)

Receive an object instance after an UPDATE statement is emitted corresponding to that instance.

This event is used to modify in-Python-only state on the instance after an UPDATE occurs, as well as to emit additional SQL statements on the given connection.

This method is called for all instances that are marked as “dirty”, *even those which have no net changes to their column-based attributes*, and for which no UPDATE statement has proceeded. An object is marked as dirty when any of its column-based attributes have a “set attribute” operation called or when any of its collections are modified. If, at update time, no column-based attributes have any net changes, no UPDATE statement will be issued. This means that an instance being sent to `after_update()` is *not* a guarantee that an UPDATE statement has been issued.

To detect if the column-based attributes on the object have net changes, and therefore resulted in an UPDATE statement, use `object_session(instance).is_modified(instance, include_collections=False)`.

The event is often called for a batch of objects of the same class after their UPDATE statements have been emitted at once in a previous step. In the extremely rare case that this is not desirable, the `mapper()` can be configured with `batch=False`, which will cause batches of instances to be broken up into individual (and more poorly performing) event->persist->event steps.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.

- **connection** – the `Connection` being used to emit UPDATE statements for this instance. This provides a handle into the current transaction on the target database specific to this instance.
- **target** – the mapped instance being persisted. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.

Returns No return value is supported by this event.

append_result (*mapper, context, row, target, result, **flags*)

Receive an object instance before that instance is appended to a result list.

This is a rarely used hook which can be used to alter the construction of a result list returned by `Query`.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.
- **context** – the `QueryContext`, which includes a handle to the current `Query` in progress as well as additional state information.
- **row** – the result row being handled. This may be an actual `RowProxy` or may be a dictionary containing `Column` objects as keys.
- **target** – the mapped instance being populated. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.
- **result** – a list-like object where results are being appended.
- ****flags** – Additional state information about the current handling of the row.

Returns If this method is registered with `retval=True`, a return value of `EXT_STOP` will prevent the instance from being appended to the given result list, whereas a return value of `EXT_CONTINUE` will result in the default behavior of appending the value to the result list.

before_delete (*mapper, connection, target*)

Receive an object instance before a DELETE statement is emitted corresponding to that instance.

This event is used to emit additional SQL statements on the given connection as well as to perform application specific bookkeeping related to a deletion event.

The event is often called for a batch of objects of the same class before their DELETE statements are emitted at once in a later step.

Handlers should **not** modify any attributes which are mapped by `relationship()`, nor should they attempt to make any modifications to the `Session` in this hook (including `Session.add()`, `Session.delete()`, etc.) - such changes will not take effect. For overall changes to the “flush plan”, use `SessionEvents.before_flush()`.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.
- **connection** – the `Connection` being used to emit DELETE statements for this instance. This provides a handle into the current transaction on the target database specific to this instance.
- **target** – the mapped instance being deleted. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.

Returns No return value is supported by this event.

before_insert (*mapper, connection, target*)

Receive an object instance before an INSERT statement is emitted corresponding to that instance.

This event is used to modify local, non-object related attributes on the instance before an INSERT occurs, as well as to emit additional SQL statements on the given connection.

The event is often called for a batch of objects of the same class before their INSERT statements are emitted at once in a later step. In the extremely rare case that this is not desirable, the `mapper()` can be configured with `batch=False`, which will cause batches of instances to be broken up into individual (and more poorly performing) event->persist->event steps.

Handlers should **not** modify any attributes which are mapped by `relationship()`, nor should they attempt to make any modifications to the `Session` in this hook (including `Session.add()`, `Session.delete()`, etc.) - such changes will not take effect. For overall changes to the “flush plan”, use `SessionEvents.before_flush()`.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.
- **connection** – the `Connection` being used to emit INSERT statements for this instance. This provides a handle into the current transaction on the target database specific to this instance.
- **target** – the mapped instance being persisted. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.

Returns No return value is supported by this event.

before_update (*mapper, connection, target*)

Receive an object instance before an UPDATE statement is emitted corresponding to that instance.

This event is used to modify local, non-object related attributes on the instance before an UPDATE occurs, as well as to emit additional SQL statements on the given connection.

This method is called for all instances that are marked as “dirty”, *even those which have no net changes to their column-based attributes*. An object is marked as dirty when any of its column-based attributes have a “set attribute” operation called or when any of its collections are modified. If, at update time, no column-based attributes have any net changes, no UPDATE statement will be issued. This means that an instance being sent to `before_update()` is *not* a guarantee that an UPDATE statement will be issued, although you can affect the outcome here by modifying attributes so that a net change in value does exist.

To detect if the column-based attributes on the object have net changes, and will therefore generate an UPDATE statement, use `object_session(instance).is_modified(instance, include_collections=False)`.

The event is often called for a batch of objects of the same class before their UPDATE statements are emitted at once in a later step. In the extremely rare case that this is not desirable, the `mapper()` can be configured with `batch=False`, which will cause batches of instances to be broken up into individual (and more poorly performing) event->persist->event steps.

Handlers should **not** modify any attributes which are mapped by `relationship()`, nor should they attempt to make any modifications to the `Session` in this hook (including `Session.add()`, `Session.delete()`, etc.) - such changes will not take effect. For overall changes to the “flush plan”, use `SessionEvents.before_flush()`.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.

- **connection** – the `Connection` being used to emit UPDATE statements for this instance. This provides a handle into the current transaction on the target database specific to this instance.
- **target** – the mapped instance being persisted. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.

Returns No return value is supported by this event.

create_instance (*mapper, context, row, class_*)

Receive a row when a new object instance is about to be created from that row.

The method can choose to create the instance itself, or it can return `EXT_CONTINUE` to indicate normal object creation should take place. This listener is typically registered with `retval=True`.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.
- **context** – the `QueryContext`, which includes a handle to the current `Query` in progress as well as additional state information.
- **row** – the result row being handled. This may be an actual `RowProxy` or may be a dictionary containing `Column` objects as keys.
- **class_** – the mapped class.

Returns When configured with `retval=True`, the return value should be a newly created instance of the mapped class, or `EXT_CONTINUE` indicating that default object construction should take place.

instrument_class (*mapper, class_*)

Receive a class when the mapper is first constructed, before instrumentation is applied to the mapped class.

This event is the earliest phase of mapper construction. Most attributes of the mapper are not yet initialized.

This listener can generally only be applied to the `Mapper` class overall.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.
- **class_** – the mapped class.

mapper_configured (*mapper, class_*)

Called when the mapper for the class is fully configured.

This event is the latest phase of mapper construction. The mapper should be in its final state.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.
- **class_** – the mapped class.

populate_instance (*mapper, context, row, target, **flags*)

Receive an instance before that instance has its attributes populated.

This usually corresponds to a newly loaded instance but may also correspond to an already-loaded instance which has unloaded attributes to be populated. The method may be called many times for a single instance, as multiple result rows are used to populate eagerly loaded collections.

Most usages of this hook are obsolete. For a generic “object has been newly created from a row” hook, use `InstanceEvents.load()`.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.
- **context** – the `QueryContext`, which includes a handle to the current `Query` in progress as well as additional state information.
- **row** – the result row being handled. This may be an actual `RowProxy` or may be a dictionary containing `Column` objects as keys.
- **target** – the mapped instance. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.

Returns When configured with `retval=True`, a return value of `EXT_STOP` will bypass instance population by the mapper. A value of `EXT_CONTINUE` indicates that default instance population should take place.

translate_row (*mapper, context, row*)

Perform pre-processing on the given result row and return a new row instance.

This listener is typically registered with `retval=True`. It is called when the mapper first receives a row, before the object identity or the instance itself has been derived from that row. The given row may or may not be a `RowProxy` object - it will always be a dictionary-like object which contains mapped columns as keys. The returned object should also be a dictionary-like object which recognizes mapped columns as keys.

Parameters

- **mapper** – the `Mapper` which is the target of this event.
- **context** – the `QueryContext`, which includes a handle to the current `Query` in progress as well as additional state information.
- **row** – the result row being handled. This may be an actual `RowProxy` or may be a dictionary containing `Column` objects as keys.

Returns When configured with `retval=True`, the function should return a dictionary-like row object, or `EXT_CONTINUE`, indicating the original row should be used.

2.9.3 Instance Events

class sqlalchemy.orm.events.InstanceEvents

Define events specific to object lifecycle.

e.g.:

```
from sqlalchemy import event

def my_load_listener(target, context):
    print "on load!"

event.listen(SomeMappedClass, 'load', my_load_listener)
```

Available targets include mapped classes, instances of `Mapper` (i.e. returned by `mapper()`, `class_mapper()` and similar), as well as the `Mapper` class and `mapper()` function itself for global event reception:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import mapper

def some_listener(target, context):
```



```
log.debug("Instance %s being loaded" % target)

# attach to all mappers
event.listen mapper, 'load', some_listener)
```

Instance events are closely related to mapper events, but are more specific to the instance and its instrumentation, rather than its system of persistence.

When using `InstanceEvents`, several modifiers are available to the `event.listen()` function.

Parameters

- **propagate=False** – When True, the event listener should be applied to all inheriting mappers as well as the mapper which is the target of this listener.
- **raw=False** – When True, the “target” argument passed to applicable event listener functions will be the instance’s `InstanceState` management object, rather than the mapped instance itself.

expire (*target, attrs*)

Receive an object instance after its attributes or some subset have been expired.

‘keys’ is a list of attribute names. If None, the entire state was expired.

Parameters

- **target** – the mapped instance. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.
- **attrs** – iterable collection of attribute names which were expired, or None if all attributes were expired.

first_init (*manager, cls*)

Called when the first instance of a particular mapping is called.

init (*target, args, kwargs*)

Receive an instance when it’s constructor is called.

This method is only called during a userland construction of an object. It is not called when an object is loaded from the database.

init_failure (*target, args, kwargs*)

Receive an instance when it’s constructor has been called, and raised an exception.

This method is only called during a userland construction of an object. It is not called when an object is loaded from the database.

load (*target, context*)

Receive an object instance after it has been created via `__new__`, and after initial attribute population has occurred.

This typically occurs when the instance is created based on incoming result rows, and is only called once for that instance’s lifetime.

Note that during a result-row load, this method is called upon the first row received for this instance. Note that some attributes and collections may or may not be loaded or even initialized, depending on what’s present in the result rows.

Parameters

- **target** – the mapped instance. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.

- **context** – the `QueryContext` corresponding to the current `Query` in progress. This argument may be `None` if the load does not correspond to a `Query`, such as during `Session.merge()`.

pickle (*target, state_dict*)

Receive an object instance when its associated state is being pickled.

Parameters

- **target** – the mapped instance. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.
- **state_dict** – the dictionary returned by `InstanceState.__getstate__`, containing the state to be pickled.

refresh (*target, context, attrs*)

Receive an object instance after one or more attributes have been refreshed from a query.

Parameters

- **target** – the mapped instance. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.
- **context** – the `QueryContext` corresponding to the current `Query` in progress.
- **attrs** – iterable collection of attribute names which were populated, or `None` if all column-mapped, non-deferred attributes were populated.

resurrect (*target*)

Receive an object instance as it is ‘resurrected’ from garbage collection, which occurs when a “dirty” state falls out of scope.

Parameters **target** – the mapped instance. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.

unpickle (*target, state_dict*)

Receive an object instance after it’s associated state has been unpickled.

Parameters

- **target** – the mapped instance. If the event is configured with `raw=True`, this will instead be the `InstanceState` state-management object associated with the instance.
- **state_dict** – the dictionary sent to `InstanceState.__setstate__`, containing the state dictionary which was pickled.

2.9.4 Session Events

class sqlalchemy.orm.events.**SessionEvents**

Define events specific to `Session` lifecycle.

e.g.:

```
from sqlalchemy import event
from sqlalchemy.orm import sessionmaker

def my_before_commit(session):
    print "before commit!"

Session = sessionmaker()
```

```
event.listen(Session, "before_commit", my_before_commit)
```

The `listen()` function will accept `Session` objects as well as the return result of `sessionmaker()` and `scoped_session()`.

Additionally, it accepts the `Session` class which will apply listeners to all `Session` instances globally.

after_attach (*session, instance*)

Execute after an instance is attached to a session.

This is called after an add, delete or merge.

after_begin (*session, transaction, connection*)

Execute after a transaction is begun on a connection

transaction is the `SessionTransaction`. This method is called after an engine level transaction is begun on a connection.

after_bulk_delete (*session, query, query_context, result*)

Execute after a bulk delete operation to the session.

This is called after a `session.query(...).delete()`

query is the query object that this delete operation was called on. *query_context* was the query context object. *result* is the result object returned from the bulk operation.

after_bulk_update (*session, query, query_context, result*)

Execute after a bulk update operation to the session.

This is called after a `session.query(...).update()`

query is the query object that this update operation was called on. *query_context* was the query context object. *result* is the result object returned from the bulk operation.

after_commit (*session*)

Execute after a commit has occurred.

Note that this may not be per-flush if a longer running transaction is ongoing.

after_flush (*session, flush_context*)

Execute after flush has completed, but before commit has been called.

Note that the session's state is still in pre-flush, i.e. 'new', 'dirty', and 'deleted' lists still show pre-flush state as well as the history settings on instance attributes.

after_flush_postexec (*session, flush_context*)

Execute after flush has completed, and after the post-exec state occurs.

This will be when the 'new', 'dirty', and 'deleted' lists are in their final state. An actual `commit()` may or may not have occurred, depending on whether or not the flush started its own transaction or participated in a larger transaction.

after_rollback (*session*)

Execute after a rollback has occurred.

Note that this may not be per-flush if a longer running transaction is ongoing.

before_commit (*session*)

Execute before commit is called.

Note that this may not be per-flush if a longer running transaction is ongoing.

before_flush (*session, flush_context, instances*)

Execute before flush process has started.

instances is an optional list of objects which were passed to the `flush()` method.

2.9.5 Instrumentation Events

class `sqlalchemy.orm.events.InstrumentationEvents`

Events related to class instrumentation events.

The listeners here support being established against any new style class, that is any object that is a subclass of ‘type’. Events will then be fired off for events against that class as well as all subclasses. ‘type’ itself is also accepted as a target in which case the events fire for all classes.

attribute_instrument (*cls, key, inst*)

Called when an attribute is instrumented.

class_instrument (*cls*)

Called after the given class is instrumented.

To get at the `ClassManager`, use `manager_of_class()`.

class_uninstrument (*cls*)

Called before the given class is uninstrumented.

To get at the `ClassManager`, use `manager_of_class()`.

2.9.6 Alternate Class Instrumentation

class `sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.InstrumentationManager` (*class_*)

User-defined class instrumentation extension.

`InstrumentationManager` can be subclassed in order to change how class instrumentation proceeds. This class exists for the purposes of integration with other object management frameworks which would like to entirely modify the instrumentation methodology of the ORM, and is not intended for regular usage. For interception of class instrumentation events, see `InstrumentationEvents`.

For an example of `InstrumentationManager`, see the example *Attribute Instrumentation*.

The API for this class should be considered as semi-stable, and may change slightly with new releases.

dict_getter (*class_*)

dispose (*class_, manager*)

get_instance_dict (*class_, instance*)

initialize_instance_dict (*class_, instance*)

install_descriptor (*class_, key, inst*)

install_member (*class_, key, implementation*)

install_state (*class_, instance, state*)

instrument_attribute (*class_, key, inst*)

instrument_collection_class (*class_, key, collection_class*)

manage (*class_, manager*)

manager_getter (*class_*)

```

post_configure_attribute (class_, key, inst)
remove_state (class_, instance)
state_getter (class_)
uninstall_descriptor (class_, key)
uninstall_member (class_, key)

```

2.10 ORM Extensions

SQLAlchemy has a variety of ORM extensions available, which add additional functionality to the core behavior.

The extensions build almost entirely on public core and ORM APIs and users should be encouraged to read their source code to further their understanding of their behavior. In particular the “Horizontal Sharding”, “Hybrid Attributes”, and “Mutation Tracking” extensions are very succinct.

2.10.1 Association Proxy

`associationproxy` is used to create a simplified, read/write view of a relationship. It can be used to cherry-pick fields from a collection of related objects or to greatly simplify access to associated objects in an association relationship.

Simplifying Relationships

Consider this “association object” mapping:

```

users_table = Table('users', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(64)),
)

keywords_table = Table('keywords', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('keyword', String(64))
)

userkeywords_table = Table('userkeywords', metadata,
    Column('user_id', Integer, ForeignKey("users.id"),
        primary_key=True),
    Column('keyword_id', Integer, ForeignKey("keywords.id"),
        primary_key=True)
)

class User(object):
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

class Keyword(object):
    def __init__(self, keyword):
        self.keyword = keyword

mapper(User, users_table, properties={

```

```
    'kw': relationship(Keyword, secondary=userkeywords_table)
})
mapper(Keyword, keywords_table)
```

Above are three simple tables, modeling users, keywords and a many-to-many relationship between the two. These Keyword objects are little more than a container for a name, and accessing them via the relationship is awkward:

```
user = User('jek')
user.kw.append(Keyword('cheese inspector'))
print user.kw
# [<__main__.Keyword object at 0xb791ea0c>]
print user.kw[0].keyword
# 'cheese inspector'
print [keyword.keyword for keyword in user.kw]
# ['cheese inspector']
```

With `association_proxy` you have a “view” of the relationship that contains just the `.keyword` of the related objects. The proxy is a Python property, and unlike the mapper relationship, is defined in your class:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.associationproxy import association_proxy

class User(object):
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

    # proxy the 'keyword' attribute from the 'kw' relationship
    keywords = association_proxy('kw', 'keyword')

# ...
>>> user.kw
[<__main__.Keyword object at 0xb791ea0c>]
>>> user.keywords
['cheese inspector']
>>> user.keywords.append('snack ninja')
>>> user.keywords
['cheese inspector', 'snack ninja']
>>> user.kw
[<__main__.Keyword object at 0x9272a4c>, <__main__.Keyword object at 0xb7b396ec>]
```

The proxy is read/write. New associated objects are created on demand when values are added to the proxy, and modifying or removing an entry through the proxy also affects the underlying collection.

- The association proxy property is backed by a mapper-defined relationship, either a collection or scalar.
- You can access and modify both the proxy and the backing relationship. Changes in one are immediate in the other.
- The proxy acts like the type of the underlying collection. A list gets a list-like proxy, a dict a dict-like proxy, and so on.
- Multiple proxies for the same relationship are fine.
- Proxies are lazy, and won't trigger a load of the backing relationship until they are accessed.
- The relationship is inspected to determine the type of the related objects.
- To construct new instances, the type is called with the value being assigned, or key and value for dicts.
- A ``creator`` function can be used to create instances instead.

Above, the `Keyword.__init__` takes a single argument `keyword`, which maps conveniently to the value being set through the proxy. A `creator` function could have been used instead if more flexibility was required.

Because the proxies are backed by a regular relationship collection, all of the usual hooks and patterns for using collections are still in effect. The most convenient behavior is the automatic setting of “parent”-type relationships on assignment. In the example above, nothing special had to be done to associate the `Keyword` to the `User`. Simply adding it to the collection is sufficient.

Simplifying Association Object Relationships

Association proxies are also useful for keeping association objects out the way during regular use. For example, the `userkeywords` table might have a bunch of auditing columns that need to get updated when changes are made- columns that are updated but seldom, if ever, accessed in your application. A proxy can provide a very natural access pattern for the relationship.

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.associationproxy import association_proxy

# users_table and keywords_table tables as above, then:

def get_current_uid():
    """Return the uid of the current user."""
    return 1 # hardcoded for this example

userkeywords_table = Table('userkeywords', metadata,
    Column('user_id', Integer, ForeignKey("users.id"), primary_key=True),
    Column('keyword_id', Integer, ForeignKey("keywords.id"), primary_key=True),
    # add some auditing columns
    Column('updated_at', DateTime, default=datetime.now),
    Column('updated_by', Integer, default=get_current_uid, onupdate=get_current_uid),
)

def _create_uk_by_keyword(keyword):
    """A creator function."""
    return UserKeyword(keyword=keyword)

class User(object):
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name
        keywords = association_proxy('user_keywords', 'keyword', creator=_create_uk_by_keyword)

class Keyword(object):
    def __init__(self, keyword):
        self.keyword = keyword
    def __repr__(self):
        return 'Keyword(%s)' % repr(self.keyword)

class UserKeyword(object):
    def __init__(self, user=None, keyword=None):
        self.user = user
        self.keyword = keyword

mapper(User, users_table)
mapper(Keyword, keywords_table)
mapper(UserKeyword, userkeywords_table, properties={
```

```
    'user': relationship(User, backref='user_keywords'),
    'keyword': relationship(Keyword),
})

user = User('log')
kw1 = Keyword('new_from_blammo')

# Creating a UserKeyword association object will add a Keyword.
# the "user" reference assignment in the UserKeyword() constructor
# populates "user_keywords" via backref.
UserKeyword(user, kw1)

# Accessing Keywords requires traversing UserKeywords
print user.user_keywords[0]
# <__main__.UserKeyword object at 0xb79bbbec>

print user.user_keywords[0].keyword
# Keyword('new_from_blammo')

# Lots of work.

# It's much easier to go through the association proxy!
for kw in (Keyword('its_big'), Keyword('its_heavy'), Keyword('its_wood')):
    user.keywords.append(kw)

print user.keywords
# [Keyword('new_from_blammo'), Keyword('its_big'), Keyword('its_heavy'), Keyword('its_wood')]
```

Building Complex Views

```
stocks_table = Table("stocks", meta,
    Column('symbol', String(10), primary_key=True),
    Column('last_price', Numeric)
)

brokers_table = Table("brokers", meta,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(100), nullable=False)
)

holdings_table = Table("holdings", meta,
    Column('broker_id', Integer, ForeignKey('brokers.id'), primary_key=True),
    Column('symbol', String(10), ForeignKey('stocks.symbol'), primary_key=True),
    Column('shares', Integer)
)
```

Above are three tables, modeling stocks, their brokers and the number of shares of a stock held by each broker. This situation is quite different from the association example above. `shares` is a *property of the relationship*, an important one that we need to use all the time.

For this example, it would be very convenient if `Broker` objects had a dictionary collection that mapped `Stock` instances to the shares held for each. That's easy:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.associationproxy import association_proxy
from sqlalchemy.orm.collections import attribute_mapped_collection
```



```

def _create_holding(stock, shares):
    """A creator function, constructs Holdings from Stock and share quantity."""
    return Holding(stock=stock, shares=shares)

class Broker(object):
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

    holdings = association_proxy('by_stock', 'shares', creator=_create_holding)

class Stock(object):
    def __init__(self, symbol):
        self.symbol = symbol
        self.last_price = 0

class Holding(object):
    def __init__(self, broker=None, stock=None, shares=0):
        self.broker = broker
        self.stock = stock
        self.shares = shares

mapper(Stock, stocks_table)
mapper(Broker, brokers_table, properties={
    'by_stock': relationship(Holding,
        collection_class=attribute_mapped_collection('stock'))
})
mapper(Holding, holdings_table, properties={
    'stock': relationship(Stock),
    'broker': relationship(Broker)
})

```

Above, we've set up the `by_stock` relationship collection to act as a dictionary, using the `.stock` property of each `Holding` as a key.

Populating and accessing that dictionary manually is slightly inconvenient because of the complexity of the `Holdings` association object:

```

stock = Stock('ZZK')
broker = Broker('paj')

broker.by_stock[stock] = Holding(broker, stock, 10)
print broker.by_stock[stock].shares
# 10

```

The `holdings` proxy we've added to the `Broker` class hides the details of the `Holding` while also giving access to `.shares`:

```

for stock in (Stock('JEK'), Stock('STPZ')):
    broker.holdings[stock] = 123

for stock, shares in broker.holdings.items():
    print stock, shares

session.add(broker)
session.commit()

```

```
# lets take a peek at that holdings_table after committing changes to the db
print list(holdings_table.select().execute())
# [(1, 'ZZK', 10), (1, 'JEK', 123), (1, 'STEPZ', 123)]
```

Further examples can be found in the `examples/` directory in the SQLAlchemy distribution.

API

`sqlalchemy.ext.associationproxy.association_proxy(target_collection, attr, **kw)`

Return a Python property implementing a view of a target attribute which references an attribute on members of the target.

Implements a read/write view over an instance's *target_collection*, extracting *attr* from each member of the collection. The property acts somewhat like this list comprehension:

```
[getattr(member, *attr*)
 for member in getattr(instance, *target_collection*)]
```

Unlike the list comprehension, the collection returned by the property is always in sync with *target_collection*, and mutations made to either collection will be reflected in both.

The association proxy also works with scalar attributes, which in turn reference scalar attributes or collections.

Implements a Python property representing a relationship as a collection of simpler values, or a scalar value. The proxied property will mimic the collection type of the target (list, dict or set), or, in the case of a one to one relationship, a simple scalar value.

Parameters

- **target_collection** – Name of the relationship attribute we'll proxy to, usually created with `relationship()`.
- **attr** – Attribute on the associated instance or instances we'll proxy for.

For example, given a target collection of [obj1, obj2], a list created by this proxy property would look like `[getattr(obj1, attr), getattr(obj2, attr)]`

If the relationship is one-to-one or otherwise `uselist=False`, then simply: `getattr(obj, attr)`

- **creator** – optional.

When new items are added to this proxied collection, new instances of the class collected by the target collection will be created. For list and set collections, the target class constructor will be called with the 'value' for the new instance. For dict types, two arguments are passed: key and value.

If you want to construct instances differently, supply a *creator* function that takes arguments as above and returns instances.

For scalar relationships, `creator()` will be called if the target is `None`. If the target is present, set operations are proxied to `setattr()` on the associated object.

If you have an associated object with multiple attributes, you may set up multiple association proxies mapping to different attributes. See the unit tests for examples, and for examples of how `creator()` functions can be used to construct the scalar relationship on-demand in this situation.

- ****kw** – Passes along any other keyword arguments to `AssociationProxy`.

```
class sqlalchemy.ext.associationproxy.AssociationProxy(target_collection, attr,
                                                         creator=None, get-
                                                         set_factory=None,
                                                         proxy_factory=None,
                                                         proxy_bulk_set=None)
```

A descriptor that presents a read/write view of an object attribute.

```
__init__(target_collection, attr, creator=None, getset_factory=None, proxy_factory=None,
          proxy_bulk_set=None)
```

Arguments are:

target_collection Name of the collection we'll proxy to, usually created with 'relationship()' in a mapper setup.

attr Attribute on the collected instances we'll proxy for. For example, given a target collection of [obj1, obj2], a list created by this proxy property would look like [getattr(obj1, attr), getattr(obj2, attr)]

creator Optional. When new items are added to this proxied collection, new instances of the class collected by the target collection will be created. For list and set collections, the target class constructor will be called with the 'value' for the new instance. For dict types, two arguments are passed: key and value.

If you want to construct instances differently, supply a 'creator' function that takes arguments as above and returns instances.

getset_factory Optional. Proxied attribute access is automatically handled by routines that get and set values based on the *attr* argument for this proxy.

If you would like to customize this behavior, you may supply a *getset_factory* callable that produces a tuple of *getter* and *setter* functions. The factory is called with two arguments, the abstract type of the underlying collection and this proxy instance.

proxy_factory Optional. The type of collection to emulate is determined by sniffing the target collection. If your collection type can't be determined by duck typing or you'd like to use a different collection implementation, you may supply a factory function to produce those collections. Only applicable to non-scalar relationships.

proxy_bulk_set Optional, use with proxy_factory. See the *_set()* method for details.

```
any (criterion=None, **kwargs)
```

```
contains (obj)
```

```
has (criterion=None, **kwargs)
```

```
scalar
```

```
target_class
```

The class the proxy is attached to.

2.10.2 Declarative

Synopsis

SQLAlchemy object-relational configuration involves the combination of `Table`, `mapper()`, and class objects to define a mapped class. `declarative` allows all three to be expressed at once within the class declaration. As much as possible, regular SQLAlchemy schema and ORM constructs are used directly, so that configuration between "classical" ORM usage and declarative remain highly similar.

As a simple example:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
```

```
Base = declarative_base()
```

```
class SomeClass(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'some_table'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String(50))
```

Above, the `declarative_base()` callable returns a new base class from which all mapped classes should inherit. When the class definition is completed, a new `Table` and `mapper()` will have been generated.

The resulting table and mapper are accessible via `__table__` and `__mapper__` attributes on the `SomeClass` class:

```
# access the mapped Table
SomeClass.__table__
```

```
# access the Mapper
SomeClass.__mapper__
```

Defining Attributes

In the previous example, the `Column` objects are automatically named with the name of the attribute to which they are assigned.

To name columns explicitly with a name distinct from their mapped attribute, just give the column a name. Below, column “some_table_id” is mapped to the “id” attribute of `SomeClass`, but in SQL will be represented as “some_table_id”:

```
class SomeClass(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'some_table'
    id = Column("some_table_id", Integer, primary_key=True)
```

Attributes may be added to the class after its construction, and they will be added to the underlying `Table` and `mapper()` definitions as appropriate:

```
SomeClass.data = Column('data', Unicode)
SomeClass.related = relationship(RelatedInfo)
```

Classes which are constructed using declarative can interact freely with classes that are mapped explicitly with `mapper()`.

It is recommended, though not required, that all tables share the same underlying `MetaData` object, so that string-configured `ForeignKey` references can be resolved without issue.

Accessing the MetaData

The `declarative_base()` base class contains a `MetaData` object where newly defined `Table` objects are collected. This object is intended to be accessed directly for `MetaData`-specific operations. Such as, to issue CREATE statements for all tables:

```
engine = create_engine('sqlite://')
Base.metadata.create_all(engine)
```

The usual techniques of associating `MetaData`: with `Engine` apply, such as assigning to the `bind` attribute:

```
Base.metadata.bind = create_engine('sqlite://')
```

To associate the engine with the `declarative_base()` at time of construction, the `bind` argument is accepted:

```
Base = declarative_base(bind=create_engine('sqlite:///'))
```

`declarative_base()` can also receive a pre-existing `MetaData` object, which allows a declarative setup to be associated with an already existing traditional collection of `Table` objects:

```
mymetadata = MetaData()
Base = declarative_base(metadata=mymetadata)
```

Configuring Relationships

Relationships to other classes are done in the usual way, with the added feature that the class specified to `relationship()` may be a string name. The “class registry” associated with `Base` is used at mapper compilation time to resolve the name into the actual class object, which is expected to have been defined once the mapper configuration is used:

```
class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'users'

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String(50))
    addresses = relationship("Address", backref="user")
```

```
class Address(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'addresses'

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    email = Column(String(50))
    user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('users.id'))
```

Column constructs, since they are just that, are immediately usable, as below where we define a primary join condition on the `Address` class using them:

```
class Address(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'addresses'

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    email = Column(String(50))
    user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('users.id'))
    user = relationship(User, primaryjoin=user_id == User.id)
```

In addition to the main argument for `relationship()`, other arguments which depend upon the columns present on an as-yet undefined class may also be specified as strings. These strings are evaluated as Python expressions. The full namespace available within this evaluation includes all classes mapped for this declarative base, as well as the contents of the `sqlalchemy` package, including expression functions like `desc()` and `func`:

```
class User(Base):
    # ....
    addresses = relationship("Address",
                             order_by="desc(Address.email)",
                             primaryjoin="Address.user_id==User.id")
```

As an alternative to string-based attributes, attributes may also be defined after all classes have been created. Just add them to the target class after the fact:

```
User.addresses = relationship(Address,
                               primaryjoin=Address.user_id==User.id)
```

Configuring Many-to-Many Relationships

Many-to-many relationships are also declared in the same way with declarative as with traditional mappings. The secondary argument to `relationship()` is as usual passed a `Table` object, which is typically declared in the traditional way. The `Table` usually shares the `MetaData` object used by the declarative base:

```
keywords = Table(
    'keywords', Base.metadata,
    Column('author_id', Integer, ForeignKey('authors.id')),
    Column('keyword_id', Integer, ForeignKey('keywords.id'))
)

class Author(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'authors'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    keywords = relationship("Keyword", secondary=keywords)
```

As with traditional mapping, its generally not a good idea to use a `Table` as the “secondary” argument which is also mapped to a class, unless the `relationship` is declared with `viewonly=True`. Otherwise, the unit-of-work system may attempt duplicate INSERT and DELETE statements against the underlying table.

Defining SQL Expressions

The usage of `column_property()` with Declarative to define load-time, mapped SQL expressions is pretty much the same as that described in *SQL Expressions as Mapped Attributes*. Local columns within the same class declaration can be referenced directly:

```
class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'user'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    firstname = Column(String)
    lastname = Column(String)
    fullname = column_property(
        firstname + " " + lastname
    )
```

Correlated subqueries reference the `Column` objects they need either from the local class definition or from remote classes:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import func

class Address(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'address'

    id = Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True)
    user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('user.id'))

class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'user'

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String)

    address_count = column_property(
        select([func.count(Address.id)]).

```

```

        where(Address.user_id==id)
    )

```

In the case that the `address_count` attribute above doesn't have access to `Address` when `User` is defined, the `address_count` attribute should be added to `User` when both `User` and `Address` are available (i.e. there is no string based "late compilation" feature like there is with `relationship()` at this time). Note we reference the `id` column attribute of `User` with its class when we are no longer in the declaration of the `User` class:

```

User.address_count = column_property(
    select([func.count(Address.id)]).\
        where(Address.user_id==User.id)
)

```

Table Configuration

Table arguments other than the name, metadata, and mapped Column arguments are specified using the `__table_args__` class attribute. This attribute accommodates both positional as well as keyword arguments that are normally sent to the `Table` constructor. The attribute can be specified in one of two forms. One is as a dictionary:

```

class MyClass(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'sometable'
    __table_args__ = {'mysql_engine': 'InnoDB'}

```

The other, a tuple, where each argument is positional (usually constraints):

```

class MyClass(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'sometable'
    __table_args__ = (
        ForeignKeyConstraint(['id'], ['remote_table.id']),
        UniqueConstraint('foo'),
    )

```

Keyword arguments can be specified with the above form by specifying the last argument as a dictionary:

```

class MyClass(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'sometable'
    __table_args__ = (
        ForeignKeyConstraint(['id'], ['remote_table.id']),
        UniqueConstraint('foo'),
        {'autoload': True}
    )

```

Using a Hybrid Approach with `__table__`

As an alternative to `__tablename__`, a direct `Table` construct may be used. The `Column` objects, which in this case require their names, will be added to the mapping just like a regular mapping to a table:

```

class MyClass(Base):
    __table__ = Table('my_table', Base.metadata,
        Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
        Column('name', String(50))
    )

```

`__table__` provides a more focused point of control for establishing table metadata, while still getting most of the benefits of using declarative. An application that uses reflection might want to load table metadata elsewhere and simply pass it to declarative classes:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
```

```
Base = declarative_base()
Base.metadata.reflect(some_engine)
```

```
class User(Base):
    __table__ = metadata.tables['user']

class Address(Base):
    __table__ = metadata.tables['address']
```

Some configuration schemes may find it more appropriate to use `__table__`, such as those which already take advantage of the data-driven nature of `Table` to customize and/or automate schema definition.

Note that when the `__table__` approach is used, the object is immediately usable as a plain `Table` within the class declaration body itself, as a Python class is only another syntactical block. Below this is illustrated by using the `id` column in the `primaryjoin` condition of a `relationship()`:

```
class MyClass(Base):
    __table__ = Table('my_table', Base.metadata,
        Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
        Column('name', String(50))
    )

    widgets = relationship(Widget,
        primaryjoin=Widget.myclass_id==__table__.c.id)
```

Similarly, mapped attributes which refer to `__table__` can be placed inline, as below where we assign the `name` column to the attribute `_name`, generating a synonym for `name`:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import synonym_for

class MyClass(Base):
    __table__ = Table('my_table', Base.metadata,
        Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
        Column('name', String(50))
    )

    _name = __table__.c.name

    @synonym_for("_name")
    def name(self):
        return "Name: %s" % _name
```

Mapper Configuration

Declarative makes use of the `mapper()` function internally when it creates the mapping to the declared table. The options for `mapper()` are passed directly through via the `__mapper_args__` class attribute. As always, arguments which reference locally mapped columns can reference them directly from within the class declaration:

```
from datetime import datetime

class Widget(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'widgets'

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
```



```
timestamp = Column(DateTime, nullable=False)

__mapper_args__ = {
    'version_id_col': timestamp,
    'version_id_generator': lambda v: datetime.now()
}
```

Inheritance Configuration

Declarative supports all three forms of inheritance as intuitively as possible. The `inherits` mapper keyword argument is not needed as declarative will determine this from the class itself. The various “polymorphic” keyword arguments are specified using `__mapper_args__`.

Joined Table Inheritance

Joined table inheritance is defined as a subclass that defines its own table:

```
class Person(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'people'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    discriminator = Column('type', String(50))
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_on': discriminator}

class Engineer(Person):
    __tablename__ = 'engineers'
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_identity': 'engineer'}
    id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('people.id'), primary_key=True)
    primary_language = Column(String(50))
```

Note that above, the `Engineer.id` attribute, since it shares the same attribute name as the `Person.id` attribute, will in fact represent the `people.id` and `engineers.id` columns together, and will render inside a query as `"people.id"`. To provide the `Engineer` class with an attribute that represents only the `engineers.id` column, give it a different attribute name:

```
class Engineer(Person):
    __tablename__ = 'engineers'
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_identity': 'engineer'}
    engineer_id = Column('id', Integer, ForeignKey('people.id'),
                        primary_key=True)
    primary_language = Column(String(50))
```

Single Table Inheritance

Single table inheritance is defined as a subclass that does not have its own table; you just leave out the `__table__` and `__tablename__` attributes:

```
class Person(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'people'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    discriminator = Column('type', String(50))
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_on': discriminator}

class Engineer(Person):
```

```
__mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_identity': 'engineer'}
primary_language = Column(String(50))
```

When the above mappers are configured, the `Person` class is mapped to the `people` table *before* the `primary_language` column is defined, and this column will not be included in its own mapping. When `Engineer` then defines the `primary_language` column, the column is added to the `people` table so that it is included in the mapping for `Engineer` and is also part of the table's full set of columns. Columns which are not mapped to `Person` are also excluded from any other single or joined inheriting classes using the `exclude_properties` mapper argument. Below, `Manager` will have all the attributes of `Person` and `Manager` but *not* the `primary_language` attribute of `Engineer`:

```
class Manager(Person):
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_identity': 'manager'}
    golf_swing = Column(String(50))
```

The attribute exclusion logic is provided by the `exclude_properties` mapper argument, and declarative's default behavior can be disabled by passing an explicit `exclude_properties` collection (empty or otherwise) to the `__mapper_args__`.

Concrete Table Inheritance

Concrete is defined as a subclass which has its own table and sets the `concrete` keyword argument to `True`:

```
class Person(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'people'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String(50))

class Engineer(Person):
    __tablename__ = 'engineers'
    __mapper_args__ = {'concrete': True}
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    primary_language = Column(String(50))
    name = Column(String(50))
```

Usage of an abstract base class is a little less straightforward as it requires usage of `polymorphic_union()`, which needs to be created with the `Table` objects before the class is built:

```
engineers = Table('engineers', Base.metadata,
                  Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
                  Column('name', String(50)),
                  Column('primary_language', String(50))
                  )
managers = Table('managers', Base.metadata,
                  Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
                  Column('name', String(50)),
                  Column('golf_swing', String(50))
                  )

punion = polymorphic_union({
    'engineer': engineers,
    'manager': managers
}, 'type', 'punion')

class Person(Base):
    __table__ = punion
```

```

__mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_on':union.c.type}

class Engineer(Person):
    __table__ = engineers
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_identity':'engineer', 'concrete':True}

class Manager(Person):
    __table__ = managers
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_identity':'manager', 'concrete':True}

```

There is a recipe which allows the above pattern to be executed using the declarative form, via a special base class that defers the creation of the mapper. That recipe is available at [DeclarativeAbstractConcreteBase](#)

Mixin Classes

A common need when using `declarative` is to share some functionality, often a set of columns, across many classes. The normal Python idiom would be to put this common code into a base class and have all the other classes subclass this class.

When using `declarative`, this need is met by using a “mixin class”. A mixin class is one that isn’t mapped to a table and doesn’t subclass the declarative Base. For example:

```

class MyMixin(object):

    __table_args__ = {'mysql_engine': 'InnoDB'}
    __mapper_args__ = {'always_refresh': True}

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)

class MyModel(Base, MyMixin):
    __tablename__ = 'test'

    name = Column(String(1000))

```

Where above, the class `MyModel` will contain an “id” column as well as `__table_args__` and `__mapper_args__` defined by the `MyMixin` mixin class.

Mixing in Columns

The most basic way to specify a column on a mixin is by simple declaration:

```

class TimestampMixin(object):
    created_at = Column(DateTime, default=func.now())

class MyModel(Base, TimestampMixin):
    __tablename__ = 'test'

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String(1000))

```

Where above, all declarative classes that include `TimestampMixin` will also have a column `created_at` that applies a timestamp to all row insertions.

Those familiar with the SQLAlchemy expression language know that the object identity of clause elements defines their role in a schema. Two `Table` objects `a` and `b` may both have a column called `id`, but the way these are

differentiated is that `a.c.id` and `b.c.id` are two distinct Python objects, referencing their parent tables `a` and `b` respectively.

In the case of the mixin column, it seems that only one `Column` object is explicitly created, yet the ultimate `created_at` column above must exist as a distinct Python object for each separate destination class. To accomplish this, the declarative extension creates a **copy** of each `Column` object encountered on a class that is detected as a mixin.

This copy mechanism is limited to simple columns that have no foreign keys, as a `ForeignKey` itself contains references to columns which can't be properly recreated at this level. For columns that have foreign keys, as well as for the variety of mapper-level constructs that require destination-explicit context, the `declared_attr()` decorator (renamed from `sqlalchemy.util.classproperty` in 0.6.5) is provided so that patterns common to many classes can be defined as callables:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declared_attr

class ReferenceAddressMixin(object):
    @declared_attr
    def address_id(cls):
        return Column(Integer, ForeignKey('address.id'))

class User(Base, ReferenceAddressMixin):
    __tablename__ = 'user'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
```

Where above, the `address_id` class-level callable is executed at the point at which the `User` class is constructed, and the declarative extension can use the resulting `Column` object as returned by the method without the need to copy it.

Columns generated by `declared_attr()` can also be referenced by `__mapper_args__` to a limited degree, currently by `polymorphic_on` and `version_id_col`, by specifying the classdecorator itself into the dictionary - the declarative extension will resolve them at class construction time:

```
class MyMixin:
    @declared_attr
    def type_(cls):
        return Column(String(50))

    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_on': type_}

class MyModel(Base, MyMixin):
    __tablename__ = 'test'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
```

Mixing in Relationships

Relationships created by `relationship()` are provided with declarative mixin classes exclusively using the `declared_attr()` approach, eliminating any ambiguity which could arise when copying a relationship and its possibly column-bound contents. Below is an example which combines a foreign key column and a relationship so that two classes `Foo` and `Bar` can both be configured to reference a common target class via many-to-one:

```
class RefTargetMixin(object):
    @declared_attr
    def target_id(cls):
        return Column('target_id', ForeignKey('target.id'))
```

```

@declared_attr
def target(cls):
    return relationship("Target")

class Foo(Base, RefTargetMixin):
    __tablename__ = 'foo'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)

class Bar(Base, RefTargetMixin):
    __tablename__ = 'bar'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)

class Target(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'target'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)

```

`relationship()` definitions which require explicit `primaryjoin`, `order_by` etc. expressions should use the string forms for these arguments, so that they are evaluated as late as possible. To reference the mixin class in these expressions, use the given `cls` to get its name:

```

class RefTargetMixin(object):
    @declared_attr
    def target_id(cls):
        return Column('target_id', ForeignKey('target.id'))

    @declared_attr
    def target(cls):
        return relationship("Target",
            primaryjoin="Target.id==%s.target_id" % cls.__name__
        )

```

Mixing in `deferred()`, `column_property()`, etc.

Like `relationship()`, all `MapperProperty` subclasses such as `deferred()`, `column_property()`, etc. ultimately involve references to columns, and therefore, when used with declarative mixins, have the `declared_attr()` requirement so that no reliance on copying is needed:

```

class SomethingMixin(object):
    @declared_attr
    def dprop(cls):
        return deferred(Column(Integer))

class Something(Base, SomethingMixin):
    __tablename__ = "something"

```

Controlling table inheritance with mixins

The `__tablename__` attribute in conjunction with the hierarchy of classes involved in a declarative mixin scenario controls what type of table inheritance, if any, is configured by the declarative extension.

If the `__tablename__` is computed by a mixin, you may need to control which classes get the computed attribute in order to get the type of table inheritance you require.

For example, if you had a mixin that computes `__tablename__` but where you wanted to use that mixin in a single table inheritance hierarchy, you can explicitly specify `__tablename__` as `None` to indicate that the class should not have a table mapped:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declared_attr

class Tablename:
    @declared_attr
    def __tablename__(cls):
        return cls.__name__.lower()

class Person(Base, Tablename):
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    discriminator = Column('type', String(50))
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_on': discriminator}

class Engineer(Person):
    __tablename__ = None
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_identity': 'engineer'}
    primary_language = Column(String(50))
```

Alternatively, you can make the mixin intelligent enough to only return a `__tablename__` in the event that no table is already mapped in the inheritance hierarchy. To help with this, a `has_inherited_table()` helper function is provided that returns `True` if a parent class already has a mapped table.

As an example, here's a mixin that will only allow single table inheritance:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declared_attr
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import has_inherited_table

class Tablename:
    @declared_attr
    def __tablename__(cls):
        if has_inherited_table(cls):
            return None
        return cls.__name__.lower()

class Person(Base, Tablename):
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    discriminator = Column('type', String(50))
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_on': discriminator}

class Engineer(Person):
    primary_language = Column(String(50))
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_identity': 'engineer'}
```

If you want to use a similar pattern with a mix of single and joined table inheritance, you would need a slightly different mixin and use it on any joined table child classes in addition to their parent classes:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declared_attr
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import has_inherited_table

class Tablename:
    @declared_attr
    def __tablename__(cls):
        if (has_inherited_table(cls) and
            Tablename not in cls.__bases__):
```

```

        return None
    return cls.__name__.lower()

class Person(Base, Tablename):
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    discriminator = Column('type', String(50))
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_on': discriminator}

# This is single table inheritance
class Engineer(Person):
    primary_language = Column(String(50))
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_identity': 'engineer'}

# This is joined table inheritance
class Manager(Person, Tablename):
    id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('person.id'), primary_key=True)
    preferred_recreation = Column(String(50))
    __mapper_args__ = {'polymorphic_identity': 'engineer'}
```

Combining Table/Mapper Arguments from Multiple Mixins

In the case of `__table_args__` or `__mapper_args__` specified with declarative mixins, you may want to combine some parameters from several mixins with those you wish to define on the class itself. The `declared_attr()` decorator can be used here to create user-defined collation routines that pull from multiple collections:

```

from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declared_attr

class MySQLSettings:
    __table_args__ = {'mysql_engine': 'InnoDB'}

class MyOtherMixin:
    __table_args__ = {'info': 'foo'}

class MyModel(Base, MySQLSettings, MyOtherMixin):
    __tablename__ = 'my_model'

    @declared_attr
    def __table_args__(cls):
        args = dict()
        args.update(MySQLSettings.__table_args__)
        args.update(MyOtherMixin.__table_args__)
        return args

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
```

Creating Indexes with Mixins

To define a named, potentially multicolumn `Index` that applies to all tables derived from a mixin, use the “inline” form of `Index` and establish it as part of `__table_args__`:

```

class MyMixin(object):
    a = Column(Integer)
    b = Column(Integer)
```

```
@declared_attr
def __table_args__(cls):
    return (Index('test_idx_%s' % cls.__tablename__, 'a', 'b'),)

class MyModel(Base, MyMixin):
    __tablename__ = 'atable'
    c = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
```

Class Constructor

As a convenience feature, the `declarative_base()` sets a default constructor on classes which takes keyword arguments, and assigns them to the named attributes:

```
e = Engineer(primary_language='python')
```

Sessions

Note that declarative does nothing special with sessions, and is only intended as an easier way to configure mappers and `Table` objects. A typical application setup using `scoped_session()` might look like:

```
engine = create_engine('postgresql://scott:tiger@localhost/test')
Session = scoped_session(sessionmaker(autocommit=False,
                                       autoflush=False,
                                       bind=engine))
```

```
Base = declarative_base()
```

Mapped instances then make usage of `Session` in the usual way.

API Reference

```
sqlalchemy.ext.declarative.declarative_base(bind=None, metadata=None, mapper=None,
                                              cls=<type 'object'>, name='Base',
                                              constructor=<function __init__ at 0x482dc08>, metaclass=<class 'sqlalchemy.ext.declarative.DeclarativeMeta'>)
```

Construct a base class for declarative class definitions.

The new base class will be given a metaclass that produces appropriate `Table` objects and makes the appropriate `mapper()` calls based on the information provided declaratively in the class and any subclasses of the class.

Parameters

- **bind** – An optional `Connectable`, will be assigned the `bind` attribute on the `MetaData` instance.
- **metadata** – An optional `MetaData` instance. All `Table` objects implicitly declared by subclasses of the base will share this `MetaData`. A `MetaData` instance will be created if none is provided. The `MetaData` instance will be available via the `metadata` attribute of the generated declarative base class.
- **mapper** – An optional callable, defaults to `mapper()`. Will be used to map subclasses to their `Tables`.
- **cls** – Defaults to `object`. A type to use as the base for the generated declarative base class. May be a class or tuple of classes.

- **name** – Defaults to `Base`. The display name for the generated class. Customizing this is not required, but can improve clarity in tracebacks and debugging.
- **constructor** – Defaults to `__declarative_constructor()`, an `__init__` implementation that assigns `**kwargs` for declared fields and relationships to an instance. If `None` is supplied, no `__init__` will be provided and construction will fall back to `cls.__init__` by way of the normal Python semantics.
- **metaclass** – Defaults to `DeclarativeMeta`. A metaclass or `__metaclass__` compatible callable to use as the meta type of the generated declarative base class.

class `sqlalchemy.ext.declarative.declared_attr` (*fget*, **arg*, ***kw*)

Mark a class-level method as representing the definition of a mapped property or special declarative member name.

Note: `@declared_attr` is available as `sqlalchemy.util.classproperty` for SQLAlchemy versions 0.6.2, 0.6.3, 0.6.4.

`@declared_attr` turns the attribute into a scalar-like property that can be invoked from the uninstantiated class. Declarative treats attributes specifically marked with `@declared_attr` as returning a construct that is specific to mapping or declarative table configuration. The name of the attribute is that of what the non-dynamic version of the attribute would be.

`@declared_attr` is more often than not applicable to mixins, to define relationships that are to be applied to different implementors of the class:

```
class ProvidesUser(object):
    "A mixin that adds a 'user' relationship to classes."

    @declared_attr
    def user(self):
        return relationship("User")
```

It also can be applied to mapped classes, such as to provide a “polymorphic” scheme for inheritance:

```
class Employee(Base):
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    type = Column(String(50), nullable=False)

    @declared_attr
    def __tablename__(cls):
        return cls.__name__.lower()

    @declared_attr
    def __mapper_args__(cls):
        if cls.__name__ == 'Employee':
            return {
                "polymorphic_on": cls.type,
                "polymorphic_identity": "Employee"
            }
        else:
            return {"polymorphic_identity": cls.__name__}
```

`sqlalchemy.ext.declarative._declarative_constructor` (*self*, ***kwargs*)

A simple constructor that allows initialization from `kwargs`.

Sets attributes on the constructed instance using the names and values in `kwargs`.

Only keys that are present as attributes of the instance's class are allowed. These could be, for example, any mapped columns or relationships.

`sqlalchemy.ext.declarative.has_inherited_table(cls)`

Given a class, return True if any of the classes it inherits from has a mapped table, otherwise return False.

`sqlalchemy.ext.declarative.synonym_for(name, map_column=False)`

Decorator, make a Python @property a query synonym for a column.

A decorator version of `synonym()`. The function being decorated is the 'descriptor', otherwise passes its arguments through to `synonym()`:

```
@synonym_for('col')
@property
def prop(self):
    return 'special sauce'
```

The regular `synonym()` is also usable directly in a declarative setting and may be convenient for read/write properties:

```
prop = synonym('col', descriptor=property(_read_prop, _write_prop))
```

`sqlalchemy.ext.declarative.comparable_using(comparator_factory)`

Decorator, allow a Python @property to be used in query criteria.

This is a decorator front end to `comparable_property()` that passes through the `comparator_factory` and the function being decorated:

```
@comparable_using(MyComparatorType)
@property
def prop(self):
    return 'special sauce'
```

The regular `comparable_property()` is also usable directly in a declarative setting and may be convenient for read/write properties:

```
prop = comparable_property(MyComparatorType)
```

`sqlalchemy.ext.declarative.instrument_declarative(cls, registry, metadata)`

Given a class, configure the class declaratively, using the given registry, which can be any dictionary, and `MetaData` object.

2.10.3 Mutation Tracking

Provide support for tracking of in-place changes to scalar values, which are propagated into ORM change events on owning parent objects.

The `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension replaces SQLAlchemy's legacy approach to in-place mutations of scalar values, established by the `types.MutableType` class as well as the `mutable=True` type flag, with a system that allows change events to be propagated from the value to the owning parent, thereby removing the need for the ORM to maintain copies of values as well as the very expensive requirement of scanning through all "mutable" values on each flush call, looking for changes.

Establishing Mutability on Scalar Column Values

A typical example of a “mutable” structure is a Python dictionary. Following the example introduced in *Column and Data Types*, we begin with a custom type that marshals Python dictionaries into JSON strings before being persisted:

```
from sqlalchemy.types import TypeDecorator, VARCHAR
import json

class JSONEncodedDict(TypeDecorator):
    "Represents an immutable structure as a json-encoded string."

    impl = VARCHAR

    def process_bind_param(self, value, dialect):
        if value is not None:
            value = json.dumps(value)
        return value

    def process_result_value(self, value, dialect):
        if value is not None:
            value = json.loads(value)
        return value
```

The usage of `json` is only for the purposes of example. The `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension can be used with any type whose target Python type may be mutable, including `PickleType`, `postgresql.ARRAY`, etc.

When using the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension, the value itself tracks all parents which reference it. Here we will replace the usage of plain Python dictionaries with a dict subclass that implements the `Mutable` mixin:

```
import collections
from sqlalchemy.ext.mutable import Mutable

class MutationDict(Mutable, dict):
    @classmethod
    def coerce(cls, key, value):
        "Convert plain dictionaries to MutationDict."

        if not isinstance(value, MutationDict):
            if isinstance(value, dict):
                return MutationDict(value)

            # this call will raise ValueError
            return Mutable.coerce(key, value)
        else:
            return value

    def __setitem__(self, key, value):
        "Detect dictionary set events and emit change events."

        dict.__setitem__(self, key, value)
        self.changed()

    def __delitem__(self, key):
        "Detect dictionary del events and emit change events."

        dict.__delitem__(self, key)
```

```
self.changed()
```

The above dictionary class takes the approach of subclassing the Python built-in `dict` to produce a `dict` subclass which routes all mutation events through `__setitem__`. There are many variants on this approach, such as subclassing `UserDict.UserDict`, the newer `collections.MutableMapping`, etc. The part that's important to this example is that the `Mutable.changed()` method is called whenever an in-place change to the datastructure takes place.

We also redefine the `Mutable.coerce()` method which will be used to convert any values that are not instances of `MutationDict`, such as the plain dictionaries returned by the `json` module, into the appropriate type. Defining this method is optional; we could just as well created our `JSONEncodedDict` such that it always returns an instance of `MutationDict`, and additionally ensured that all calling code uses `MutationDict` explicitly. When `Mutable.coerce()` is not overridden, any values applied to a parent object which are not instances of the mutable type will raise a `ValueError`.

Our new `MutationDict` type offers a class method `as_mutable()` which we can use within column metadata to associate with types. This method grabs the given type object or class and associates a listener that will detect all future mappings of this type, applying event listening instrumentation to the mapped attribute. Such as, with classical table metadata:

```
from sqlalchemy import Table, Column, Integer

my_data = Table('my_data', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('data', MutationDict.as_mutable(JSONEncodedDict))
)
```

Above, `as_mutable()` returns an instance of `JSONEncodedDict` (if the type object was not an instance already), which will intercept any attributes which are mapped against this type. Below we establish a simple mapping against the `my_data` table:

```
from sqlalchemy import mapper

class MyDataClass(object):
    pass

# associates mutation listeners with MyDataClass.data
mapper(MyDataClass, my_data)
```

The `MyDataClass.data` member will now be notified of in place changes to its value.

There's no difference in usage when using declarative:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base

Base = declarative_base()

class MyDataClass(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'my_data'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    data = Column(MutationDict.as_mutable(JSONEncodedDict))
```

Any in-place changes to the `MyDataClass.data` member will flag the attribute as “dirty” on the parent object:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import Session

>>> sess = Session()
>>> m1 = MyDataClass(data={'value1': 'foo'})
>>> sess.add(m1)
```

```
>>> sess.commit()

>>> m1.data['value1'] = 'bar'
>>> assert m1 in sess.dirty
True
```

The `MutationDict` can be associated with all future instances of `JSONEncodedDict` in one step, using `associate_with()`. This is similar to `as_mutable()` except it will intercept all occurrences of `MutationDict` in all mappings unconditionally, without the need to declare it individually:

```
MutationDict.associate_with(JSONEncodedDict)
```

```
class MyDataClass(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'my_data'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    data = Column(JSONEncodedDict)
```

Supporting Pickling

The key to the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension relies upon the placement of a `weakref.WeakKeyDictionary` upon the value object, which stores a mapping of parent mapped objects keyed to the attribute name under which they are associated with this value. `WeakKeyDictionary` objects are not picklable, due to the fact that they contain weakrefs and function callbacks. In our case, this is a good thing, since if this dictionary were picklable, it could lead to an excessively large pickle size for our value objects that are pickled by themselves outside of the context of the parent. The developer responsibility here is only to provide a `__getstate__` method that excludes the `__parents()` collection from the pickle stream:

```
class MyMutableType(Mutable):
    def __getstate__(self):
        d = self.__dict__.copy()
        d.pop('__parents', None)
        return d
```

With our dictionary example, we need to return the contents of the dict itself (and also restore them on `__setstate__`):

```
class MutationDict(Mutable, dict):
    # ...

    def __getstate__(self):
        return dict(self)

    def __setstate__(self, state):
        self.update(state)
```

In the case that our mutable value object is pickled as it is attached to one or more parent objects that are also part of the pickle, the `Mutable` mixin will re-establish the `Mutable.__parents` collection on each value object as the owning parents themselves are unpickled.

Establishing Mutability on Composites

Composites are a special ORM feature which allow a single scalar attribute to be assigned an object value which represents information “composed” from one or more columns from the underlying mapped table. The usual example is that of a geometric “point”, and is introduced in *Composite Column Types*.

As of SQLAlchemy 0.7, the internals of `orm.composite()` have been greatly simplified and in-place mutation detection is no longer enabled by default; instead, the user-defined value must detect changes on its own and

propagate them to all owning parents. The `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension provides the helper class `MutableComposite`, which is a slight variant on the `Mutable` class.

As is the case with `Mutable`, the user-defined composite class subclasses `MutableComposite` as a mixin, and detects and delivers change events to its parents via the `MutableComposite.changed()` method. In the case of a composite class, the detection is usually via the usage of Python descriptors (i.e. `@property`), or alternatively via the special Python method `__setattr__()`. Below we expand upon the `Point` class introduced in *Composite Column Types* to subclass `MutableComposite` and to also route attribute set events via `__setattr__` to the `MutableComposite.changed()` method:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.mutable import MutableComposite

class Point(MutableComposite):
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y

    def __setattr__(self, key, value):
        "Intercept set events"

        # set the attribute
        object.__setattr__(self, key, value)

        # alert all parents to the change
        self.changed()

    def __composite_values__(self):
        return self.x, self.y

    def __eq__(self, other):
        return isinstance(other, Point) and \
            other.x == self.x and \
            other.y == self.y

    def __ne__(self, other):
        return not self.__eq__(other)
```

The `MutableComposite` class uses a Python metaclass to automatically establish listeners for any usage of `orm.composite()` that specifies our `Point` type. Below, when `Point` is mapped to the `Vertex` class, listeners are established which will route change events from `Point` objects to each of the `Vertex.start` and `Vertex.end` attributes:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm import composite, mapper
from sqlalchemy import Table, Column

vertices = Table('vertices', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('x1', Integer),
    Column('y1', Integer),
    Column('x2', Integer),
    Column('y2', Integer),
)

class Vertex(object):
    pass
```

```

mapper(Vertex, vertices, properties={
    'start': composite(Point, vertices.c.x1, vertices.c.y1),
    'end': composite(Point, vertices.c.x2, vertices.c.y2)
})

```

Any in-place changes to the `Vertex.start` or `Vertex.end` members will flag the attribute as “dirty” on the parent object:

```

>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import Session

>>> sess = Session()
>>> v1 = Vertex(start=Point(3, 4), end=Point(12, 15))
>>> sess.add(v1)
>>> sess.commit()

>>> v1.end.x = 8
>>> assert v1 in sess.dirty
True

```

Supporting Pickling

As is the case with `Mutable`, the `MutableComposite` helper class uses a `weakref.WeakKeyDictionary` available via the `MutableBase._parents()` attribute which isn’t picklable. If we need to pickle instances of `Point` or its owning class `Vertex`, we at least need to define a `__getstate__` that doesn’t include the `_parents` dictionary. Below we define both a `__getstate__` and a `__setstate__` that package up the minimal form of our `Point` class:

```

class Point(MutableComposite):
    # ...

    def __getstate__(self):
        return self.x, self.y

    def __setstate__(self, state):
        self.x, self.y = state

```

As with `Mutable`, the `MutableComposite` augments the pickling process of the parent’s object-relational state so that the `MutableBase._parents()` collection is restored to all `Point` objects.

API Reference

class `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable.MutableBase`
Common base class to `Mutable` and `MutableComposite`.

`_parents`

Dictionary of parent object->attribute name on the parent.

This attribute is a so-called “memoized” property. It initializes itself with a new `weakref.WeakKeyDictionary` the first time it is accessed, returning the same object upon subsequent access.

class `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable.Mutable`
Bases: `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable.MutableBase`

Mixin that defines transparent propagation of change events to a parent object.

See the example in *Establishing Mutability on Scalar Column Values* for usage information.

classmethod `as_mutable` (*sqltype*)

Associate a SQL type with this mutable Python type.

This establishes listeners that will detect ORM mappings against the given type, adding mutation event trackers to those mappings.

The type is returned, unconditionally as an instance, so that `as_mutable()` can be used inline:

```
Table('mytable', metadata,
      Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
      Column('data', MyMutableType.as_mutable(PickleType))
)
```

Note that the returned type is always an instance, even if a class is given, and that only columns which are declared specifically with that type instance receive additional instrumentation.

To associate a particular mutable type with all occurrences of a particular type, use the `Mutable.associate_with()` classmethod of the particular `Mutable()` subclass to establish a global association.

Warning: The listeners established by this method are *global* to all mappers, and are *not* garbage collected. Only use `as_mutable()` for types that are permanent to an application, not with ad-hoc types else this will cause unbounded growth in memory usage.

classmethod `associate_with` (*sqltype*)

Associate this wrapper with all future mapped columns of the given type.

This is a convenience method that calls `associate_with_attribute` automatically.

Warning: The listeners established by this method are *global* to all mappers, and are *not* garbage collected. Only use `associate_with()` for types that are permanent to an application, not with ad-hoc types else this will cause unbounded growth in memory usage.

classmethod `associate_with_attribute` (*attribute*)

Establish this type as a mutation listener for the given mapped descriptor.

`changed()`

Subclasses should call this method whenever change events occur.

class `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable.MutableComposite`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable.MutableBase`

Mixin that defines transparent propagation of change events on a SQLAlchemy “composite” object to its owning parent or parents.

See the example in *Establishing Mutability on Composites* for usage information.

Warning: The listeners established by the `MutableComposite` class are *global* to all mappers, and are *not* garbage collected. Only use `MutableComposite` for types that are permanent to an application, not with ad-hoc types else this will cause unbounded growth in memory usage.

`changed()`

Subclasses should call this method whenever change events occur.

2.10.4 Ordering List

A custom list that manages index/position information for its children.

author Jason Kirtland

`orderinglist` is a helper for mutable ordered relationships. It will intercept list operations performed on a relationship collection and automatically synchronize changes in list position with an attribute on the related objects. (See *advdatamapping_entitycollections* for more information on the general pattern.)

Example: Two tables that store slides in a presentation. Each slide has a number of bullet points, displayed in order by the ‘position’ column on the bullets table. These bullets can be inserted and re-ordered by your end users, and you need to update the ‘position’ column of all affected rows when changes are made.

```
slides_table = Table('Slides', metadata,
                    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
                    Column('name', String))

bullets_table = Table('Bullets', metadata,
                    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
                    Column('slide_id', Integer, ForeignKey('Slides.id')),
                    Column('position', Integer),
                    Column('text', String))

class Slide(object):
    pass
class Bullet(object):
    pass

mapper(Slide, slides_table, properties={
    'bullets': relationship(Bullet, order_by=[bullets_table.c.position])
})
mapper(Bullet, bullets_table)
```

The standard relationship mapping will produce a list-like attribute on each Slide containing all related Bullets, but coping with changes in ordering is totally your responsibility. If you insert a Bullet into that list, there is no magic—it won’t have a position attribute unless you assign it one, and you’ll need to manually renumber all the subsequent Bullets in the list to accommodate the insert.

An `orderinglist` can automate this and manage the ‘position’ attribute on all related bullets for you.

```
mapper(Slide, slides_table, properties={
    'bullets': relationship(Bullet,
                          collection_class=ordering_list('position'),
                          order_by=[bullets_table.c.position])
})
mapper(Bullet, bullets_table)

s = Slide()
s.bullets.append(Bullet())
s.bullets.append(Bullet())
s.bullets[1].position
>>> 1
s.bullets.insert(1, Bullet())
s.bullets[2].position
>>> 2
```

Use the `ordering_list` function to set up the `collection_class` on relationships (as in the mapper example above). This implementation depends on the list starting in the proper order, so be SURE to put an `order_by` on your relationship.

Warning: `ordering_list` only provides limited functionality when a primary key column or unique column is the target of the sort. Since changing the order of entries often means that two rows must trade values, this is not possible when the value is constrained by a primary key or unique constraint, since one of the rows would temporarily have to point to a third available value so that the other row could take its old value. `ordering_list` doesn't do any of this for you, nor does SQLAlchemy itself.

`ordering_list` takes the name of the related object's ordering attribute as an argument. By default, the zero-based integer index of the object's position in the `ordering_list` is synchronized with the ordering attribute: index 0 will get position 0, index 1 position 1, etc. To start numbering at 1 or some other integer, provide `count_from=1`.

Ordering values are not limited to incrementing integers. Almost any scheme can be implemented by supplying a custom `ordering_func` that maps a Python list index to any value you require.

API Reference

`sqlalchemy.ext.orderinglist.ordering_list(attr, count_from=None, **kw)`

Prepares an `OrderingList` factory for use in mapper definitions.

Returns an object suitable for use as an argument to a Mapper relationship's `collection_class` option. Arguments are:

attr Name of the mapped attribute to use for storage and retrieval of ordering information

count_from (optional) Set up an integer-based ordering, starting at `count_from`. For example, `ordering_list('pos', count_from=1)` would create a 1-based list in SQL, storing the value in the 'pos' column. Ignored if `ordering_func` is supplied.

Passes along any keyword arguments to `OrderingList` constructor.

2.10.5 Horizontal Sharding

Horizontal sharding support.

Defines a rudimentary 'horizontal sharding' system which allows a Session to distribute queries and persistence operations across multiple databases.

For a usage example, see the [Horizontal Sharding](#) example included in the source distribution.

API Documentation

```
class sqlalchemy.ext.horizontal_shard.ShardedSession(shard_chooser, id_chooser,
                                                       query_chooser, shards=None,
                                                       query_cls=<class
                                                           'sqlalchemy.ext.horizontal_shard.ShardedQuery'>,
                                                       **kwargs)
```

```
__init__(shard_chooser, id_chooser, query_chooser, shards=None, query_cls=<class
        'sqlalchemy.ext.horizontal_shard.ShardedQuery'>, **kwargs)
```

Construct a `ShardedSession`.

Parameters

- **shard_chooser** – A callable which, passed a Mapper, a mapped instance, and possibly a SQL clause, returns a shard ID. This id may be based off of the attributes present within the object, or on some round-robin scheme. If the scheme is based on a selection, it should set whatever state on the instance to mark it in the future as participating in that shard.
- **id_chooser** – A callable, passed a query and a tuple of identity values, which should return a list of shard ids where the ID might reside. The databases will be queried in the order of this listing.
- **query_chooser** – For a given Query, returns the list of shard_ids where the query should be issued. Results from all shards returned will be combined together into a single listing.
- **shards** – A dictionary of string shard names to [Engine](#) objects.

```
class sqlalchemy.ext.horizontal_shard.ShardedQuery(*args, **kwargs)
```

```
    set_shard(shard_id)
```

return a new query, limited to a single shard ID.

all subsequent operations with the returned query will be against the single shard regardless of other state.

2.10.6 Hybrid Attributes

Define attributes on ORM-mapped classes that have “hybrid” behavior.

“hybrid” means the attribute has distinct behaviors defined at the class level and at the instance level.

The [hybrid](#) extension provides a special form of method decorator, is around 50 lines of code and has almost no dependencies on the rest of SQLAlchemy. It can in theory work with any class-level expression generator.

Consider a table `interval` as below:

```
from sqlalchemy import MetaData, Table, Column, Integer

metadata = MetaData()

interval_table = Table('interval', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('start', Integer, nullable=False),
    Column('end', Integer, nullable=False)
)
```

We can define higher level functions on mapped classes that produce SQL expressions at the class level, and Python expression evaluation at the instance level. Below, each function decorated with `hybrid_method()` or `hybrid_property()` may receive `self` as an instance of the class, or as the class itself:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.hybrid import hybrid_property, hybrid_method
from sqlalchemy.orm import mapper, Session, aliased

class Interval(object):
    def __init__(self, start, end):
        self.start = start
        self.end = end

    @hybrid_property
    def length(self):
        return self.end - self.start
```

```
@hybrid_method
def contains(self, point):
    return (self.start <= point) & (point < self.end)

@hybrid_method
def intersects(self, other):
    return self.contains(other.start) | self.contains(other.end)
```

```
mapper(Interval, interval_table)
```

Above, the `length` property returns the difference between the `end` and `start` attributes. With an instance of `Interval`, this subtraction occurs in Python, using normal Python descriptor mechanics:

```
>>> i1 = Interval(5, 10)
>>> i1.length
5
```

At the class level, the usual descriptor behavior of returning the descriptor itself is modified by `hybrid_property`, to instead evaluate the function body given the `Interval` class as the argument:

```
>>> print Interval.length
interval."end" - interval.start

>>> print Session().query(Interval).filter(Interval.length > 10)
SELECT interval.id AS interval_id, interval.start AS interval_start,
interval."end" AS interval_end
FROM interval
WHERE interval."end" - interval.start > :param_1
```

ORM methods such as `filter_by()` generally use `getattr()` to locate attributes, so can also be used with hybrid attributes:

```
>>> print Session().query(Interval).filter_by(length=5)
SELECT interval.id AS interval_id, interval.start AS interval_start,
interval."end" AS interval_end
FROM interval
WHERE interval."end" - interval.start = :param_1
```

The `contains()` and `intersects()` methods are decorated with `hybrid_method`. This decorator applies the same idea to methods which accept zero or more arguments. The above methods return boolean values, and take advantage of the Python `|` and `&` bitwise operators to produce equivalent instance-level and SQL expression-level boolean behavior:

```
>>> i1.contains(6)
True
>>> i1.contains(15)
False
>>> i1.intersects(Interval(7, 18))
True
>>> i1.intersects(Interval(25, 29))
False

>>> print Session().query(Interval).filter(Interval.contains(15))
SELECT interval.id AS interval_id, interval.start AS interval_start,
interval."end" AS interval_end
FROM interval
WHERE interval.start <= :start_1 AND interval."end" > :end_1
```

```
>>> ia = aliased(Interval)
>>> print Session().query(Interval, ia).filter(Interval.intersects(ia))
SELECT interval.id AS interval_id, interval.start AS interval_start,
interval."end" AS interval_end, interval_1.id AS interval_1_id,
interval_1.start AS interval_1_start, interval_1."end" AS interval_1_end
FROM interval, interval AS interval_1
WHERE interval.start <= interval_1.start
      AND interval."end" > interval_1.start
      OR interval.start <= interval_1."end"
      AND interval."end" > interval_1."end"
```

Defining Expression Behavior Distinct from Attribute Behavior

Our usage of the `&` and `|` bitwise operators above was fortunate, considering our functions operated on two boolean values to return a new one. In many cases, the construction of an in-Python function and a SQLAlchemy SQL expression have enough differences that two separate Python expressions should be defined. The `hybrid` decorators define the `hybrid_property.expression()` modifier for this purpose. As an example we'll define the radius of the interval, which requires the usage of the absolute value function:

```
from sqlalchemy import func

class Interval(object):
    # ...

    @hybrid_property
    def radius(self):
        return abs(self.length) / 2

    @radius.expression
    def radius(cls):
        return func.abs(cls.length) / 2
```

Above the Python function `abs()` is used for instance-level operations, the SQL function `ABS()` is used via the `func` object for class-level expressions:

```
>>> i1.radius
2

>>> print Session().query(Interval).filter(Interval.radius > 5)
SELECT interval.id AS interval_id, interval.start AS interval_start,
       interval."end" AS interval_end
FROM interval
WHERE abs(interval."end" - interval.start) / :abs_1 > :param_1
```

Defining Setters

Hybrid properties can also define setter methods. If we wanted `length` above, when set, to modify the endpoint value:

```
class Interval(object):
    # ...

    @hybrid_property
    def length(self):
        return self.end - self.start
```

```
@length.setter
def length(self, value):
    self.end = self.start + value
```

The `length(self, value)` method is now called upon set:

```
>>> i1 = Interval(5, 10)
>>> i1.length
5
>>> i1.length = 12
>>> i1.end
17
```

Working with Relationships

There's no essential difference when creating hybrids that work with related objects as opposed to column-based data. The need for distinct expressions tends to be greater. Consider the following declarative mapping which relates a `User` to a `SavingsAccount`:

```
from sqlalchemy import Column, Integer, ForeignKey, Numeric, String
from sqlalchemy.orm import relationship
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
from sqlalchemy.ext.hybrid import hybrid_property
```

```
Base = declarative_base()
```

```
class SavingsAccount(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'account'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    user_id = Column(Integer, ForeignKey('user.id'), nullable=False)
    balance = Column(Numeric(15, 5))
```

```
class User(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'user'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String(100), nullable=False)
```

```
accounts = relationship("SavingsAccount", backref="owner")
```

```
@hybrid_property
def balance(self):
    if self.accounts:
        return self.accounts[0].balance
    else:
        return None
```

```
@balance.setter
def balance(self, value):
    if not self.accounts:
        account = Account(owner=self)
    else:
        account = self.accounts[0]
    account.balance = value
```

```
@balance.expression
def balance(cls):
    return SavingsAccount.balance
```

The above hybrid property `balance` works with the first `SavingsAccount` entry in the list of accounts for this user. The in-Python getter/setter methods can treat accounts as a Python list available on `self`.

However, at the expression level, we can't travel along relationships to column attributes directly since SQLAlchemy is explicit about joins. So here, it's expected that the `User` class will be used in an appropriate context such that an appropriate join to `SavingsAccount` will be present:

```
>>> print Session().query(User, User.balance).join(User.accounts).filter(User.balance > 5000)
SELECT "user".id AS user_id, "user".name AS user_name, account.balance AS account_balance
FROM "user" JOIN account ON "user".id = account.user_id
WHERE account.balance > :balance_1
```

Note however, that while the instance level accessors need to worry about whether `self.accounts` is even present, this issue expresses itself differently at the SQL expression level, where we basically would use an outer join:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import or_
>>> print (Session().query(User, User.balance).outerjoin(User.accounts).
...       filter(or_(User.balance < 5000, User.balance == None)))
SELECT "user".id AS user_id, "user".name AS user_name, account.balance AS account_balance
FROM "user" LEFT OUTER JOIN account ON "user".id = account.user_id
WHERE account.balance < :balance_1 OR account.balance IS NULL
```

Building Custom Comparators

The hybrid property also includes a helper that allows construction of custom comparators. A comparator object allows one to customize the behavior of each SQLAlchemy expression operator individually. They are useful when creating custom types that have some highly idiosyncratic behavior on the SQL side.

The example class below allows case-insensitive comparisons on the attribute named `word_insensitive`:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.hybrid import Comparator, hybrid_property
from sqlalchemy import func, Column, Integer, String
from sqlalchemy.orm import Session
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base

Base = declarative_base()

class CaseInsensitiveComparator(Comparator):
    def __eq__(self, other):
        return func.lower(self.__clause_element__()) == func.lower(other)

class SearchWord(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'searchword'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    word = Column(String(255), nullable=False)

    @hybrid_property
    def word_insensitive(self):
        return self.word.lower()

    @word_insensitive.comparator
    def word_insensitive(cls):
        return CaseInsensitiveComparator(cls.word)
```

Above, SQL expressions against `word_insensitive` will apply the `LOWER()` SQL function to both sides:

```
>>> print Session().query(SearchWord).filter_by(word_insensitive="Trucks")
SELECT searchword.id AS searchword_id, searchword.word AS searchword_word
FROM searchword
WHERE lower(searchword.word) = lower(:lower_1)
```

The `CaseInsensitiveComparator` above implements part of the `ColumnOperators` interface. A “coercion” operation like lowercasing can be applied to all comparison operations (i.e. `eq`, `lt`, `gt`, etc.) using `Operators.operate()`:

```
class CaseInsensitiveComparator(Comparator):
    def operate(self, op, other):
        return op(func.lower(self.__clause_element__()), func.lower(other))
```

Hybrid Value Objects

Note in our previous example, if we were to compare the `word_insensitive` attribute of a `SearchWord` instance to a plain Python string, the plain Python string would not be coerced to lower case - the `CaseInsensitiveComparator` we built, being returned by `@word_insensitive.comparator`, only applies to the SQL side.

A more comprehensive form of the custom comparator is to construct a *Hybrid Value Object*. This technique applies the target value or expression to a value object which is then returned by the accessor in all cases. The value object allows control of all operations upon the value as well as how compared values are treated, both on the SQL expression side as well as the Python value side. Replacing the previous `CaseInsensitiveComparator` class with a new `CaseInsensitiveWord` class:

```
class CaseInsensitiveWord(Comparator):
    "Hybrid value representing a lower case representation of a word."

    def __init__(self, word):
        if isinstance(word, basestring):
            self.word = word.lower()
        elif isinstance(word, CaseInsensitiveWord):
            self.word = word.word
        else:
            self.word = func.lower(word)

    def operate(self, op, other):
        if not isinstance(other, CaseInsensitiveWord):
            other = CaseInsensitiveWord(other)
        return op(self.word, other.word)

    def __clause_element__(self):
        return self.word

    def __str__(self):
        return self.word

    key = 'word'
    "Label to apply to Query tuple results"
```

Above, the `CaseInsensitiveWord` object represents `self.word`, which may be a SQL function, or may be a Python native. By overriding `operate()` and `__clause_element__()` to work in terms of `self.word`, all

comparison operations will work against the “converted” form of word, whether it be SQL side or Python side. Our SearchWord class can now deliver the CaseInsensitiveWord object unconditionally from a single hybrid call:

```
class SearchWord(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'searchword'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    word = Column(String(255), nullable=False)

    @hybrid_property
    def word_insensitive(self):
        return CaseInsensitiveWord(self.word)
```

The word_insensitive attribute now has case-insensitive comparison behavior universally, including SQL expression vs. Python expression (note the Python value is converted to lower case on the Python side here):

```
>>> print Session().query(SearchWord).filter_by(word_insensitive="Trucks")
SELECT searchword.id AS searchword_id, searchword.word AS searchword_word
FROM searchword
WHERE lower(searchword.word) = :lower_1
```

SQL expression versus SQL expression:

```
>>> sw1 = aliased(SearchWord)
>>> sw2 = aliased(SearchWord)
>>> print Session().query(sw1.word_insensitive, sw2.word_insensitive).filter(sw1.word_insensitive > sw2.word_insensitive)
SELECT lower(searchword_1.word) AS lower_1, lower(searchword_2.word) AS lower_2
FROM searchword AS searchword_1, searchword AS searchword_2
WHERE lower(searchword_1.word) > lower(searchword_2.word)
```

Python only expression:

```
>>> ws1 = SearchWord(word="SomeWord")
>>> ws1.word_insensitive == "sOmEwOrD"
True
>>> ws1.word_insensitive == "XOmEwOrX"
False
>>> print ws1.word_insensitive
someword
```

The Hybrid Value pattern is very useful for any kind of value that may have multiple representations, such as timestamps, time deltas, units of measurement, currencies and encrypted passwords.

API Reference

class sqlalchemy.ext.hybrid.hybrid_method(func, expr=None)

A decorator which allows definition of a Python object method with both instance-level and class-level behavior.

__init__(func, expr=None)

Create a new hybrid_method.

Usage is typically via decorator:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.hybrid import hybrid_method

class SomeClass(object):
    @hybrid_method
    def value(self, x, y):
        return self._value + x + y
```

```
@value.expression
def value(self, x, y):
    return func.some_function(self._value, x, y)
```

expression (*expr*)

Provide a modifying decorator that defines a SQL-expression producing method.

class sqlalchemy.ext.hybrid.**hybrid_property** (*fget, fset=None, fdel=None, expr=None*)

A decorator which allows definition of a Python descriptor with both instance-level and class-level behavior.

__init__ (*fget, fset=None, fdel=None, expr=None*)

Create a new `hybrid_property`.

Usage is typically via decorator:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.hybrid import hybrid_property
```

```
class SomeClass(object):
    @hybrid_property
    def value(self):
        return self._value

    @value.setter
    def value(self, value):
        self._value = value
```

comparator (*comparator*)

Provide a modifying decorator that defines a custom comparator producing method.

The return value of the decorated method should be an instance of `Comparator`.

deleter (*fdel*)

Provide a modifying decorator that defines a value-deletion method.

expression (*expr*)

Provide a modifying decorator that defines a SQL-expression producing method.

setter (*fset*)

Provide a modifying decorator that defines a value-setter method.

class sqlalchemy.ext.hybrid.**Comparator** (*expression*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.PropComparator`

A helper class that allows easy construction of custom `PropComparator` classes for usage with hybrids.

2.10.7 SqlSoup

Introduction

SqlSoup provides a convenient way to access existing database tables without having to declare table or mapper classes ahead of time. It is built on top of the SQLAlchemy ORM and provides a super-minimalistic interface to an existing database.

SqlSoup effectively provides a coarse grained, alternative interface to working with the SQLAlchemy ORM, providing a “self configuring” interface for extremely rudimental operations. It’s somewhat akin to a “super novice mode” version of the ORM. While SqlSoup can be very handy, users are strongly encouraged to use the full ORM for non-trivial applications.

Suppose we have a database with users, books, and loans tables (corresponding to the PyWebOff dataset, if you're curious).

Creating a SqlSoup gateway is just like creating an SQLAlchemy engine:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.ext.sqlsoup import SqlSoup
>>> db = SqlSoup('sqlite:///memory:')
```

or, you can re-use an existing engine:

```
>>> db = SqlSoup(engine)
```

You can optionally specify a schema within the database for your SqlSoup:

```
>>> db.schema = myschemaname
```

Loading objects

Loading objects is as easy as this:

```
>>> users = db.users.all()
>>> users.sort()
>>> users
[
    MappedUsers(name=u'Joe Student', email=u'student@example.edu',
                 password=u'student', classname=None, admin=0),
    MappedUsers(name=u'Bhargan Basepair', email=u'basepair@example.edu',
                 password=u'basepair', classname=None, admin=1)
]
```

Of course, letting the database do the sort is better:

```
>>> db.users.order_by(db.users.name).all()
[
    MappedUsers(name=u'Bhargan Basepair', email=u'basepair@example.edu',
                 password=u'basepair', classname=None, admin=1),
    MappedUsers(name=u'Joe Student', email=u'student@example.edu',
                 password=u'student', classname=None, admin=0)
]
```

Field access is intuitive:

```
>>> users[0].email
u'student@example.edu'
```

Of course, you don't want to load all users very often. Let's add a WHERE clause. Let's also switch the order_by to DESC while we're at it:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import or_, and_, desc
>>> where = or_(db.users.name=='Bhargan Basepair', db.users.email=='student@example.edu')
>>> db.users.filter(where).order_by(desc(db.users.name)).all()
[
    MappedUsers(name=u'Joe Student', email=u'student@example.edu',
                 password=u'student', classname=None, admin=0),
    MappedUsers(name=u'Bhargan Basepair', email=u'basepair@example.edu',
                 password=u'basepair', classname=None, admin=1)
]
```

You can also use .first() (to retrieve only the first object from a query) or .one() (like .first when you expect exactly one user – it will raise an exception if more were returned):

```
>>> db.users.filter(db.users.name=='Bhargan Basepair').one()
MappedUsers(name=u'Bhargan Basepair', email=u'basepair@example.edu',
            password=u'basepair', classname=None, admin=1)
```

Since name is the primary key, this is equivalent to

```
>>> db.users.get('Bhargan Basepair')
MappedUsers(name=u'Bhargan Basepair', email=u'basepair@example.edu',
            password=u'basepair', classname=None, admin=1)
```

This is also equivalent to

```
>>> db.users.filter_by(name='Bhargan Basepair').one()
MappedUsers(name=u'Bhargan Basepair', email=u'basepair@example.edu',
            password=u'basepair', classname=None, admin=1)
```

`filter_by` is like `filter`, but takes kwargs instead of full clause expressions. This makes it more concise for simple queries like this, but you can't do complex queries like the `or_` above or non-equality based comparisons this way.

Full query documentation

Get, filter, filter_by, order_by, limit, and the rest of the query methods are explained in detail in [Querying](#).

Modifying objects

Modifying objects is intuitive:

```
>>> user = _
>>> user.email = 'basepair+nospam@example.edu'
>>> db.commit()
```

(SqlSoup leverages the sophisticated SQLAlchemy unit-of-work code, so multiple updates to a single object will be turned into a single UPDATE statement when you commit.)

To finish covering the basics, let's insert a new loan, then delete it:

```
>>> book_id = db.books.filter_by(title='Regional Variation in Moss').first().id
>>> db.loans.insert(book_id=book_id, user_name=user.name)
MappedLoans(book_id=2, user_name=u'Bhargan Basepair', loan_date=None)

>>> loan = db.loans.filter_by(book_id=2, user_name='Bhargan Basepair').one()
>>> db.delete(loan)
>>> db.commit()
```

You can also delete rows that have not been loaded as objects. Let's do our insert/delete cycle once more, this time using the loans table's delete method. (For SQLAlchemy experts: note that no `flush()` call is required since this delete acts at the SQL level, not at the Mapper level.) The same where-clause construction rules apply here as to the select methods:

```
>>> db.loans.insert(book_id=book_id, user_name=user.name)
MappedLoans(book_id=2, user_name=u'Bhargan Basepair', loan_date=None)
>>> db.loans.delete(db.loans.book_id==2)
```

You can similarly update multiple rows at once. This will change the `book_id` to 1 in all loans whose `book_id` is 2:

```
>>> db.loans.update(db.loans.book_id==2, book_id=1)
>>> db.loans.filter_by(book_id=1).all()
[MappedLoans(book_id=1, user_name=u'Joe Student',
            loan_date=datetime.datetime(2006, 7, 12, 0, 0))]
```

Joins

Occasionally, you will want to pull out a lot of data from related tables all at once. In this situation, it is far more efficient to have the database perform the necessary join. (Here we do not have *a lot of data* but hopefully the concept is still clear.) SQLAlchemy is smart enough to recognize that loans has a foreign key to users, and uses that as the join condition automatically:

```
>>> join1 = db.join(db.users, db.loans, isouter=True)
>>> join1.filter_by(name='Joe Student').all()
[
    MappedJoin(name=u'Joe Student', email=u'student@example.edu',
                password=u'student', classname=None, admin=0, book_id=1,
                user_name=u'Joe Student', loan_date=datetime.datetime(2006, 7, 12, 0, 0))
]
```

If you're unfortunate enough to be using MySQL with the default MyISAM storage engine, you'll have to specify the join condition manually, since MyISAM does not store foreign keys. Here's the same join again, with the join condition explicitly specified:

```
>>> db.join(db.users, db.loans, db.users.name==db.loans.user_name, isouter=True)
<class 'sqlalchemy.ext.sqlsoup.MappedJoin'>
```

You can compose arbitrarily complex joins by combining Join objects with tables or other joins. Here we combine our first join with the books table:

```
>>> join2 = db.join(join1, db.books)
>>> join2.all()
[
    MappedJoin(name=u'Joe Student', email=u'student@example.edu',
                password=u'student', classname=None, admin=0, book_id=1,
                user_name=u'Joe Student', loan_date=datetime.datetime(2006, 7, 12, 0, 0),
                id=1, title=u'Mustards I Have Known', published_year=u'1989',
                authors=u'Jones')
]
```

If you join tables that have an identical column name, wrap your join with *with_labels*, to disambiguate columns with their table name (.c is short for .columns):

```
>>> db.with_labels(join1).c.keys()
[u'users_name', u'users_email', u'users_password',
 u'users_classname', u'users_admin', u'loans_book_id',
 u'loans_user_name', u'loans_loan_date']
```

You can also join directly to a labeled object:

```
>>> labeled_loans = db.with_labels(db.loans)
>>> db.join(db.users, labeled_loans, isouter=True).c.keys()
[u'name', u'email', u'password', u'classname',
 u'admin', u'loans_book_id', u'loans_user_name', u'loans_loan_date']
```

Relationships

You can define relationships on SqlSoup classes:

```
>>> db.users.relate('loans', db.loans)
```

These can then be used like a normal SA property:

```
>>> db.users.get('Joe Student').loans
[MappedLoans(book_id=1, user_name=u'Joe Student',
              loan_date=datetime.datetime(2006, 7, 12, 0, 0))]

>>> db.users.filter(~db.users.loans.any()).all()
[MappedUsers(name=u'Bhargan Basepair',
              email='basepair+nospam@example.edu',
              password=u'basepair', classname=None, admin=1)]
```

relate can take any options that the relationship function accepts in normal mapper definition:

```
>>> del db._cache['users']
>>> db.users.relate('loans', db.loans, order_by=db.loans.loan_date, cascade='all, delete-orphan')
```

Advanced Use

Sessions, Transactions and Application Integration

Note: please read and understand this section thoroughly before using SqlSoup in any web application.

SqlSoup uses a `ScopedSession` to provide thread-local sessions. You can get a reference to the current one like this:

```
>>> session = db.session
```

The default session is available at the module level in `SQLSoup`, via:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.ext.sqlsoup import Session
```

The configuration of this session is `autoflush=True`, `autocommit=False`. This means when you work with the `SqlSoup` object, you need to call `db.commit()` in order to have changes persisted. You may also call `db.rollback()` to roll things back.

Since the `SqlSoup` object's `Session` automatically enters into a transaction as soon as it's used, it is *essential* that you call `commit()` or `rollback()` on it when the work within a thread completes. This means all the guidelines for web application integration at *Lifespan of a Contextual Session* must be followed.

The `SqlSoup` object can have any session or scoped session configured onto it. This is of key importance when integrating with existing code or frameworks such as Pylons. If your application already has a `Session` configured, pass it to your `SqlSoup` object:

```
>>> from myapplication import Session
>>> db = SqlSoup(session=Session)
```

If the `Session` is configured with `autocommit=True`, use `flush()` instead of `commit()` to persist changes - in this case, the `Session` closes out its transaction immediately and no external management is needed. `rollback()` is also not available. Configuring a new `SQLSoup` object in "autocommit" mode looks like:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.orm import scoped_session, sessionmaker
>>> db = SqlSoup('sqlite://', session=scoped_session(sessionmaker(autoflush=False, expire_on_commit=False)))
```

Mapping arbitrary Selectables

`SqlSoup` can map any SQLAlchemy `Selectable` with the `map` method. Let's map an `expression.select()` object that uses an aggregate function; we'll use the SQLAlchemy `Table` that `SqlSoup` introspected as the basis. (Since we're not mapping to a simple table or join, we need to tell SQLAlchemy how to find the *primary key* which just needs to be unique within the select, and not necessarily correspond to a *real* PK in the database.):

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import select, func
>>> b = db.books._table
>>> s = select([b.c.published_year, func.count('*').label('n')], from_obj=[b], group_by=[b])
>>> s = s.alias('years_with_count')
>>> years_with_count = db.map(s, primary_key=[s.c.published_year])
>>> years_with_count.filter_by(published_year='1989').all()
[MappedBooks(published_year=u'1989', n=1)]
```

Obviously if we just wanted to get a list of counts associated with book years once, raw SQL is going to be less work. The advantage of mapping a Select is reusability, both standalone and in Joins. (And if you go to full SQLAlchemy, you can perform mappings like this directly to your object models.)

An easy way to save mapped selectables like this is to just hang them on your db object:

```
>>> db.years_with_count = years_with_count
```

Python is flexible like that!

Raw SQL

SqlSoup works fine with SQLAlchemy's text construct, described in *Using Text*. You can also execute textual SQL directly using the *execute()* method, which corresponds to the *execute()* method on the underlying *Session*. Expressions here are expressed like *text()* constructs, using named parameters with colons:

```
>>> rp = db.execute('select name, email from users where name like :name order by name', name='Bhargan')
>>> for name, email in rp.fetchall(): print name, email
Bhargan Basepair basepair+nospam@example.edu
```

Or you can get at the current transaction's connection using *connection()*. This is the raw connection object which can accept any sort of SQL expression or raw SQL string passed to the database:

```
>>> conn = db.connection()
>>> conn.execute("'select name, email from users where name like ? order by name'", '%Bhargan')
```

Dynamic table names

You can load a table whose name is specified at runtime with the *entity()* method:

```
>>> tablename = 'loans'
>>> db.entity(tablename) == db.loans
True
```

entity() also takes an optional *schema* argument. If none is specified, the default schema is used.

SqlSoup API

```
class sqlalchemy.ext.sqlsoup.SqlSoup(engine_or_metadata, base=<type 'object'>, session=None)
```

Represent an ORM-wrapped database resource.

```
__init__(engine_or_metadata, base=<type 'object'>, session=None)
```

Initialize a new *SqlSoup*.

Parameters

- **engine_or_metadata** – a string database URL, *Engine* or *MetaData* object to associate with. If the argument is a *MetaData*, it should be *bound* to an *Engine*.

- **base** – a class which will serve as the default class for returned mapped classes. Defaults to `object`.
- **session** – a `ScopedSession` or `Session` with which to associate ORM operations for this `SqlSoup` instance. If `None`, a `ScopedSession` that’s local to this module is used.

bind

The `Engine` associated with this `SqlSoup`.

clear()

Synonym for `SqlSoup.expunge_all()`.

commit()

Commit the current transaction.

See `Session.commit()`.

connection()

Return the current `Connection` in use by the current transaction.

delete(instance)

Mark an instance as deleted.

engine

The `Engine` associated with this `SqlSoup`.

entity(attr, schema=None)

Return the named entity from this `SqlSoup`, or create if not present.

For more generalized mapping, see `map_to()`.

execute(stmt, **params)

Execute a SQL statement.

The statement may be a string SQL string, an `expression.select()` construct, or an `expression.text()` construct.

expunge(instance)

Remove an instance from the `Session`.

See `Session.expunge()`.

expunge_all()

Clear all objects from the current `Session`.

See `Session.expunge_all()`.

flush()

Flush pending changes to the database.

See `Session.flush()`.

join(left, right, onclause=None, isouter=False, base=None, **mapper_args)

Create an `expression.join()` and map to it.

The class and its mapping are not cached and will be discarded once dereferenced (as of 0.6.6).

Parameters

- **left** – a mapped class or table object.
- **right** – a mapped class or table object.
- **onclause** – optional “ON” clause construct..
- **isouter** – if True, the join will be an OUTER join.

- **base** – a Python class which will be used as the base for the mapped class. If `None`, the “base” argument specified by this `SqlSoup` instance’s constructor will be used, which defaults to `object`.
- **mapper_args** – Dictionary of arguments which will be passed directly to `orm.mapper()`.

map (*selectable*, *base=None*, ***mapper_args*)

Map a selectable directly.

The class and its mapping are not cached and will be discarded once dereferenced (as of 0.6.6).

Parameters

- **selectable** – an `expression.select()` construct.
- **base** – a Python class which will be used as the base for the mapped class. If `None`, the “base” argument specified by this `SqlSoup` instance’s constructor will be used, which defaults to `object`.
- **mapper_args** – Dictionary of arguments which will be passed directly to `orm.mapper()`.

map_to (*attrname*, *tablename=None*, *selectable=None*, *schema=None*, *base=None*, *mapper_args=ImmutableDict({})*)

Configure a mapping to the given attrname.

This is the “master” method that can be used to create any configuration.

(new in 0.6.6)

Parameters

- **attrname** – String attribute name which will be established as an attribute on this :class: `SqlSoup` instance.
- **base** – a Python class which will be used as the base for the mapped class. If `None`, the “base” argument specified by this `SqlSoup` instance’s constructor will be used, which defaults to `object`.
- **mapper_args** – Dictionary of arguments which will be passed directly to `orm.mapper()`.
- **tablename** – String name of a `Table` to be reflected. If a `Table` is already available, use the `selectable` argument. This argument is mutually exclusive versus the `selectable` argument.
- **selectable** – a `Table`, `Join`, or `Select` object which will be mapped. This argument is mutually exclusive versus the `tablename` argument.
- **schema** – String schema name to use if the `tablename` argument is present.

rollback ()

Rollback the current transaction.

See `Session.rollback()`.

with_labels (*selectable*, *base=None*, ***mapper_args*)

Map a selectable directly, wrapping the selectable in a subquery with labels.

The class and its mapping are not cached and will be discarded once dereferenced (as of 0.6.6).

Parameters

- **selectable** – an `expression.select()` construct.

- **base** – a Python class which will be used as the base for the mapped class. If `None`, the “base” argument specified by this `SqlSoup` instance’s constructor will be used, which defaults to `object`.
- **mapper_args** – Dictionary of arguments which will be passed directly to `orm.mapper()`.

2.11 Examples

The SQLAlchemy distribution includes a variety of code examples illustrating a select set of patterns, some typical and some not so typical. All are runnable and can be found in the `/examples` directory of the distribution. Each example contains a README in its `__init__.py` file, each of which are listed below.

Additional SQLAlchemy examples, some user contributed, are available on the wiki at <http://www.sqlalchemy.org/trac/wiki/UsageRecipes>.

2.11.1 Adjacency List

Location: `/examples/adjacency_list/` An example of a dictionary-of-dictionaries structure mapped using an adjacency list model.

E.g.:

```
node = TreeNode('rootnode')
node.append('node1')
node.append('node3')
session.add(node)
session.commit()

dump_tree(node)
```

2.11.2 Associations

Location: `/examples/association/` Examples illustrating the usage of the “association object” pattern, where an intermediary class mediates the relationship between two classes that are associated in a many-to-many pattern.

This directory includes the following examples:

- `basic_association.py` - illustrate a many-to-many relationship between an “Order” and a collection of “Item” objects, associating a purchase price with each via an association object called “OrderItem”
- `proxied_association.py` - same example as `basic_association`, adding in usage of `sqlalchemy.ext.associationproxy` to make explicit references to “OrderItem” optional.
- `dict_of_sets_with_default.py` - an advanced association proxy example which illustrates nesting of association proxies to produce multi-level Python collections, in this case a dictionary with string keys and sets of integers as values, which conceal the underlying mapped classes.

2.11.3 Attribute Instrumentation

Location: `/examples/custom_attributes/` Two examples illustrating modifications to SQLAlchemy’s attribute management system.

`listen_for_events.py` illustrates the usage of `AttributeExtension` to intercept attribute events. It additionally illustrates a way to automatically attach these listeners to all class attributes using a `InstrumentationManager`.

`custom_management.py` illustrates much deeper usage of `InstrumentationManager` as well as collection adaptation, to completely change the underlying method used to store state on an object. This example was developed to illustrate techniques which would be used by other third party object instrumentation systems to interact with SQLAlchemy's event system and is only intended for very intricate framework integrations.

2.11.4 Beaker Caching

Location: `/examples/beaker_caching/` Illustrates how to embed Beaker cache functionality within the Query object, allowing full cache control as well as the ability to pull "lazy loaded" attributes from long term cache as well.

In this demo, the following techniques are illustrated:

- Using custom subclasses of Query
- Basic technique of circumventing Query to pull from a custom cache source instead of the database.
- Rudimental caching with Beaker, using "regions" which allow global control over a fixed set of configurations.
- Using custom MapperOption objects to configure options on a Query, including the ability to invoke the options deep within an object graph when lazy loads occur.

E.g.:

```
# query for Person objects, specifying cache
q = Session.query(Person).options(FromCache("default", "all_people"))

# specify that each Person's "addresses" collection comes from
# cache too
q = q.options(RelationshipCache("default", "by_person", Person.addresses))

# query
print q.all()
```

To run, both SQLAlchemy and Beaker (1.4 or greater) must be installed or on the current PYTHONPATH. The demo will create a local directory for datafiles, insert initial data, and run. Running the demo a second time will utilize the cache files already present, and exactly one SQL statement against two tables will be emitted - the displayed result however will utilize dozens of lazyloads that all pull from cache.

The demo scripts themselves, in order of complexity, are run as follows:

```
python examples/beaker_caching/helloworld.py
```

```
python examples/beaker_caching/relationship_caching.py
```

```
python examples/beaker_caching/advanced.py
```

```
python examples/beaker_caching/local_session_caching.py
```

Listing of files:

`environment.py` - Establish the Session, the Beaker cache manager, data / cache file paths, and configurations, bootstrap fixture data if necessary.

`caching_query.py` - Represent functions and classes which allow the usage of Beaker caching with SQLAlchemy. Introduces a query option called `FromCache`.

`model.py` - The datamodel, which represents Person that has multiple Address objects, each with Postal-Code, City, Country

`fixture_data.py` - creates demo PostalCode, Address, Person objects in the database.

`helloworld.py` - the basic idea.

`relationship_caching.py` - Illustrates how to add cache options on relationship endpoints, so that lazyloads load from cache.

`advanced.py` - Further examples of how to use FromCache. Combines techniques from the first two scripts.

`local_session_caching.py` - Grok everything so far ? This example creates a new Beaker container that will persist data in a dictionary which is local to the current session. `remove()` the session and the cache is gone.

2.11.5 Directed Graphs

Location: `/examples/graphs/` An example of persistence for a directed graph structure. The graph is stored as a collection of edges, each referencing both a “lower” and an “upper” node in a table of nodes. Basic persistence and querying for lower- and upper- neighbors are illustrated:

```
n2 = Node(2)
n5 = Node(5)
n2.add_neighbor(n5)
print n2.higher_neighbors()
```

2.11.6 Dynamic Relations as Dictionaries

Location: `/examples/dynamic_dict/` Illustrates how to place a dictionary-like facade on top of a “dynamic” relation, so that dictionary operations (assuming simple string keys) can operate upon a large collection without loading the full collection at once.

2.11.7 Generic Associations

Location: `/examples/generic_associations` Illustrates various methods of associating multiple types of parents with a particular child object.

The examples all use the declarative extension along with declarative mixins. Each one presents the identical use case at the end - two classes, `Customer` and `Supplier`, both subclassing the `HasAddresses` mixin, which ensures that the parent class is provided with an `addresses` collection which contains `Address` objects.

The configurations include:

- `table_per_related.py` - illustrates a distinct table per related collection.
- `table_per_association.py` - illustrates a shared collection table, using a table per association.
- `discriminator_on_association.py` - shared collection table and shared association table, including a discriminator column.

The `discriminator_on_association.py` script in particular is a modernized version of the “polymorphic associations” example present in older versions of SQLAlchemy, originally from the blog post at <http://techspot.zzzeek.org/2007/05/29/polymorphic-associations-with-sqlalchemy/>.

2.11.8 Horizontal Sharding

Location: `/examples/sharding` A basic example of using the SQLAlchemy Sharding API. Sharding refers to horizontally scaling data across multiple databases.

The basic components of a “sharded” mapping are:

- multiple databases, each assigned a ‘shard id’
- a function which can return a single shard id, given an instance to be saved; this is called “shard_chooser”
- a function which can return a list of shard ids which apply to a particular instance identifier; this is called “id_chooser”. If it returns all shard ids, all shards will be searched.
- a function which can return a list of shard ids to try, given a particular Query (“query_chooser”). If it returns all shard ids, all shards will be queried and the results joined together.

In this example, four sqlite databases will store information about weather data on a database-per-continent basis. We provide example `shard_chooser`, `id_chooser` and `query_chooser` functions. The `query_chooser` illustrates inspection of the SQL expression element in order to attempt to determine a single shard being requested.

The construction of generic sharding routines is an ambitious approach to the issue of organizing instances among multiple databases. For a more plain-spoken alternative, the “distinct entity” approach is a simple method of assigning objects to different tables (and potentially database nodes) in an explicit way - described on the wiki at [EntityName](#).

2.11.9 Inheritance Mappings

Location: `/examples/inheritance/` Working examples of single-table, joined-table, and concrete-table inheritance as described in *datamapping_inheritance*.

2.11.10 Large Collections

Location: `/examples/large_collection/` Large collection example.

Illustrates the options to use with `relationship()` when the list of related objects is very large, including:

- “dynamic” relationships which query slices of data as accessed
- how to use ON DELETE CASCADE in conjunction with `passive_deletes=True` to greatly improve the performance of related collection deletion.

2.11.11 Nested Sets

Location: `/examples/nested_sets/` Illustrates a rudimentary way to implement the “nested sets” pattern for hierarchical data using the SQLAlchemy ORM.

2.11.12 Polymorphic Associations

See *Generic Associations* for a modern version of polymorphic associations.

2.11.13 PostGIS Integration

Location: `/examples/postgis` A naive example illustrating techniques to help embed PostGIS functionality.

This example was originally developed in the hopes that it would be extrapolated into a comprehensive PostGIS integration layer. We are pleased to announce that this has come to fruition as [GeoAlchemy](#).

The example illustrates:

- a DDL extension which allows `CREATE/DROP` to work in conjunction with `AddGeometryColumn/DropGeometryColumn`
- a Geometry type, as well as a few subtypes, which convert result row values to a GIS-aware object, and also integrates with the DDL extension.
- a GIS-aware object which stores a raw geometry value and provides a factory for functions such as `AsText()`.
- an ORM comparator which can override standard column methods on mapped objects to produce GIS operators.
- an attribute event listener that intercepts strings and converts to `GeomFromText()`.
- a standalone operator example.

The implementation is limited to only public, well known and simple to use extension points.

E.g.:

```
print session.query(Road).filter(Road.road_geom.intersects(r1.road_geom)).all()
```

2.11.14 Versioned Objects

Location: `/examples/versioning` Illustrates an extension which creates version tables for entities and stores records for each change. The same idea as Elixir's versioned extension, but more efficient (uses attribute API to get history) and handles class inheritance. The given extensions generate an anonymous "history" class which represents historical versions of the target object.

Usage is illustrated via a unit test module `test_versioning.py`, which can be run via nose:

```
cd examples/versioning
nosetests -v
```

A fragment of example usage, using declarative:

```
from history_meta import VersionedMeta, VersionedListener

Base = declarative_base(metaclass=VersionedMeta, bind=engine)
Session = sessionmaker(extension=VersionedListener())

class SomeClass(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'sometable'

    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String(50))

    def __eq__(self, other):
        assert type(other) is SomeClass and other.id == self.id

sess = Session()
sc = SomeClass(name='sc1')
sess.add(sc)
```

```

sess.commit()

sc.name = 'sclmodified'
sess.commit()

assert sc.version == 2

SomeClassHistory = SomeClass.__history_mapper__.class_

assert sess.query(SomeClassHistory).\
    filter(SomeClassHistory.version == 1).\
    all() \
    == [SomeClassHistory(version=1, name='scl')]

```

To apply VersionedMeta to a subset of classes (probably more typical), the metaclass can be applied on a per-class basis:

```

from history_meta import VersionedMeta, VersionedListener

Base = declarative_base(bind=engine)

class SomeClass(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'sometable'

    # ...

class SomeVersionedClass(Base):
    __metaclass__ = VersionedMeta
    __tablename__ = 'someothertable'

    # ...

```

The VersionedMeta is a declarative metaclass - to use the extension with plain mappers, the `__history_mapper` function can be applied:

```

from history_meta import __history_mapper

m = mapper(SomeClass, sometable)
__history_mapper(m)

SomeHistoryClass = SomeClass.__history_mapper__.class_

```

2.11.15 Vertical Attribute Mapping

Location: `/examples/vertical` Illustrates “vertical table” mappings.

A “vertical table” refers to a technique where individual attributes of an object are stored as distinct rows in a table. The “vertical table” technique is used to persist objects which can have a varied set of attributes, at the expense of simple query control and brevity. It is commonly found in content/document management systems in order to represent user-created structures flexibly.

Two variants on the approach are given. In the second, each row references a “datatype” which contains information about the type of information stored in the attribute, such as integer, string, or date.

Example:

```
shrew = Animal(u'shrew')
shrew[u'cuteness'] = 5
shrew[u'weasel-like'] = False
shrew[u'poisonous'] = True

session.add(shrew)
session.flush()

q = (session.query(Animal).
     filter(Animal.facts.any(
         and_(AnimalFact.key == u'weasel-like',
              AnimalFact.value == True))))
print 'weasel-like animals', q.all()
```

2.11.16 XML Persistence

Location: `/examples/elementtree/` Illustrates three strategies for persisting and querying XML documents as represented by `ElementTree` in a relational database. The techniques do not apply any mappings to the `ElementTree` objects directly, so are compatible with the native `cElementTree` as well as `lxml`, and can be adapted to suit any kind of DOM representation system. Querying along `xpath`-like strings is illustrated as well.

In order of complexity:

- `pickle.py` - Quick and dirty, serialize the whole DOM into a BLOB column. While the example is very brief, it has very limited functionality.
- `adjacency_list.py` - Each DOM node is stored in an individual table row, with attributes represented in a separate table. The nodes are associated in a hierarchy using an adjacency list structure. A query function is introduced which can search for nodes along any path with a given structure of attributes, basically a (very narrow) subset of `xpath`.
- `optimized_al.py` - Uses the same strategy as `adjacency_list.py`, but associates each DOM row with its owning document row, so that a full document of DOM nodes can be loaded using `O(1)` queries - the construction of the “hierarchy” is performed after the load in a non-recursive fashion and is much more efficient.

E.g.:

```
# parse an XML file and persist in the database
doc = ElementTree.parse("test.xml")
session.add(Document(file, doc))
session.commit()

# locate documents with a certain path/attribute structure
for document in find_document('/somefile/header/field2[@attr=foo]'):
    # dump the XML
    print document
```

2.12 Deprecated ORM Event Interfaces

This section describes the class-based ORM event interface which first existed in SQLAlchemy 0.1, which progressed with more kinds of events up until SQLAlchemy 0.5. The non-ORM analogue is described at [Deprecated Event Interfaces](#).

As of SQLAlchemy 0.7, the new event system described in [Events](#) replaces the extension/proxy/listener system, providing a consistent interface to all events without the need for subclassing.

2.12.1 Mapper Events

class sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.**MapperExtension**

Base implementation for `Mapper` event hooks.

Note: `MapperExtension` is deprecated. Please refer to `event.listen()` as well as `MapperEvents`.

New extension classes subclass `MapperExtension` and are specified using the `extension mapper()` argument, which is a single `MapperExtension` or a list of such:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces import MapperExtension

class MyExtension(MapperExtension):
    def before_insert(self, mapper, connection, instance):
        print "instance %s before insert !" % instance

m = mapper(User, users_table, extension=MyExtension())
```

A single mapper can maintain a chain of `MapperExtension` objects. When a particular mapping event occurs, the corresponding method on each `MapperExtension` is invoked serially, and each method has the ability to halt the chain from proceeding further:

```
m = mapper(User, users_table, extension=[ext1, ext2, ext3])
```

Each `MapperExtension` method returns the symbol `EXT_CONTINUE` by default. This symbol generally means “move to the next `MapperExtension` for processing”. For methods that return objects like translated rows or new object instances, `EXT_CONTINUE` means the result of the method should be ignored. In some cases it’s required for a default mapper activity to be performed, such as adding a new instance to a result list.

The symbol `EXT_STOP` has significance within a chain of `MapperExtension` objects that the chain will be stopped when this symbol is returned. Like `EXT_CONTINUE`, it also has additional significance in some cases that a default mapper activity will not be performed.

after_delete (*mapper, connection, instance*)

Receive an object instance after that instance is deleted.

The return value is only significant within the `MapperExtension` chain; the parent mapper’s behavior isn’t modified by this method.

after_insert (*mapper, connection, instance*)

Receive an object instance after that instance is inserted.

The return value is only significant within the `MapperExtension` chain; the parent mapper’s behavior isn’t modified by this method.

after_update (*mapper, connection, instance*)

Receive an object instance after that instance is updated.

The return value is only significant within the `MapperExtension` chain; the parent mapper’s behavior isn’t modified by this method.

append_result (*mapper, selectcontext, row, instance, result, **flags*)

Receive an object instance before that instance is appended to a result list.

If this method returns `EXT_CONTINUE`, result appending will proceed normally. if this method returns any other value or `None`, result appending will not proceed for this instance, giving this extension an opportunity to do the appending itself, if desired.

mapper The mapper doing the operation.

selectcontext The QueryContext generated from the Query.

row The result row from the database.

instance The object instance to be appended to the result.

result List to which results are being appended.

****flags** extra information about the row, same as criterion in `create_row_processor()` method of `MapperProperty`

before_delete (*mapper, connection, instance*)

Receive an object instance before that instance is deleted.

Note that *no* changes to the overall flush plan can be made here; and manipulation of the Session will not have the desired effect. To manipulate the Session within an extension, use `SessionExtension`.

The return value is only significant within the `MapperExtension` chain; the parent mapper's behavior isn't modified by this method.

before_insert (*mapper, connection, instance*)

Receive an object instance before that instance is inserted into its table.

This is a good place to set up primary key values and such that aren't handled otherwise.

Column-based attributes can be modified within this method which will result in the new value being inserted. However *no* changes to the overall flush plan can be made, and manipulation of the Session will not have the desired effect. To manipulate the Session within an extension, use `SessionExtension`.

The return value is only significant within the `MapperExtension` chain; the parent mapper's behavior isn't modified by this method.

before_update (*mapper, connection, instance*)

Receive an object instance before that instance is updated.

Note that this method is called for all instances that are marked as “dirty”, even those which have no net changes to their column-based attributes. An object is marked as dirty when any of its column-based attributes have a “set attribute” operation called or when any of its collections are modified. If, at update time, no column-based attributes have any net changes, no UPDATE statement will be issued. This means that an instance being sent to `before_update` is *not* a guarantee that an UPDATE statement will be issued (although you can affect the outcome here).

To detect if the column-based attributes on the object have net changes, and will therefore generate an UPDATE statement, use `object_session(instance).is_modified(instance, include_collections=False)`.

Column-based attributes can be modified within this method which will result in the new value being updated. However *no* changes to the overall flush plan can be made, and manipulation of the Session will not have the desired effect. To manipulate the Session within an extension, use `SessionExtension`.

The return value is only significant within the `MapperExtension` chain; the parent mapper's behavior isn't modified by this method.

create_instance (*mapper, selectcontext, row, class_*)

Receive a row when a new object instance is about to be created from that row.

The method can choose to create the instance itself, or it can return `EXT_CONTINUE` to indicate normal object creation should take place.

mapper The mapper doing the operation

selectcontext The QueryContext generated from the Query.

row The result row from the database

class_ The class we are mapping.

return value A new object instance, or `EXT_CONTINUE`

init_failed (*mapper, class_, oldinit, instance, args, kwargs*)

Receive an instance when it's constructor has been called, and raised an exception.

This method is only called during a userland construction of an object. It is not called when an object is loaded from the database.

The return value is only significant within the `MapperExtension` chain; the parent mapper's behavior isn't modified by this method.

init_instance (*mapper, class_, oldinit, instance, args, kwargs*)

Receive an instance when it's constructor is called.

This method is only called during a userland construction of an object. It is not called when an object is loaded from the database.

The return value is only significant within the `MapperExtension` chain; the parent mapper's behavior isn't modified by this method.

instrument_class (*mapper, class_*)

Receive a class when the mapper is first constructed, and has applied instrumentation to the mapped class.

The return value is only significant within the `MapperExtension` chain; the parent mapper's behavior isn't modified by this method.

populate_instance (*mapper, selectcontext, row, instance, **flags*)

Receive an instance before that instance has its attributes populated.

This usually corresponds to a newly loaded instance but may also correspond to an already-loaded instance which has unloaded attributes to be populated. The method may be called many times for a single instance, as multiple result rows are used to populate eagerly loaded collections.

If this method returns `EXT_CONTINUE`, instance population will proceed normally. If any other value or `None` is returned, instance population will not proceed, giving this extension an opportunity to populate the instance itself, if desired.

As of 0.5, most usages of this hook are obsolete. For a generic "object has been newly created from a row" hook, use `reconstruct_instance()`, or the `@orm.reconstructor` decorator.

reconstruct_instance (*mapper, instance*)

Receive an object instance after it has been created via `__new__`, and after initial attribute population has occurred.

This typically occurs when the instance is created based on incoming result rows, and is only called once for that instance's lifetime.

Note that during a result-row load, this method is called upon the first row received for this instance. Note that some attributes and collections may or may not be loaded or even initialized, depending on what's present in the result rows.

The return value is only significant within the `MapperExtension` chain; the parent mapper's behavior isn't modified by this method.

translate_row (*mapper, context, row*)

Perform pre-processing on the given result row and return a new row instance.

This is called when the mapper first receives a row, before the object identity or the instance itself has been derived from that row. The given row may or may not be a `RowProxy` object - it will always be a dictionary-like object which contains mapped columns as keys. The returned object should also be a dictionary-like object which recognizes mapped columns as keys.

If the ultimate return value is `EXT_CONTINUE`, the row is not translated.

2.12.2 Session Events

class sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.**SessionExtension**

Base implementation for `Session` event hooks.

Note: `SessionExtension` is deprecated. Please refer to `event.listen()` as well as `SessionEvents`.

Subclasses may be installed into a `Session` (or `sessionmaker()`) using the `extension` keyword argument:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces import SessionExtension

class MySessionExtension(SessionExtension):
    def before_commit(self, session):
        print "before commit!"
```

```
Session = sessionmaker(extension=MySessionExtension())
```

The same `SessionExtension` instance can be used with any number of sessions.

after_attach (*session, instance*)

Execute after an instance is attached to a session.

This is called after an add, delete or merge.

after_begin (*session, transaction, connection*)

Execute after a transaction is begun on a connection

transaction is the `SessionTransaction`. This method is called after an engine level transaction is begun on a connection.

after_bulk_delete (*session, query, query_context, result*)

Execute after a bulk delete operation to the session.

This is called after a `session.query(...).delete()`

query is the query object that this delete operation was called on. *query_context* was the query context object. *result* is the result object returned from the bulk operation.

after_bulk_update (*session, query, query_context, result*)

Execute after a bulk update operation to the session.

This is called after a `session.query(...).update()`

query is the query object that this update operation was called on. *query_context* was the query context object. *result* is the result object returned from the bulk operation.

after_commit (*session*)

Execute after a commit has occurred.

Note that this may not be per-flush if a longer running transaction is ongoing.

after_flush (*session, flush_context*)

Execute after flush has completed, but before commit has been called.

Note that the session's state is still in pre-flush, i.e. 'new', 'dirty', and 'deleted' lists still show pre-flush state as well as the history settings on instance attributes.

after_flush_postexec (*session*, *flush_context*)

Execute after flush has completed, and after the post-exec state occurs.

This will be when the ‘new’, ‘dirty’, and ‘deleted’ lists are in their final state. An actual commit() may or may not have occurred, depending on whether or not the flush started its own transaction or participated in a larger transaction.

after_rollback (*session*)

Execute after a rollback has occurred.

Note that this may not be per-flush if a longer running transaction is ongoing.

before_commit (*session*)

Execute right before commit is called.

Note that this may not be per-flush if a longer running transaction is ongoing.

before_flush (*session*, *flush_context*, *instances*)

Execute before flush process has started.

instances is an optional list of objects which were passed to the `flush()` method.

2.12.3 Attribute Events

class sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.**AttributeExtension**

Base implementation for AttributeImpl event hooks, events that fire upon attribute mutations in user code.

Note: `AttributeExtension` is deprecated. Please refer to `event.listen()` as well as `AttributeEvents`.

`AttributeExtension` is used to listen for set, remove, and append events on individual mapped attributes. It is established on an individual mapped attribute using the *extension* argument, available on `column_property()`, `relationship()`, and others:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces import AttributeExtension
from sqlalchemy.orm import mapper, relationship, column_property
```

```
class MyAttrExt(AttributeExtension):
    def append(self, state, value, initiator):
        print "append event !"
        return value

    def set(self, state, value, oldvalue, initiator):
        print "set event !"
        return value
```

```
mapper(SomeClass, sometable, properties={
    'foo':column_property(sometable.c.foo, extension=MyAttrExt()),
    'bar':relationship(Bar, extension=MyAttrExt())
})
```

Note that the `AttributeExtension` methods `append()` and `set()` need to return the value parameter. The returned value is used as the effective value, and allows the extension to change what is ultimately persisted.

`AttributeExtension` is assembled within the descriptors associated with a mapped class.

active_history

indicates that the `set()` method would like to receive the ‘old’ value, even if it means firing lazy callables.

Note that `active_history` can also be set directly via `column_property()` and `relationship()`.

append (*state, value, initiator*)

Receive a collection append event.

The returned value will be used as the actual value to be appended.

remove (*state, value, initiator*)

Receive a remove event.

No return value is defined.

set (*state, value, oldvalue, initiator*)

Receive a set event.

The returned value will be used as the actual value to be set.

2.13 ORM Exceptions

SQLAlchemy ORM exceptions.

`sqlalchemy.orm.exc.ConcurrentModificationError`
alias of `StaleDataError`

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.DetachedInstanceError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError`

An attempt to access unloaded attributes on a mapped instance that is detached.

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.FlushError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError`

A invalid condition was detected during flush().

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.MultipleResultsFound`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.InvalidRequestError`

A single database result was required but more than one were found.

`sqlalchemy.orm.exc.NO_STATE`

Exception types that may be raised by instrumentation implementations.

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.NoResultFound`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.InvalidRequestError`

A database result was required but none was found.

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.ObjectDeletedError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.InvalidRequestError`

A refresh operation failed to retrieve the database row corresponding to an object's known primary key identity.

A refresh operation proceeds when an expired attribute is accessed on an object, or when `Query.get()` is used to retrieve an object which is, upon retrieval, detected as expired. A SELECT is emitted for the target row based on primary key; if no row is returned, this exception is raised.

The true meaning of this exception is simply that no row exists for the primary key identifier associated with a persistent object. The row may have been deleted, or in some cases the primary key updated to a new value, outside of the ORM's management of the target object.

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.ObjectDereferencedError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError`

An operation cannot complete due to an object being garbage collected.

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.StaleDataError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError`

An operation encountered database state that is unaccounted for.

Two conditions cause this to happen:

- A flush may have attempted to update or delete rows and an unexpected number of rows were matched during the UPDATE or DELETE statement. Note that when `version_id_col` is used, rows in UPDATE or DELETE statements are also matched against the current known version identifier.
- A mapped object with `version_id_col` was refreshed, and the version number coming back from the database does not match that of the object itself.

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.UnmappedClassError` (*cls, msg=None*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.UnmappedError`

An mapping operation was requested for an unknown class.

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.UnmappedColumnError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.InvalidRequestError`

Mapping operation was requested on an unknown column.

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.UnmappedError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.InvalidRequestError`

Base for exceptions that involve expected mappings not present.

exception `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.UnmappedInstanceError` (*obj, msg=None*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.orm.exc.UnmappedError`

An mapping operation was requested for an unknown instance.

2.14 ORM Internals

Some key internal constructs are listed here.

class `sqlalchemy.orm.instrumentation.ClassManager` (*class_*)

Bases: `dict`

tracks state information at the class level.

dispose ()

Dissociate this manager from its class.

has_parent (*state, key, optimistic=False*)

TODO

manage ()

Mark this instance as the manager for its class.

original_init

`x.__init__(...)` initializes x; see `x.__class__.__doc__` for signature

state_getter ()

Return a (instance) -> InstanceState callable.

“state getter” callables should raise either `KeyError` or `AttributeError` if no `InstanceState` could be found for the instance.

unregister()

remove all instrumentation established by this `ClassManager`.

class `sqlalchemy.orm.properties.ColumnProperty(*columns, **kwargs)`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.StrategizedProperty`

Describes an object attribute that corresponds to a table column.

Public constructor is the `orm.column_property()` function.

__init__(*columns, **kwargs)

Construct a `ColumnProperty`.

Note the public constructor is the `orm.column_property()` function.

Parameters

- ***columns** – The list of *columns* describes a single object property. If there are multiple tables joined together for the mapper, this list represents the equivalent column as it appears across each table.
- **group** –
- **deferred** –
- **comparator_factory** –
- **descriptor** –
- **extension** –

class `sqlalchemy.orm.descriptor_props.CompositeProperty(class_, *attrs, **kwargs)`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.orm.descriptor_props.DescriptorProperty`

do_init()

Initialization which occurs after the `CompositeProperty` has been associated with its parent mapper.

get_history(state, dict_, passive=<symbol 'PASSIVE_OFF'>)

Provided for userland code that uses `attributes.get_history()`.

class `sqlalchemy.orm.state.InstanceState(obj, manager)`

Bases: `object`

tracks state information at the instance level.

commit(dict_, keys)

Commit attributes.

This is used by a partial-attribute load operation to mark committed those attributes which were refreshed from the database.

Attributes marked as “expired” can potentially remain “expired” after this step if a value was not populated in `state.dict`.

commit_all(dict_, instance_dict=None)

commit all attributes unconditionally.

This is used after a `flush()` or a full load/refresh to remove all pending state from the instance.

- all attributes are marked as “committed”
- the “strong dirty reference” is removed
- the “modified” flag is set to `False`

- any “expired” markers/callables for attributes loaded are removed.

Attributes marked as “expired” can potentially remain “expired” after this step if a value was not populated in `state.dict`.

expire_attribute_pre_commit (*dict_*, *key*)

a fast expire that can be called by column loaders during a load.

The additional bookkeeping is finished up in `commit_all()`.

This method is actually called a lot with joined-table loading, when the second table isn’t present in the result.

expired_attributes

Return the set of keys which are ‘expired’ to be loaded by the manager’s deferred scalar loader, assuming no pending changes.

see also the `unmodified` collection which is intersected against this set when a refresh operation occurs.

initialize (*key*)

Set this attribute to an empty value or collection, based on the `AttributeImpl` in use.

reset (*dict_*, *key*)

Remove the given attribute and any callables associated with it.

set_callable (*dict_*, *key*, *callable_*)

Remove the given attribute and set the given callable as a loader.

unloaded

Return the set of keys which do not have a loaded value.

This includes expired attributes and any other attribute that was never populated or modified.

unmodified

Return the set of keys which have no uncommitted changes

unmodified_intersection (*keys*)

Return `self.unmodified.intersection(keys)`.

value_as_iterable (*dict_*, *key*, *passive*=<symbol ‘PASSIVE_OFF’>)

Return a list of tuples (state, obj) for the given key.

returns an empty list if the value is None/empty/PASSIVE_NO_RESULT

class `sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.MapperProperty`

Bases: `object`

Manage the relationship of a `Mapper` to a single class attribute, as well as that attribute as it appears on individual instances of the class, including attribute instrumentation, attribute access, loading behavior, and dependency calculations.

cascade

The set of ‘cascade’ attribute names.

This collection is checked before the ‘`cascade_iterator`’ method is called.

cascade_iterator (*type_*, *state*, *visited_instances*=None, *halt_on*=None)

Iterate through instances related to the given instance for a particular ‘cascade’, starting with this `MapperProperty`.

Return an iterator3-tuples (instance, mapper, state).

Note that the ‘cascade’ collection on this `MapperProperty` is checked first for the given type before `cascade_iterator` is called.

See `PropertyLoader` for the related instance implementation.

class_attribute

Return the class-bound descriptor corresponding to this `MapperProperty`.

compare (*operator, value, **kw*)

Return a compare operation for the columns represented by this `MapperProperty` to the given value, which may be a column value or an instance. ‘operator’ is an operator from the `operators` module, or from `sql.Comparator`.

By default uses the `PropComparator` attached to this `MapperProperty` under the attribute name “comparator”.

create_row_processor (*context, path, reduced_path, mapper, row, adapter*)

Return a 3-tuple consisting of three row processing functions.

do_init ()

Perform subclass-specific initialization post-mapper-creation steps.

This is a template method called by the `MapperProperty` object’s `init()` method.

init ()

Called after all mappers are created to assemble relationships between mappers and perform other post-mapper-creation initialization steps.

is_primary ()

Return True if this `MapperProperty`’s mapper is the primary mapper for its class.

This flag is used to indicate that the `MapperProperty` can define attribute instrumentation for the class at the class level (as opposed to the individual instance level).

merge (*session, source_state, source_dict, dest_state, dest_dict, load, _recursive*)

Merge the attribute represented by this `MapperProperty` from source to destination object

post_instrument_class (*mapper*)

Perform instrumentation adjustments that need to occur after `init()` has completed.

setup (*context, entity, path, reduced_path, adapter, **kwargs*)

Called by `Query` for the purposes of constructing a SQL statement.

Each `MapperProperty` associated with the target mapper processes the statement referenced by the query context, adding columns and/or criterion as appropriate.

class `sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.PropComparator` (*prop, mapper, adapter=None*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.sql.operators.ColumnOperators`

Defines comparison operations for `MapperProperty` objects.

User-defined subclasses of `PropComparator` may be created. The built-in Python comparison and math operator methods, such as `__eq__()`, `__lt__()`, `__add__()`, can be overridden to provide new operator behavior. The custom `PropComparator` is passed to the mapper property via the `comparator_factory` argument. In each case, the appropriate subclass of `PropComparator` should be used:

```
from sqlalchemy.orm.properties import \
    ColumnProperty, \
    CompositeProperty, \
    RelationshipProperty

class MyColumnComparator(ColumnProperty.Comparator):
    pass

class MyCompositeComparator(CompositeProperty.Comparator):
```

```

    pass

class MyRelationshipComparator(RelationshipProperty.Comparator):
    pass

adapted (adapter)
    Return a copy of this PropComparator which will use the given adaption function on the local side of
    generated expressions.

any (criterion=None, **kwargs)
    Return true if this collection contains any member that meets the given criterion.

    criterion an optional ClauseElement formulated against the member class' table or attributes.

    **kwargs key/value pairs corresponding to member class attribute names which will be compared via
    equality to the corresponding values.

has (criterion=None, **kwargs)
    Return true if this element references a member which meets the given criterion.

    criterion an optional ClauseElement formulated against the member class' table or attributes.

    **kwargs key/value pairs corresponding to member class attribute names which will be compared via
    equality to the corresponding values.

of_type (class_)
    Redefine this object in terms of a polymorphic subclass.

    Returns a new PropComparator from which further criterion can be evaluated.

    e.g.:

    query.join(Company.employees.of_type(Engineer)).\
        filter(Engineer.name=='foo')

class_ a class or mapper indicating that criterion will be against this specific subclass.

```

```
class sqlalchemy.orm.properties.RelationshipProperty(argument, secondary=None,
primaryjoin=None, secondaryjoin=None, foreign_keys=None, uselist=None,
order_by=False, backref=None, back_populates=None,
post_update=False, cascade=False, extension=None,
viewonly=False, lazy=True, collection_class=None,
passive_deletes=False, passive_updates=True, remote_side=None,
enable_typechecks=True, join_depth=None, comparator_factory=None,
single_parent=False, innerjoin=False, doc=None,
active_history=False, cascade_backrefs=True,
load_on_pending=False, strategy_class=None, _local_remote_pairs=None,
query_class=None)
```

Bases: sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.StrategizedProperty

Describes an object property that holds a single item or list of items that correspond to a related database table.

Public constructor is the `orm.relationship()` function.

Of note here is the `RelationshipProperty.Comparator` class, which implements comparison operations for scalar- and collection-referencing mapped attributes.

```
class Comparator(prop, mapper, of_type=None, adapter=None)
```

Bases: sqlalchemy.orm.interfaces.PropComparator

Produce comparison operations for `relationship()`-based attributes.

```
__eq__(other)
```

Implement the == operator.

In a many-to-one context, such as:

```
MyClass.some_prop == <some object>
```

this will typically produce a clause such as:

```
mytable.related_id == <some id>
```

Where `<some id>` is the primary key of the given object.

The == operator provides partial functionality for non- many-to-one comparisons:

- Comparisons against collections are not supported. Use `contains()`.
- Compared to a scalar one-to-many, will produce a clause that compares the target columns in the parent to the given target.
- Compared to a scalar many-to-many, an alias of the association table will be rendered as well, forming a natural join that is part of the main body of the query. This will not work for queries that go beyond simple AND conjunctions of comparisons, such as those which use OR. Use explicit joins, outerjoins, or `has()` for more comprehensive non-many-to-one scalar membership tests.

- Comparisons against `None` given in a one-to-many or many-to-many context produce a NOT EXISTS clause.

__init__ (*prop, mapper, of_type=None, adapter=None*)

Construction of `RelationshipProperty.Comparator` is internal to the ORM's attribute mechanics.

__ne__ (*other*)

Implement the `!=` operator.

In a many-to-one context, such as:

```
MyClass.some_prop != <some object>
```

This will typically produce a clause such as:

```
mytable.related_id != <some id>
```

Where `<some id>` is the primary key of the given object.

The `!=` operator provides partial functionality for non- many-to-one comparisons:

- Comparisons against collections are not supported. Use `contains()` in conjunction with `not_()`.
- Compared to a scalar one-to-many, will produce a clause that compares the target columns in the parent to the given target.
- Compared to a scalar many-to-many, an alias of the association table will be rendered as well, forming a natural join that is part of the main body of the query. This will not work for queries that go beyond simple AND conjunctions of comparisons, such as those which use OR. Use explicit joins, outerjoins, or `has()` in conjunction with `not_()` for more comprehensive non-many-to-one scalar membership tests.
- Comparisons against `None` given in a one-to-many or many-to-many context produce an EXISTS clause.

adapted (*adapter*)

Return a copy of this `PropComparator` which will use the given adaption function on the local side of generated expressions.

any (*criterion=None, **kwargs*)

Produce an expression that tests a collection against particular criterion, using EXISTS.

An expression like:

```
session.query(MyClass).filter(
    MyClass.somereference.any(SomeRelated.x==2)
)
```

Will produce a query like:

```
SELECT * FROM my_table WHERE
EXISTS (SELECT 1 FROM related WHERE related.my_id=my_table.id
AND related.x=2)
```

Because `any()` uses a correlated subquery, its performance is not nearly as good when compared against large target tables as that of using a join.

`any()` is particularly useful for testing for empty collections:

```
session.query(MyClass).filter(
    ~MyClass.somereference.any()
)
```

will produce:

```
SELECT * FROM my_table WHERE
NOT EXISTS (SELECT 1 FROM related WHERE related.my_id=my_table.id)
```

`any()` is only valid for collections, i.e. a `relationship()` that has `uselist=True`. For scalar references, use `has()`.

contains (*other*, ***kwargs*)

Return a simple expression that tests a collection for containment of a particular item.

`contains()` is only valid for a collection, i.e. a `relationship()` that implements one-to-many or many-to-many with `uselist=True`.

When used in a simple one-to-many context, an expression like:

```
MyClass.contains(other)
```

Produces a clause like:

```
mytable.id == <some id>
```

Where `<some id>` is the value of the foreign key attribute on `other` which refers to the primary key of its parent object. From this it follows that `contains()` is very useful when used with simple one-to-many operations.

For many-to-many operations, the behavior of `contains()` has more caveats. The association table will be rendered in the statement, producing an “implicit” join, that is, includes multiple tables in the FROM clause which are equated in the WHERE clause:

```
query(MyClass).filter(MyClass.contains(other))
```

Produces a query like:

```
SELECT * FROM my_table, my_association_table AS
my_association_table_1 WHERE
my_table.id = my_association_table_1.parent_id
AND my_association_table_1.child_id = <some id>
```

Where `<some id>` would be the primary key of `other`. From the above, it is clear that `contains()` will **not** work with many-to-many collections when used in queries that move beyond simple AND conjunctions, such as multiple `contains()` expressions joined by OR. In such cases subqueries or explicit “outer joins” will need to be used instead. See `any()` for a less-performant alternative using EXISTS, or refer to `Query.outerjoin()` as well as [Querying with Joins](#) for more details on constructing outer joins.

has (*criterion=None*, ***kwargs*)

Produce an expression that tests a scalar reference against particular criterion, using EXISTS.

An expression like:

```
session.query(MyClass).filter(
    MyClass.somereference.has(SomeRelated.x==2)
)
```

Will produce a query like:

```
SELECT * FROM my_table WHERE
EXISTS (SELECT 1 FROM related WHERE related.id==my_table.related_id
AND related.x=2)
```

Because `has()` uses a correlated subquery, its performance is not nearly as good when compared against large target tables as that of using a join.

`has()` is only valid for scalar references, i.e. a `relationship()` that has `uselist=False`. For collection references, use `any()`.

in_ (*other*)

Produce an IN clause - this is not implemented for `relationship()`-based attributes at this time.

of_type (*cls*)

Produce a construct that represents a particular ‘subtype’ of attribute for the parent class.

Currently this is usable in conjunction with `Query.join()` and `Query.outerjoin()`.

`RelationshipProperty.mapper`

Return the targeted `Mapper` for this `RelationshipProperty`.

This is a lazy-initializing static attribute.

`RelationshipProperty.table`

Return the selectable linked to this `RelationshipProperty` object’s target `Mapper`.
Deprecated since version 0.7: Use `.target` `RelationshipProperty` object’s target `Mapper`.

```
class sqlalchemy.orm.descriptor_props.SynonymProperty(name, map_column=None,
                                                       descriptor=None, comparator_factory=None, doc=None)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.orm.descriptor_props.DescriptorProperty`

```
class sqlalchemy.orm.query.QueryContext(query)
```

Bases: `object`

SQLALCHEMY CORE

3.1 SQL Expression Language Tutorial

3.1.1 Introduction

The SQLAlchemy Expression Language presents a system of representing relational database structures and expressions using Python constructs. These constructs are modeled to resemble those of the underlying database as closely as possible, while providing a modicum of abstraction of the various implementation differences between database backends. While the constructs attempt to represent equivalent concepts between backends with consistent structures, they do not conceal useful concepts that are unique to particular subsets of backends. The Expression Language therefore presents a method of writing backend-neutral SQL expressions, but does not attempt to enforce that expressions are backend-neutral.

The Expression Language is in contrast to the Object Relational Mapper, which is a distinct API that builds on top of the Expression Language. Whereas the ORM, introduced in *Object Relational Tutorial*, presents a high level and abstracted pattern of usage, which itself is an example of applied usage of the Expression Language, the Expression Language presents a system of representing the primitive constructs of the relational database directly without opinion.

While there is overlap among the usage patterns of the ORM and the Expression Language, the similarities are more superficial than they may at first appear. One approaches the structure and content of data from the perspective of a user-defined *domain model* which is transparently persisted and refreshed from its underlying storage model. The other approaches it from the perspective of literal schema and SQL expression representations which are explicitly composed into messages consumed individually by the database.

A successful application may be constructed using the Expression Language exclusively, though the application will need to define its own system of translating application concepts into individual database messages and from individual database result sets. Alternatively, an application constructed with the ORM may, in advanced scenarios, make occasional usage of the Expression Language directly in certain areas where specific database interactions are required.

The following tutorial is in doctest format, meaning each `>>>` line represents something you can type at a Python command prompt, and the following text represents the expected return value. The tutorial has no prerequisites.

3.1.2 Version Check

A quick check to verify that we are on at least **version 0.7** of SQLAlchemy:

```
>>> import sqlalchemy
>>> sqlalchemy.__version__
0.7.0
```

3.1.3 Connecting

For this tutorial we will use an in-memory-only SQLite database. This is an easy way to test things without needing to have an actual database defined anywhere. To connect we use `create_engine()`:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import create_engine
>>> engine = create_engine('sqlite:///memory:', echo=True)
```

The `echo` flag is a shortcut to setting up SQLAlchemy logging, which is accomplished via Python's standard logging module. With it enabled, we'll see all the generated SQL produced. If you are working through this tutorial and want less output generated, set it to `False`. This tutorial will format the SQL behind a popup window so it doesn't get in our way; just click the "SQL" links to see what's being generated.

3.1.4 Define and Create Tables

The SQL Expression Language constructs its expressions in most cases against table columns. In SQLAlchemy, a column is most often represented by an object called `Column`, and in all cases a `Column` is associated with a `Table`. A collection of `Table` objects and their associated child objects is referred to as **database metadata**. In this tutorial we will explicitly lay out several `Table` objects, but note that SA can also "import" whole sets of `Table` objects automatically from an existing database (this process is called **table reflection**).

We define our tables all within a catalog called `MetaData`, using the `Table` construct, which resembles regular SQL CREATE TABLE statements. We'll make two tables, one of which represents "users" in an application, and another which represents zero or more "email addresses" for each row in the "users" table:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import Table, Column, Integer, String, MetaData, ForeignKey
>>> metadata = MetaData()
>>> users = Table('users', metadata,
...     Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
...     Column('name', String),
...     Column('fullname', String),
... )

>>> addresses = Table('addresses', metadata,
...     Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
...     Column('user_id', None, ForeignKey('users.id')),
...     Column('email_address', String, nullable=False)
... )
```

All about how to define `Table` objects, as well as how to create them from an existing database automatically, is described in *Schema Definition Language*.

Next, to tell the `MetaData` we'd actually like to create our selection of tables for real inside the SQLite database, we use `create_all()`, passing it the engine instance which points to our database. This will check for the presence of each table first before creating, so it's safe to call multiple times:

```
>>> metadata.create_all(engine)
PRAGMA table_info("users")
()
PRAGMA table_info("addresses")
()
CREATE TABLE users (
    id INTEGER NOT NULL,
    name VARCHAR,
    fullname VARCHAR,
    PRIMARY KEY (id)
```

```

)
()
COMMIT
CREATE TABLE addresses (
    id INTEGER NOT NULL,
    user_id INTEGER,
    email_address VARCHAR NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (id),
    FOREIGN KEY(user_id) REFERENCES users (id)
)
()
COMMIT

```

Note: Users familiar with the syntax of CREATE TABLE may notice that the VARCHAR columns were generated without a length; on SQLite and Postgresql, this is a valid datatype, but on others, it's not allowed. So if running this tutorial on one of those databases, and you wish to use SQLAlchemy to issue CREATE TABLE, a "length" may be provided to the `String` type as below:

```
Column('name', String(50))
```

The length field on `String`, as well as similar precision/scale fields available on `Integer`, `Numeric`, etc. are not referenced by SQLAlchemy other than when creating tables.

Additionally, Firebird and Oracle require sequences to generate new primary key identifiers, and SQLAlchemy doesn't generate or assume these without being instructed. For that, you use the `Sequence` construct:

```

from sqlalchemy import Sequence
Column('id', Integer, Sequence('user_id_seq'), primary_key=True)

```

A full, foolproof `Table` is therefore:

```

users = Table('users', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, Sequence('user_id_seq'), primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50)),
    Column('fullname', String(50)),
    Column('password', String(12))
)

```

We include this more verbose `Table` construct separately to highlight the difference between a minimal construct geared primarily towards in-Python usage only, versus one that will be used to emit CREATE TABLE statements on a particular set of backends with more stringent requirements.

3.1.5 Insert Expressions

The first SQL expression we'll create is the `Insert` construct, which represents an INSERT statement. This is typically created relative to its target table:

```
>>> ins = users.insert()
```

To see a sample of the SQL this construct produces, use the `str()` function:

```

>>> str(ins)
'INSERT INTO users (id, name, fullname) VALUES (:id, :name, :fullname)'

```

Notice above that the INSERT statement names every column in the `users` table. This can be limited by using the `values()` method, which establishes the VALUES clause of the INSERT explicitly:

```

>>> ins = users.insert().values(name='jack', fullname='Jack Jones')
>>> str(ins)
'INSERT INTO users (name, fullname) VALUES (:name, :fullname)'

```

Above, while the `values` method limited the `VALUES` clause to just two columns, the actual data we placed in `values` didn't get rendered into the string; instead we got named bind parameters. As it turns out, our data *is* stored within our `Insert` construct, but it typically only comes out when the statement is actually executed; since the data consists of literal values, SQLAlchemy automatically generates bind parameters for them. We can peek at this data for now by looking at the compiled form of the statement:

```
>>> ins.compile().params
{'fullname': 'Jack Jones', 'name': 'jack'}
```

3.1.6 Executing

The interesting part of an `Insert` is executing it. In this tutorial, we will generally focus on the most explicit method of executing a SQL construct, and later touch upon some “shortcut” ways to do it. The `engine` object we created is a repository for database connections capable of issuing SQL to the database. To acquire a connection, we use the `connect()` method:

```
>>> conn = engine.connect()
>>> conn
<sqlalchemy.engine.base.Connection object at 0x...>
```

The `Connection` object represents an actively checked out DBAPI connection resource. Lets feed it our `Insert` object and see what happens:

```
>>> result = conn.execute(ins)
INSERT INTO users (name, fullname) VALUES (?, ?)
('jack', 'Jack Jones')
COMMIT
```

So the `INSERT` statement was now issued to the database. Although we got positional “qmark” bind parameters instead of “named” bind parameters in the output. How come? Because when executed, the `Connection` used the SQLite **dialect** to help generate the statement; when we use the `str()` function, the statement isn't aware of this dialect, and falls back onto a default which uses named parameters. We can view this manually as follows:

```
>>> ins.bind = engine
>>> str(ins)
'INSERT INTO users (name, fullname) VALUES (?, ?)'
```

What about the `result` variable we got when we called `execute()`? As the SQLAlchemy `Connection` object references a DBAPI connection, the result, known as a `ResultProxy` object, is analogous to the DBAPI cursor object. In the case of an `INSERT`, we can get important information from it, such as the primary key values which were generated from our statement:

```
>>> result.inserted_primary_key
[1]
```

The value of 1 was automatically generated by SQLite, but only because we did not specify the `id` column in our `Insert` statement; otherwise, our explicit value would have been used. In either case, SQLAlchemy always knows how to get at a newly generated primary key value, even though the method of generating them is different across different databases; each database's `Dialect` knows the specific steps needed to determine the correct value (or values; note that `inserted_primary_key` returns a list so that it supports composite primary keys).

3.1.7 Executing Multiple Statements

Our insert example above was intentionally a little drawn out to show some various behaviors of expression language constructs. In the usual case, an `Insert` statement is usually compiled against the parameters sent to the `execute()` method on `Connection`, so that there's no need to use the `values` keyword with `Insert`. Lets create a generic `Insert` statement again and use it in the “normal” way:

```
>>> ins = users.insert()
>>> conn.execute(ins, id=2, name='wendy', fullname='Wendy Williams')
INSERT INTO users (id, name, fullname) VALUES (?, ?, ?)
(2, 'wendy', 'Wendy Williams')
COMMIT<sqlalchemy.engine.base.ResultProxy object at 0x...>
```

Above, because we specified all three columns in the `execute()` method, the compiled `Insert` included all three columns. The `Insert` statement is compiled at execution time based on the parameters we specified; if we specified fewer parameters, the `Insert` would have fewer entries in its `VALUES` clause.

To issue many inserts using DBAPI's `executemany()` method, we can send in a list of dictionaries each containing a distinct set of parameters to be inserted, as we do here to add some email addresses:

```
>>> conn.execute(addresses.insert(), [
...     {'user_id': 1, 'email_address': 'jack@yahoo.com'},
...     {'user_id': 1, 'email_address': 'jack@msn.com'},
...     {'user_id': 2, 'email_address': 'www@www.org'},
...     {'user_id': 2, 'email_address': 'wendy@aol.com'},
... ])
INSERT INTO addresses (user_id, email_address) VALUES (?, ?)
((1, 'jack@yahoo.com'), (1, 'jack@msn.com'), (2, 'www@www.org'), (2, 'wendy@aol.com'))
COMMIT<sqlalchemy.engine.base.ResultProxy object at 0x...>
```

Above, we again relied upon SQLite's automatic generation of primary key identifiers for each `addresses` row.

When executing multiple sets of parameters, each dictionary must have the **same** set of keys; i.e. you can't have fewer keys in some dictionaries than others. This is because the `Insert` statement is compiled against the **first** dictionary in the list, and it's assumed that all subsequent argument dictionaries are compatible with that statement.

3.1.8 Connectionless / Implicit Execution

We're executing our `Insert` using a `Connection`. There's two options that allow you to not have to deal with the connection part. You can execute in the **connectionless** style, using the engine, which checks out from the connection pool a connection for you, performs the execute operation with that connection, and then checks the connection back into the pool upon completion of the operation:

```
>>> result = engine.execute(users.insert(), name='fred', fullname="Fred Flintstone")
INSERT INTO users (name, fullname) VALUES (?, ?)
('fred', 'Fred Flintstone')
COMMIT
```

and you can save even more steps than that, if you connect the `Engine` to the `MetaData` object we created earlier. When this is done, all SQL expressions which involve tables within the `MetaData` object will be automatically **bound** to the `Engine`. In this case, we call it **implicit execution**:

```
>>> metadata.bind = engine
>>> result = users.insert().execute(name="mary", fullname="Mary Contrary")
INSERT INTO users (name, fullname) VALUES (?, ?)
('mary', 'Mary Contrary')
COMMIT
```

When the `MetaData` is bound, statements will also compile against the engine's dialect. Since a lot of the examples here assume the default dialect, we'll detach the engine from the metadata which we just attached:

```
>>> metadata.bind = None
```

Detailed examples of connectionless and implicit execution are available in the “Engines” chapter: [Connectionless Execution](#), [Implicit Execution](#).

3.1.9 Selecting

We began with inserts just so that our test database had some data in it. The more interesting part of the data is selecting it ! We'll cover UPDATE and DELETE statements later. The primary construct used to generate SELECT statements is the `select()` function:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import select
>>> s = select([users])
>>> result = conn.execute(s)
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname
FROM users
()
```

Above, we issued a basic `select()` call, placing the `users` table within the COLUMNS clause of the select, and then executing. SQLAlchemy expanded the `users` table into the set of each of its columns, and also generated a FROM clause for us. The result returned is again a `ResultProxy` object, which acts much like a DBAPI cursor, including methods such as `fetchone()` and `fetchall()`. The easiest way to get rows from it is to just iterate:

```
>>> for row in result:
...     print row
(1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones')
(2, u'wendy', u'Wendy Williams')
(3, u'fred', u'Fred Flintstone')
(4, u'mary', u'Mary Contrary')
```

Above, we see that printing each row produces a simple tuple-like result. We have more options at accessing the data in each row. One very common way is through dictionary access, using the string names of columns:

```
>>> result = conn.execute(s)
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname
FROM users
()>>> row = result.fetchone()
>>> print "name:", row['name'], "; fullname:", row['fullname']
name: jack ; fullname: Jack Jones
```

Integer indexes work as well:

```
>>> row = result.fetchone()
>>> print "name:", row[1], "; fullname:", row[2]
name: wendy ; fullname: Wendy Williams
```

But another way, whose usefulness will become apparent later on, is to use the `Column` objects directly as keys:

```
>>> for row in conn.execute(s):
...     print "name:", row[users.c.name], "; fullname:", row[users.c.fullname]
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname
FROM users
()name: jack ; fullname: Jack Jones
name: wendy ; fullname: Wendy Williams
name: fred ; fullname: Fred Flintstone
name: mary ; fullname: Mary Contrary
```

Result sets which have pending rows remaining should be explicitly closed before discarding. While the cursor and connection resources referenced by the `ResultProxy` will be respectively closed and returned to the connection pool when the object is garbage collected, it's better to make it explicit as some database APIs are very picky about such things:

```
>>> result.close()
```

If we'd like to more carefully control the columns which are placed in the COLUMNS clause of the select, we reference individual `Column` objects from our `Table`. These are available as named attributes off the `c` attribute of the `Table` object:

```
>>> s = select([users.c.name, users.c.fullname])
>>> result = conn.execute(s)
SELECT users.name, users.fullname
FROM users
() >>> for row in result:
...     print row
(u'jack', u'Jack Jones')
(u'wendy', u'Wendy Williams')
(u'fred', u'Fred Flintstone')
(u'mary', u'Mary Contrary')
```

Lets observe something interesting about the FROM clause. Whereas the generated statement contains two distinct sections, a “SELECT columns” part and a “FROM table” part, our `select()` construct only has a list containing columns. How does this work ? Let's try putting *two* tables into our `select()` statement:

```
>>> for row in conn.execute(select([users, addresses])):
...     print row
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname, addresses.id, addresses.user_id, addresses.email
FROM users, addresses
() (1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones', 1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com')
(1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones', 2, 1, u'jack@msn.com')
(1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones', 3, 2, u'www@www.org')
(1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones', 4, 2, u'wendy@aol.com')
(2, u'wendy', u'Wendy Williams', 1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com')
(2, u'wendy', u'Wendy Williams', 2, 1, u'jack@msn.com')
(2, u'wendy', u'Wendy Williams', 3, 2, u'www@www.org')
(2, u'wendy', u'Wendy Williams', 4, 2, u'wendy@aol.com')
(3, u'fred', u'Fred Flintstone', 1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com')
(3, u'fred', u'Fred Flintstone', 2, 1, u'jack@msn.com')
(3, u'fred', u'Fred Flintstone', 3, 2, u'www@www.org')
(3, u'fred', u'Fred Flintstone', 4, 2, u'wendy@aol.com')
(4, u'mary', u'Mary Contrary', 1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com')
(4, u'mary', u'Mary Contrary', 2, 1, u'jack@msn.com')
(4, u'mary', u'Mary Contrary', 3, 2, u'www@www.org')
(4, u'mary', u'Mary Contrary', 4, 2, u'wendy@aol.com')
```

It placed **both** tables into the FROM clause. But also, it made a real mess. Those who are familiar with SQL joins know that this is a **Cartesian product**; each row from the `users` table is produced against each row from the `addresses` table. So to put some sanity into this statement, we need a WHERE clause. Which brings us to the second argument of `select()`:

```
>>> s = select([users, addresses], users.c.id==addresses.c.user_id)
>>> for row in conn.execute(s):
...     print row
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname, addresses.id, addresses.user_id, addresses.email
FROM users, addresses
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id
() (1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones', 1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com')
(1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones', 2, 1, u'jack@msn.com')
(2, u'wendy', u'Wendy Williams', 3, 2, u'www@www.org')
(2, u'wendy', u'Wendy Williams', 4, 2, u'wendy@aol.com')
```

So that looks a lot better, we added an expression to our `select()` which had the effect of adding `WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id` to our statement, and our results were managed down so that the join of `users` and `addresses` rows made sense. But let's look at that expression? It's using just a Python equality operator between two different `Column` objects. It should be clear that something is up. Saying `1==1` produces `True`, and `1==2` produces `False`, not a `WHERE` clause. So let's see exactly what that expression is doing:

```
>>> users.c.id==addresses.c.user_id
<sqlalchemy.sql.expression._BinaryExpression object at 0x...>
```

Wow, surprise ! This is neither a `True` nor a `False`. Well what is it ?

```
>>> str(users.c.id==addresses.c.user_id)
'users.id = addresses.user_id'
```

As you can see, the `==` operator is producing an object that is very much like the `Insert` and `select()` objects we've made so far, thanks to Python's `__eq__()` builtin; you call `str()` on it and it produces SQL. By now, one can see that everything we are working with is ultimately the same type of object. SQLAlchemy terms the base class of all of these expressions as `sqlalchemy.sql.ClauseElement`.

3.1.10 Operators

Since we've stumbled upon SQLAlchemy's operator paradigm, let's go through some of its capabilities. We've seen how to equate two columns to each other:

```
>>> print users.c.id==addresses.c.user_id
users.id = addresses.user_id
```

If we use a literal value (a literal meaning, not a SQLAlchemy clause object), we get a bind parameter:

```
>>> print users.c.id==7
users.id = :id_1
```

The 7 literal is embedded in `ClauseElement`; we can use the same trick we did with the `Insert` object to see it:

```
>>> (users.c.id==7).compile().params
{u'id_1': 7}
```

Most Python operators, as it turns out, produce a SQL expression here, like equals, not equals, etc.:

```
>>> print users.c.id != 7
users.id != :id_1

>>> # None converts to IS NULL
>>> print users.c.name == None
users.name IS NULL

>>> # reverse works too
>>> print 'fred' > users.c.name
users.name < :name_1
```

If we add two integer columns together, we get an addition expression:

```
>>> print users.c.id + addresses.c.id
users.id + addresses.id
```

Interestingly, the type of the `Column` is important ! If we use `+` with two string based columns (recall we put types like `Integer` and `String` on our `Column` objects at the beginning), we get something different:

```
>>> print users.c.name + users.c.fullname
users.name || users.fullname
```


Where `||` is the string concatenation operator used on most databases. But not all of them. MySQL users, fear not:

```
>>> print (users.c.name + users.c.fullname).compile(bind=create_engine('mysql://'))
concat(users.name, users.fullname)
```

The above illustrates the SQL that's generated for an `Engine` that's connected to a MySQL database; the `||` operator now compiles as MySQL's `concat()` function.

If you have come across an operator which really isn't available, you can always use the `op()` method; this generates whatever operator you need:

```
>>> print users.c.name.op('tiddlywinks')('foo')
users.name tiddlywinks :name_1
```

This function can also be used to make bitwise operators explicit. For example:

```
somecolumn.op('&')(0xff)
```

is a bitwise AND of the value in *somecolumn*.

3.1.11 Conjunctions

We'd like to show off some of our operators inside of `select()` constructs. But we need to lump them together a little more, so let's first introduce some conjunctions. Conjunctions are those little words like AND and OR that put things together. We'll also hit upon NOT. AND, OR and NOT can work from the corresponding functions SQLAlchemy provides (notice we also throw in a LIKE):

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import and_, or_, not_
>>> print and_(users.c.name.like('j%'), users.c.id==addresses.c.user_id,
...           or_(addresses.c.email_address=='wendy@aol.com', addresses.c.email_address=='jack@ya
...           not_(users.c.id>5))
users.name LIKE :name_1 AND users.id = addresses.user_id AND
(addresses.email_address = :email_address_1 OR addresses.email_address = :email_address_2)
AND users.id <= :id_1
```

And you can also use the re-jiggered bitwise AND, OR and NOT operators, although because of Python operator precedence you have to watch your parenthesis:

```
>>> print users.c.name.like('j%') & (users.c.id==addresses.c.user_id) & \
...   ((addresses.c.email_address=='wendy@aol.com') | (addresses.c.email_address=='jack@ya
...   & ~(users.c.id>5))
users.name LIKE :name_1 AND users.id = addresses.user_id AND
(addresses.email_address = :email_address_1 OR addresses.email_address = :email_address_2)
AND users.id <= :id_1
```

So with all of this vocabulary, let's select all users who have an email address at AOL or MSN, whose name starts with a letter between "m" and "z", and we'll also generate a column containing their full name combined with their email address. We will add two new constructs to this statement, `between()` and `label()`. `between()` produces a BETWEEN clause, and `label()` is used in a column expression to produce labels using the AS keyword; it's recommended when selecting from expressions that otherwise would not have a name:

```
>>> s = select([(users.c.fullname + ", " + addresses.c.email_address).label('title')],
...            and_(
...                users.c.id==addresses.c.user_id,
...                users.c.name.between('m', 'z'),
...            or_(
...                addresses.c.email_address.like('%@aol.com'),
...                addresses.c.email_address.like('%@msn.com')
...            ))
```

```
...     )
...     )
>>> print conn.execute(s).fetchall()
SELECT users.fullname || ? || addresses.email_address AS title
FROM users, addresses
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id AND users.name BETWEEN ? AND ? AND
(addresses.email_address LIKE ? OR addresses.email_address LIKE ?)
('m', 'z', '%aol.com', '%msn.com')
[(u'Wendy Williams, wendy@aol.com',)]
```

Once again, SQLAlchemy figured out the FROM clause for our statement. In fact it will determine the FROM clause based on all of its other bits; the columns clause, the where clause, and also some other elements which we haven't covered yet, which include ORDER BY, GROUP BY, and HAVING.

3.1.12 Using Text

Our last example really became a handful to type. Going from what one understands to be a textual SQL expression into a Python construct which groups components together in a programmatic style can be hard. That's why SQLAlchemy lets you just use strings too. The `text()` construct represents any textual statement. To use bind parameters with `text()`, always use the named colon format. Such as below, we create a `text()` and execute it, feeding in the bind parameters to the `execute()` method:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import text
>>> s = text("""SELECT users.fullname || ', ' || addresses.email_address AS title
...           FROM users, addresses
...           WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id AND users.name BETWEEN :x AND :y AND
...           (addresses.email_address LIKE :e1 OR addresses.email_address LIKE :e2)
...           """)
>>> print conn.execute(s, x='m', y='z', e1='%aol.com', e2='%msn.com').fetchall()
SELECT users.fullname || ', ' || addresses.email_address AS title
FROM users, addresses
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id AND users.name BETWEEN ? AND ? AND
(addresses.email_address LIKE ? OR addresses.email_address LIKE ?)
('m', 'z', '%aol.com', '%msn.com') [(u'Wendy Williams, wendy@aol.com',)]
```

To gain a “hybrid” approach, the `select()` construct accepts strings for most of its arguments. Below we combine the usage of strings with our constructed `select()` object, by using the `select()` object to structure the statement, and strings to provide all the content within the structure. For this example, SQLAlchemy is not given any `Column` or `Table` objects in any of its expressions, so it cannot generate a FROM clause. So we also give it the `from_obj` keyword argument, which is a list of `ClauseElements` (or strings) to be placed within the FROM clause:

```
>>> s = select(["users.fullname || ', ' || addresses.email_address AS title"],
...            and_(
...                "users.id = addresses.user_id",
...                "users.name BETWEEN 'm' AND 'z'",
...                "(addresses.email_address LIKE :x OR addresses.email_address LIKE :y)"
...            ),
...            from_obj=['users', 'addresses']
...            )
>>> print conn.execute(s, x='%aol.com', y='%msn.com').fetchall()
SELECT users.fullname || ', ' || addresses.email_address AS title
FROM users, addresses
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id AND users.name BETWEEN 'm' AND 'z' AND (addresses.email_
('%aol.com', '%msn.com') [(u'Wendy Williams, wendy@aol.com',)]
```

Going from constructed SQL to text, we lose some capabilities. We lose the capability for SQLAlchemy to compile our expression to a specific target database; above, our expression won't work with MySQL since it has no `||` construct. It also becomes more tedious for SQLAlchemy to be made aware of the datatypes in use; for example, if our bind parameters required UTF-8 encoding before going in, or conversion from a Python `datetime` into a string (as is required with SQLite), we would have to add extra information to our `text()` construct. Similar issues arise on the result set side, where SQLAlchemy also performs type-specific data conversion in some cases; still more information can be added to `text()` to work around this. But what we really lose from our statement is the ability to manipulate it, transform it, and analyze it. These features are critical when using the ORM, which makes heavy usage of relational transformations. To show off what we mean, we'll first introduce the `ALIAS` construct and the `JOIN` construct, just so we have some juicier bits to play with.

3.1.13 Using Aliases

The alias in SQL corresponds to a “renamed” version of a table or `SELECT` statement, which occurs anytime you say “`SELECT .. FROM sometable AS someothername`”. The `AS` creates a new name for the table. Aliases are a key construct as they allow any table or subquery to be referenced by a unique name. In the case of a table, this allows the same table to be named in the `FROM` clause multiple times. In the case of a `SELECT` statement, it provides a parent name for the columns represented by the statement, allowing them to be referenced relative to this name.

In SQLAlchemy, any `Table`, `select()` construct, or other selectable can be turned into an alias using the `FromClause.alias()` method, which produces a `Alias` construct. As an example, suppose we know that our user `jack` has two particular email addresses. How can we locate `jack` based on the combination of those two addresses? To accomplish this, we'd use a `join` to the `addresses` table, once for each address. We create two `Alias` constructs against `addresses`, and then use them both within a `select()` construct:

```
>>> a1 = addresses.alias()
>>> a2 = addresses.alias()
>>> s = select([users], and_(
...     users.c.id==a1.c.user_id,
...     users.c.id==a2.c.user_id,
...     a1.c.email_address=='jack@msn.com',
...     a2.c.email_address=='jack@yahoo.com'
... ))
>>> print conn.execute(s).fetchall()
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname
FROM users, addresses AS addresses_1, addresses AS addresses_2
WHERE users.id = addresses_1.user_id AND users.id = addresses_2.user_id AND addresses_1.em
('jack@msn.com', 'jack@yahoo.com')[(1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones')]
```

Note that the `Alias` construct generated the names `addresses_1` and `addresses_2` in the final SQL result. The generation of these names is determined by the position of the construct within the statement. If we created a query using only the second `a2` alias, the name would come out as `addresses_1`. The generation of the names is also *deterministic*, meaning the same SQLAlchemy statement construct will produce the identical SQL string each time it is rendered for a particular dialect.

Since on the outside, we refer to the alias using the `Alias` construct itself, we don't need to be concerned about the generated name. However, for the purposes of debugging, it can be specified by passing a string name to the `FromClause.alias()` method:

```
>>> a1 = addresses.alias('a1')
```

Aliases can of course be used for anything which you can `SELECT` from, including `SELECT` statements themselves. We can self-join the `users` table back to the `select()` we've created by making an alias of the entire statement. The `correlate(None)` directive is to avoid SQLAlchemy's attempt to “correlate” the inner `users` table with the outer one:

```
>>> a1 = s.correlate(None).alias()
>>> s = select([users.c.name], users.c.id==a1.c.id)
>>> print conn.execute(s).fetchall()
SELECT users.name
FROM users, (SELECT users.id AS id, users.name AS name, users.fullname AS fullname
FROM users, addresses AS addresses_1, addresses AS addresses_2
WHERE users.id = addresses_1.user_id AND users.id = addresses_2.user_id AND addresses_1.email_address = addresses_2.email_address
WHERE users.id = anon_1.id
('jack@msn.com', 'jack@yahoo.com')) [(u'jack',)]
```

3.1.14 Using Joins

We're halfway along to being able to construct any SELECT expression. The next cornerstone of the SELECT is the JOIN expression. We've already been doing joins in our examples, by just placing two tables in either the columns clause or the where clause of the `select()` construct. But if we want to make a real "JOIN" or "OUTERJOIN" construct, we use the `join()` and `outerjoin()` methods, most commonly accessed from the left table in the join:

```
>>> print users.join(addresses)
users JOIN addresses ON users.id = addresses.user_id
```

The alert reader will see more surprises; SQLAlchemy figured out how to JOIN the two tables ! The ON condition of the join, as it's called, was automatically generated based on the `ForeignKey` object which we placed on the addresses table way at the beginning of this tutorial. Already the `join()` construct is looking like a much better way to join tables.

Of course you can join on whatever expression you want, such as if we want to join on all users who use the same name in their email address as their username:

```
>>> print users.join(addresses, addresses.c.email_address.like(users.c.name + '%'))
users JOIN addresses ON addresses.email_address LIKE users.name || :name_1
```

When we create a `select()` construct, SQLAlchemy looks around at the tables we've mentioned and then places them in the FROM clause of the statement. When we use JOINS however, we know what FROM clause we want, so here we make usage of the `from_obj` keyword argument:

```
>>> s = select([users.c.fullname], from_obj=[
...     users.join(addresses, addresses.c.email_address.like(users.c.name + '%'))
... ])
>>> print conn.execute(s).fetchall()
SELECT users.fullname
FROM users JOIN addresses ON addresses.email_address LIKE users.name || ?
('%',) [(u'Jack Jones',), (u'Jack Jones',), (u'Wendy Williams',)]
```

The `outerjoin()` function just creates LEFT OUTER JOIN constructs. It's used just like `join()`:

```
>>> s = select([users.c.fullname], from_obj=[users.outerjoin(addresses)])
>>> print s
SELECT users.fullname
FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN addresses ON users.id = addresses.user_id
```

That's the output `outerjoin()` produces, unless, of course, you're stuck in a gig using Oracle prior to version 9, and you've set up your engine (which would be using `OracleDialect`) to use Oracle-specific SQL:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.dialects.oracle import dialect as OracleDialect
>>> print s.compile(dialect=OracleDialect(use_ansi=False))
SELECT users.fullname
FROM users, addresses
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id(+)
```

If you don't know what that SQL means, don't worry ! The secret tribe of Oracle DBAs don't want their black magic being found out ;).

3.1.15 Intro to Generative Selects

We've now gained the ability to construct very sophisticated statements. We can use all kinds of operators, table constructs, text, joins, and aliases. The point of all of this, as mentioned earlier, is not that it's an "easier" or "better" way to write SQL than just writing a SQL statement yourself; the point is that it's better for writing *programmatically generated* SQL which can be morphed and adapted as needed in automated scenarios.

To support this, the `select()` construct we've been working with supports piecemeal construction, in addition to the "all at once" method we've been doing. Suppose you're writing a search function, which receives criterion and then must construct a select from it. To accomplish this, upon each criterion encountered, you apply "generative" criterion to an existing `select()` construct with new elements, one at a time. We start with a basic `select()` constructed with the shortcut method available on the `users` table:

```
>>> query = users.select()
>>> print query
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname
FROM users
```

We encounter search criterion of "name='jack'". So we apply WHERE criterion stating such:

```
>>> query = query.where(users.c.name=='jack')
```

Next, we encounter that they'd like the results in descending order by full name. We apply ORDER BY, using an extra modifier desc:

```
>>> query = query.order_by(users.c.fullname.desc())
```

We also come across that they'd like only users who have an address at MSN. A quick way to tack this on is by using an EXISTS clause, which we correlate to the `users` table in the enclosing SELECT:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import exists
>>> query = query.where(
...     exists([addresses.c.id],
...         and_(addresses.c.user_id==users.c.id, addresses.c.email_address.like('%@msn.com'))
...     ).correlate(users))
```

And finally, the application also wants to see the listing of email addresses at once; so to save queries, we outerjoin the `addresses` table (using an outer join so that users with no addresses come back as well; since we're programmatic, we might not have kept track that we used an EXISTS clause against the `addresses` table too...). Additionally, since the `users` and `addresses` table both have a column named `id`, let's isolate their names from each other in the COLUMNS clause by using labels:

```
>>> query = query.column(addresses).select_from(users.outerjoin(addresses)).apply_labels()
```

Let's bake for .0001 seconds and see what rises:

```
>>> conn.execute(query).fetchall()
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, addresses.id AS addresses_id, addresses.email_address AS addresses_email_address
FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN addresses ON users.id = addresses.user_id
WHERE users.name = ? AND (EXISTS (SELECT addresses.id
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.user_id = users.id AND addresses.email_address LIKE ?)) ORDER BY users.fullname
('jack', '%@msn.com')[(1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones', 1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com'), (1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones', 1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com')]
```

The generative approach is about starting small, adding one thing at a time, to arrive with a full statement.

Transforming a Statement

We've seen how methods like `Select.where()` and `_SelectBase.order_by()` are part of the so-called *Generative* family of methods on the `select()` construct, where one `select()` copies itself to return a new one with modifications. SQL constructs also support another form of generative behavior which is the *transformation*. This is an advanced technique that most core applications won't use directly; however, it is a system which the ORM relies on heavily, and can be useful for any system that deals with generalized behavior of Core SQL constructs.

Using a transformation we can take our `users/addresses` query and replace all occurrences of `addresses` with an alias of itself. That is, anywhere that `addresses` is referred to in the original query, the new query will refer to `addresses_1`, which is selected as `addresses AS addresses_1`. The `FromClause.replace_selectable()` method can achieve this:

```
>>> a1 = addresses.alias()
>>> query = query.replace_selectable(addresses, a1)
>>> print query
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, a
FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN addresses AS addresses_1 ON users.id = addresses_1.user_id
WHERE users.name = :name_1 AND (EXISTS (SELECT addresses_1.id
FROM addresses AS addresses_1
WHERE addresses_1.user_id = users.id AND addresses_1.email_address LIKE :email_address_1))
```

For a query such as the above, we can access the columns referred to by the `a1` alias in a result set using the `Column` objects present directly on `a1`:

```
>>> for row in conn.execute(query):
...     print "Name:", row[users.c.name], "; Email Address", row[a1.c.email_address]
SELECT users.id AS users_id, users.name AS users_name, users.fullname AS users_fullname, a
FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN addresses AS addresses_1 ON users.id = addresses_1.user_id
WHERE users.name = ? AND (EXISTS (SELECT addresses_1.id
FROM addresses AS addresses_1
WHERE addresses_1.user_id = users.id AND addresses_1.email_address LIKE ?)) ORDER BY users
('jack', '%@msn.com')Name: jack ; Email Address jack@yahoo.com
Name: jack ; Email Address jack@msn.com
```

3.1.16 Everything Else

The concepts of creating SQL expressions have been introduced. What's left are more variants of the same themes. So now we'll catalog the rest of the important things we'll need to know.

Bind Parameter Objects

Throughout all these examples, SQLAlchemy is busy creating bind parameters wherever literal expressions occur. You can also specify your own bind parameters with your own names, and use the same statement repeatedly. The database dialect converts to the appropriate named or positional style, as here where it converts to positional for SQLite:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import bindparam
>>> s = users.select(users.c.name==bindparam('username'))
>>> conn.execute(s, username='wendy').fetchall()
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname
FROM users
WHERE users.name = ?
('wendy',)[(2, u'wendy', u'Wendy Williams')]
```

Another important aspect of bind parameters is that they may be assigned a type. The type of the bind parameter will determine its behavior within expressions and also how the data bound to it is processed before being sent off to the database:

```
>>> s = users.select(users.c.name.like(bindparam('username', type_=String) + text("'%'")))
>>> conn.execute(s, username='wendy').fetchall()
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname
FROM users
WHERE users.name LIKE ? || '%'
('wendy',) [(2, u'wendy', u'Wendy Williams')]
```

Bind parameters of the same name can also be used multiple times, where only a single named value is needed in the execute parameters:

```
>>> s = select([users, addresses],
...     users.c.name.like(bindparam('name', type_=String) + text("'%'")) |
...     addresses.c.email_address.like(bindparam('name', type_=String) + text("'@%'")),
...     from_obj=[users.outerjoin(addresses)])
>>> conn.execute(s, name='jack').fetchall()
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname, addresses.id, addresses.user_id, addresses.em
FROM users LEFT OUTER JOIN addresses ON users.id = addresses.user_id
WHERE users.name LIKE ? || '%' OR addresses.email_address LIKE ? || '@%'
('jack', 'jack') [(1, u'jack', u'Jack Jones', 1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com'), (1, u'jack', u'Jack
```

Functions

SQL functions are created using the `func` keyword, which generates functions using attribute access:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import func
>>> print func.now()
now()
```

```
>>> print func.concat('x', 'y')
concat(:param_1, :param_2)
```

By “generates”, we mean that **any** SQL function is created based on the word you choose:

```
>>> print func.xyz_my_goofy_function()
xyz_my_goofy_function()
```

Certain function names are known by SQLAlchemy, allowing special behavioral rules to be applied. Some for example are “ANSI” functions, which mean they don’t get the parenthesis added after them, such as `CURRENT_TIMESTAMP`:

```
>>> print func.current_timestamp()
CURRENT_TIMESTAMP
```

Functions are most typically used in the columns clause of a select statement, and can also be labeled as well as given a type. Labeling a function is recommended so that the result can be targeted in a result row based on a string name, and assigning it a type is required when you need result-set processing to occur, such as for Unicode conversion and date conversions. Below, we use the result function `scalar()` to just read the first column of the first row and then close the result; the label, even though present, is not important in this case:

```
>>> print conn.execute(
...     select([func.max(addresses.c.email_address, type_=String).label('maxemail')])
... ).scalar()
SELECT max(addresses.email_address) AS maxemail
FROM addresses
() www@www.org
```


Databases such as PostgreSQL and Oracle which support functions that return whole result sets can be assembled into selectable units, which can be used in statements. Such as, a database function `calculate()` which takes the parameters `x` and `y`, and returns three columns which we'd like to name `q`, `z` and `r`, we can construct using “lexical” column objects as well as bind parameters:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import column
>>> calculate = select([column('q'), column('z'), column('r')],
...                    from_obj=[func.calculate(bindparam('x'), bindparam('y'))])

>>> print select([users], users.c.id > calculate.c.z)
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname
FROM users, (SELECT q, z, r
FROM calculate(:x, :y))
WHERE users.id > z
```

If we wanted to use our `calculate` statement twice with different bind parameters, the `unique_params()` function will create copies for us, and mark the bind parameters as “unique” so that conflicting names are isolated. Note we also make two separate aliases of our selectable:

```
>>> s = select([users], users.c.id.between(
...     calculate.alias('c1').unique_params(x=17, y=45).c.z,
...     calculate.alias('c2').unique_params(x=5, y=12).c.z))

>>> print s
SELECT users.id, users.name, users.fullname
FROM users, (SELECT q, z, r
FROM calculate(:x_1, :y_1)) AS c1, (SELECT q, z, r
FROM calculate(:x_2, :y_2)) AS c2
WHERE users.id BETWEEN c1.z AND c2.z

>>> s.compile().params
{'u'x_2': 5, 'u'y_2': 12, 'u'y_1': 45, 'u'x_1': 17}
```

See also `sqlalchemy.sql.expression.func`.

Window Functions

Any `FunctionElement`, including functions generated by `func`, can be turned into a “window function”, that is an `OVER` clause, using the `over()` method:

```
>>> s = select([users.c.id, func.row_number().over(order_by=users.c.name)])
>>> print s
SELECT users.id, row_number() OVER (ORDER BY users.name) AS anon_1
FROM users
```

Unions and Other Set Operations

Unions come in two flavors, `UNION` and `UNION ALL`, which are available via module level functions:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import union
>>> u = union(
...     addresses.select(addresses.c.email_address=='foo@bar.com'),
...     addresses.select(addresses.c.email_address.like('%@yahoo.com')),
... ).order_by(addresses.c.email_address)

>>> print conn.execute(u).fetchall()
```



```
SELECT addresses.id, addresses.user_id, addresses.email_address
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email_address = ? UNION SELECT addresses.id, addresses.user_id, addresses.
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email_address LIKE ? ORDER BY addresses.email_address
('foo@bar.com', '%@yahoo.com')[1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com']]
```

Also available, though not supported on all databases, are `intersect()`, `intersect_all()`, `except_()`, and `except_all()`:

```
>>> from sqlalchemy.sql import except_
>>> u = except_(
...     addresses.select(addresses.c.email_address.like('%@.com')),
...     addresses.select(addresses.c.email_address.like('%@msn.com'))
... )

>>> print conn.execute(u).fetchall()
SELECT addresses.id, addresses.user_id, addresses.email_address
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email_address LIKE ? EXCEPT SELECT addresses.id, addresses.user_id, address
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email_address LIKE ?
('%@.com', '%@msn.com')[1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com'], (4, 2, u'wendy@aol.com')]
```

A common issue with so-called “compound” selectables arises due to the fact that they nest with parenthesis. SQLite in particular doesn’t like a statement that starts with parenthesis. So when nesting a “compound” inside a “compound”, it’s often necessary to apply `.alias().select()` to the first element of the outermost compound, if that element is also a compound. For example, to nest a “union” and a “select” inside of “except”, SQLite will want the “union” to be stated as a subquery:

```
>>> u = except_(
...     union(
...         addresses.select(addresses.c.email_address.like('%@yahoo.com')),
...         addresses.select(addresses.c.email_address.like('%@msn.com'))
...     ).alias().select(), # apply subquery here
...     addresses.select(addresses.c.email_address.like('%@msn.com'))
... )
>>> print conn.execute(u).fetchall()
SELECT anon_1.id, anon_1.user_id, anon_1.email_address
FROM (SELECT addresses.id AS id, addresses.user_id AS user_id,
addresses.email_address AS email_address FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email_address LIKE ? UNION SELECT addresses.id AS id,
addresses.user_id AS user_id, addresses.email_address AS email_address
FROM addresses WHERE addresses.email_address LIKE ?) AS anon_1 EXCEPT
SELECT addresses.id, addresses.user_id, addresses.email_address
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.email_address LIKE ?
('%@yahoo.com', '%@msn.com', '%@msn.com')[1, 1, u'jack@yahoo.com']]
```

Scalar Selects

To embed a SELECT in a column expression, use `as_scalar()`:

```
>>> print conn.execute(select([
...     users.c.name,
...     select([func.count(addresses.c.id)], users.c.id==addresses.c.user_id).as_scalar()
... ]))
```

```
...     ])).fetchall()
SELECT users.name, (SELECT count(addresses.id) AS count_1
FROM addresses
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id) AS anon_1
FROM users
() [(u'jack', 2), (u'wendy', 2), (u'fred', 0), (u'mary', 0)]
```

Alternatively, applying a `label()` to a select evaluates it as a scalar as well:

```
>>> print conn.execute(select([
...     users.c.name,
...     select([func.count(addresses.c.id)], users.c.id==addresses.c.user_id).label('address_count')
...     ])).fetchall()
SELECT users.name, (SELECT count(addresses.id) AS count_1
FROM addresses
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id) AS address_count
FROM users
() [(u'jack', 2), (u'wendy', 2), (u'fred', 0), (u'mary', 0)]
```

Correlated Subqueries

Notice in the examples on “scalar selects”, the `FROM` clause of each embedded select did not contain the `users` table in its `FROM` clause. This is because SQLAlchemy automatically attempts to correlate embedded `FROM` objects to that of an enclosing query. To disable this, or to specify explicit `FROM` clauses to be correlated, use `correlate()`:

```
>>> s = select([users.c.name], users.c.id==select([users.c.id]).correlate(None))
>>> print s
SELECT users.name
FROM users
WHERE users.id = (SELECT users.id
FROM users)

>>> s = select([users.c.name, addresses.c.email_address], users.c.id==
...     select([users.c.id], users.c.id==addresses.c.user_id).correlate(addresses)
...     )
>>> print s
SELECT users.name, addresses.email_address
FROM users, addresses
WHERE users.id = (SELECT users.id
FROM users
WHERE users.id = addresses.user_id)
```

Ordering, Grouping, Limiting, Offset...ing...

The `select()` function can take keyword arguments `order_by`, `group_by` (as well as `having`), `limit`, and `offset`. There’s also `distinct=True`. These are all also available as generative functions. `order_by()` expressions can use the modifiers `asc()` or `desc()` to indicate ascending or descending.

```
>>> s = select([addresses.c.user_id, func.count(addresses.c.id)].\
...     group_by(addresses.c.user_id).having(func.count(addresses.c.id)>1)
>>> print conn.execute(s).fetchall()
SELECT addresses.user_id, count(addresses.id) AS count_1
FROM addresses GROUP BY addresses.user_id
HAVING count(addresses.id) > ?
(1,) [(1, 2), (2, 2)]
```

```

>>> s = select([addresses.c.email_address, addresses.c.id]).distinct().\
...         order_by(addresses.c.email_address.desc(), addresses.c.id)
>>> conn.execute(s).fetchall()
SELECT DISTINCT addresses.email_address, addresses.id
FROM addresses ORDER BY addresses.email_address DESC, addresses.id
() [(u'www@www.org', 3), (u'wendy@aol.com', 4), (u'jack@yahoo.com', 1), (u'jack@msn.com', 2)]

>>> s = select([addresses]).offset(1).limit(1)
>>> print conn.execute(s).fetchall()
SELECT addresses.id, addresses.user_id, addresses.email_address
FROM addresses
LIMIT 1 OFFSET 1
() [(2, 1, u'jack@msn.com')]

```

3.1.17 Inserts and Updates

Finally, we're back to INSERT for some more detail. The `insert()` construct provides a `values()` method which can be used to send any value or clause expression to the VALUES portion of the INSERT:

```

# insert from a function
users.insert().values(id=12, name=func.upper('jack'))

# insert from a concatenation expression
addresses.insert().values(email_address = name + '@' + host)

```

`values()` can be mixed with per-execution values:

```

conn.execute(
    users.insert().values(name=func.upper('jack'),
        fullname='Jack Jones'
    )
)

```

`bindparam()` constructs can be passed, however the names of the table's columns are reserved for the “automatic” generation of bind names:

```

users.insert().values(id=bindparam('_id'), name=bindparam('_name'))

# insert many rows at once:
conn.execute(
    users.insert().values(id=bindparam('_id'), name=bindparam('_name')),
    [
        {'_id': 1, '_name': 'name1'},
        {'_id': 2, '_name': 'name2'},
        {'_id': 3, '_name': 'name3'},
    ]
)

```

Updates work a lot like INSERTS, except there is an additional WHERE clause that can be specified:

```

>>> # change 'jack' to 'ed'
>>> conn.execute(users.update().
...             where(users.c.name=='jack').
...             values(name='ed')
...             )
UPDATE users SET name=? WHERE users.name = ?
('ed', 'jack')

```

```
COMMIT<sqlalchemy.engine.base.ResultProxy object at 0x...>

>>> # use bind parameters
>>> u = users.update().\
...     where(users.c.name==bindparam('oldname')).\
...     values(name=bindparam('newname'))
>>> conn.execute(u, oldname='jack', newname='ed')
UPDATE users SET name=? WHERE users.name = ?
('ed', 'jack')
COMMIT<sqlalchemy.engine.base.ResultProxy object at 0x...>

>>> # with binds, you can also update many rows at once
>>> conn.execute(u,
...     {'oldname': 'jack', 'newname': 'ed'},
...     {'oldname': 'wendy', 'newname': 'mary'},
...     {'oldname': 'jim', 'newname': 'jake'},
...     )
UPDATE users SET name=? WHERE users.name = ?
[('ed', 'jack'), ('mary', 'wendy'), ('jake', 'jim')]
COMMIT<sqlalchemy.engine.base.ResultProxy object at 0x...>

>>> # update a column to an expression.:
>>> conn.execute(users.update().
...     values(fullname="Fullname: " + users.c.name)
...     )
UPDATE users SET fullname=(? || users.name)
('Fullname: ',)
COMMIT<sqlalchemy.engine.base.ResultProxy object at 0x...>
```

Correlated Updates

A correlated update lets you update a table using selection from another table, or the same table:

```
>>> s = select([addresses.c.email_address], addresses.c.user_id==users.c.id).limit(1)
>>> conn.execute(users.update().values(fullname=s))
UPDATE users SET fullname=(SELECT addresses.email_address
FROM addresses
WHERE addresses.user_id = users.id
LIMIT 1 OFFSET 0)
()
COMMIT<sqlalchemy.engine.base.ResultProxy object at 0x...>
```

3.1.18 Deletes

Finally, a delete. Easy enough:

```
>>> conn.execute(addresses.delete())
DELETE FROM addresses
()
COMMIT<sqlalchemy.engine.base.ResultProxy object at 0x...>

>>> conn.execute(users.delete().where(users.c.name > 'm'))
DELETE FROM users WHERE users.name > ?
```

```
('m', )
COMMIT<sqlalchemy.engine.base.ResultProxy object at 0x...>
```

3.1.19 Further Reference

Expression Language Reference: *SQL Statements and Expressions API*

Database Metadata Reference: *Schema Definition Language*

Engine Reference: *Engine Configuration*

Connection Reference: *Working with Engines and Connections*

Types Reference: *Column and Data Types*

3.2 SQL Statements and Expressions API

This section presents the API reference for the SQL Expression Language. For a full introduction to its usage, see *SQL Expression Language Tutorial*.

3.2.1 Functions

The expression package uses functions to construct SQL expressions. The return value of each function is an object instance which is a subclass of `ClauseElement`.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.alias(selectable, name=None)`
Return an `Alias` object.

An `Alias` represents any `FromClause` with an alternate name assigned within SQL, typically using the AS clause when generated, e.g. `SELECT * FROM table AS aliasname`.

Similar functionality is available via the `alias()` method available on all `FromClause` subclasses.

When an `Alias` is created from a `Table` object, this has the effect of the table being rendered as `tablename AS aliasname` in a SELECT statement.

For `select()` objects, the effect is that of creating a named subquery, i.e. `(select ...) AS aliasname`.

The `name` parameter is optional, and provides the name to use in the rendered SQL. If blank, an “anonymous” name will be deterministically generated at compile time. Deterministic means the name is guaranteed to be unique against other constructs used in the same statement, and will also be the same name for each successive compilation of the same statement object.

Parameters

- **selectable** – any `FromClause` subclass, such as a table, select statement, etc.
- **name** – string name to be assigned as the alias. If `None`, a name will be deterministically generated at compile time.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.and_(*clauses)`
Join a list of clauses together using the AND operator.

The `&` operator is also overloaded on all `_CompareMixin` subclasses to produce the same result.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.asc(column)`
Return an ascending ORDER BY clause element.

e.g.:

```
someselect.order_by(asc(table1.mycol))
```

produces:

```
ORDER BY mycol ASC
```

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.between(ctest, cleft, cright)`
Return a BETWEEN predicate clause.

Equivalent of SQL `clausetest BETWEEN clauseleft AND clauseright`.

The `between()` method on all `_CompareMixin` subclasses provides similar functionality.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.bindparam(key, value=None, type_=None, unique=False, required=False, callable_=None)`

Create a bind parameter clause with the given key.

Parameters

- **key** – the key for this bind param. Will be used in the generated SQL statement for dialects that use named parameters. This value may be modified when part of a compilation operation, if other `_BindParamClause` objects exist with the same key, or if its length is too long and truncation is required.
- **value** – Initial value for this bind param. This value may be overridden by the dictionary of parameters sent to statement compilation/execution.
- **callable_** – A callable function that takes the place of “value”. The function will be called at statement execution time to determine the ultimate value. Used for scenarios where the actual bind value cannot be determined at the point at which the clause construct is created, but embedded bind values are still desirable.
- **type_** – A `TypeEngine` object that will be used to pre-process the value corresponding to this `_BindParamClause` at execution time.
- **unique** – if True, the key name of this `BindParamClause` will be modified if another `_BindParamClause` of the same name already has been located within the containing `ClauseElement`.
- **required** – a value is required at execution time.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.case(whens, value=None, else_=None)`
Produce a CASE statement.

whens A sequence of pairs, or alternatively a dict, to be translated into “WHEN / THEN” clauses.

value Optional for simple case statements, produces a column expression as in “CASE <expr> WHEN ...”

else_ Optional as well, for case defaults produces the “ELSE” portion of the “CASE” statement.

The expressions used for THEN and ELSE, when specified as strings, will be interpreted as bound values. To specify textual SQL expressions for these, use the `literal_column()` construct.

The expressions used for the WHEN criterion may only be literal strings when “value” is present, i.e. `CASE table.somecol WHEN “x” THEN “y”`. Otherwise, literal strings are not accepted in this position, and either the `text(<string>)` or `literal(<string>)` constructs must be used to interpret raw string values.

Usage examples:

```

case([(orderline.c.qty > 100, item.c.specialprice),
      (orderline.c.qty > 10, item.c.bulkprice)
], else_=item.c.regularprice)
case(value=emp.c.type, whens={
    'engineer': emp.c.salary * 1.1,
    'manager':  emp.c.salary * 3,
}))

```

Using `literal_column()`, to allow for databases that do not support bind parameters in the `then` clause. The type can be specified which determines the type of the `case()` construct overall:

```

case([(orderline.c.qty > 100,
      literal_column("'greaterthan100'", String)),
      (orderline.c.qty > 10, literal_column("'greaterthan10'",
      String))
], else_=literal_column("'lethan10'", String))

```

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.cast` (*clause*, *totype*, ***kwargs*)

Return a CAST function.

Equivalent of SQL `CAST (clause AS totype)`.

Use with a `TypeEngine` subclass, i.e:

```
cast(table.c.unit_price * table.c.qty, Numeric(10,4))
```

or:

```
cast(table.c.timestamp, DATE)
```

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.column` (*text*, *type_=None*)

Return a textual column clause, as would be in the columns clause of a `SELECT` statement.

The object returned is an instance of `ColumnClause`, which represents the “syntactical” portion of the schema-level `Column` object. It is often used directly within `select()` constructs or with lightweight `table()` constructs.

Note that the `column()` function is not part of the `sqlalchemy` namespace. It must be imported from the `sql` package:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import table, column
```

Parameters

- **text** – the name of the column. Quoting rules will be applied to the clause like any other column name. For textual column constructs that are not to be quoted, use the `literal_column()` function.
- **type_** – an optional `TypeEngine` object which will provide result-set translation for this column.

See `ColumnClause` for further examples.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.collate` (*expression*, *collation*)

Return the clause expression `COLLATE collation`.

e.g.:

```
collate(mycolumn, 'utf8_bin')
```

produces:

```
mycolumn COLLATE utf8_bin
```

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.delete` (*table*, *whereclause*=None, ***kwargs*)
Return a `Delete` clause element.

Similar functionality is available via the `delete()` method on `Table`.

Parameters

- **table** – The table to be updated.
- **whereclause** – A `ClauseElement` describing the WHERE condition of the UPDATE statement. Note that the `where()` generative method may be used instead.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.desc` (*column*)
Return a descending ORDER BY clause element.

e.g.:

```
someselect.order_by(desc(table1.mycol))
```

produces:

```
ORDER BY mycol DESC
```

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.distinct` (*expr*)
Return a DISTINCT clause.

e.g.:

```
distinct(a)
```

renders:

```
DISTINCT a
```

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.except_` (**selects*, ***kwargs*)
Return an EXCEPT of multiple selectables.

The returned object is an instance of `CompoundSelect`.

***selects** a list of `Select` instances.

****kwargs** available keyword arguments are the same as those of `select()`.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.except_all` (**selects*, ***kwargs*)
Return an EXCEPT ALL of multiple selectables.

The returned object is an instance of `CompoundSelect`.

***selects** a list of `Select` instances.

****kwargs** available keyword arguments are the same as those of `select()`.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.exists` (**args*, ***kwargs*)
Return an EXISTS clause as applied to a `Select` object.

Calling styles are of the following forms:


```

# use on an existing select()
s = select([table.c.col1]).where(table.c.col2==5)
s = exists(s)

# construct a select() at once
exists(['*'], **select_arguments).where(criterion)

# columns argument is optional, generates "EXISTS (SELECT *)"
# by default.
exists().where(table.c.col2==5)

```

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.extract` (*field*, *expr*)

Return the clause `extract` (`field FROM expr`).

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.false` ()

Return a `_False` object, which compiles to `false`, or the boolean equivalent for the target dialect.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.func`

Generate SQL function expressions.

`func` is a special object instance which generates SQL functions based on name-based attributes, e.g.:

```

>>> print func.count(1)
count(:param_1)

```

The element is a column-oriented SQL element like any other, and is used in that way:

```

>>> print select([func.count(table.c.id)])
SELECT count(sometable.id) FROM sometable

```

Any name can be given to `func`. If the function name is unknown to SQLAlchemy, it will be rendered exactly as is. For common SQL functions which SQLAlchemy is aware of, the name may be interpreted as a *generic function* which will be compiled appropriately to the target database:

```

>>> print func.current_timestamp()
CURRENT_TIMESTAMP

```

To call functions which are present in dot-separated packages, specify them in the same manner:

```

>>> print func.stats.yield_curve(5, 10)
stats.yield_curve(:yield_curve_1, :yield_curve_2)

```

SQLAlchemy can be made aware of the return type of functions to enable type-specific lexical and result-based behavior. For example, to ensure that a string-based function returns a Unicode value and is similarly treated as a string in expressions, specify `Unicode` as the type:

```

>>> print func.my_string(u'hi', type_=Unicode) + ' ' + \
... func.my_string(u'there', type_=Unicode)
my_string(:my_string_1) || :my_string_2 || my_string(:my_string_3)

```

The object returned by a `func` call is an instance of `Function`. This object meets the “column” interface, including comparison and labeling functions. The object can also be passed the `execute()` method of a `Connection` or `Engine`, where it will be wrapped inside of a `SELECT` statement first:

```

print connection.execute(func.current_timestamp()).scalar()

```

A function can also be “bound” to a [Engine](#) or [Connection](#) using the `bind` keyword argument, providing an `execute()` as well as a `scalar()` method:

```
myfunc = func.current_timestamp(bind=some_engine)
print myfunc.scalar()
```

Functions which are interpreted as “generic” functions know how to calculate their return type automatically. For a listing of known generic functions, see [Generic Functions](#).

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.insert` (*table*, *values=None*, *inline=False*, ***kwargs*)
Return an [Insert](#) clause element.

Similar functionality is available via the `insert()` method on [Table](#).

Parameters

- **table** – The table to be inserted into.
- **values** – A dictionary which specifies the column specifications of the `INSERT`, and is optional. If left as `None`, the column specifications are determined from the bind parameters used during the compile phase of the `INSERT` statement. If the bind parameters also are `None` during the compile phase, then the column specifications will be generated from the full list of table columns. Note that the `values()` generative method may also be used for this.
- **prefixes** – A list of modifier keywords to be inserted between `INSERT` and `INTO`. Alternatively, the `prefix_with()` generative method may be used.
- **inline** – if `True`, SQL defaults will be compiled ‘inline’ into the statement and not pre-executed.

If both *values* and compile-time bind parameters are present, the compile-time bind parameters override the information specified within *values* on a per-key basis.

The keys within *values* can be either [Column](#) objects or their string identifiers. Each key may reference one of:

- a literal data value (i.e. string, number, etc.);
- a [Column](#) object;
- a `SELECT` statement.

If a `SELECT` statement is specified which references this `INSERT` statement’s table, the statement will be correlated against the `INSERT` statement.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.intersect` (**selects*, ***kwargs*)
Return an `INTERSECT` of multiple selectable.

The returned object is an instance of [CompoundSelect](#).

***selects** a list of [Select](#) instances.

****kwargs** available keyword arguments are the same as those of `select()`.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.intersect_all` (**selects*, ***kwargs*)
Return an `INTERSECT ALL` of multiple selectable.

The returned object is an instance of [CompoundSelect](#).

***selects** a list of [Select](#) instances.

****kwargs** available keyword arguments are the same as those of `select()`.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.join(left, right, onclause=None, isouter=False)`

Return a JOIN clause element (regular inner join).

The returned object is an instance of `Join`.

Similar functionality is also available via the `join()` method on any `FromClause`.

Parameters

- **left** – The left side of the join.
- **right** – The right side of the join.
- **onclause** – Optional criterion for the ON clause, is derived from foreign key relationships established between left and right otherwise.

To chain joins together, use the `FromClause.join()` or `FromClause.outerjoin()` methods on the resulting `Join` object.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.label(name, obj)`

Return a `_Label` object for the given `ColumnElement`.

A label changes the name of an element in the columns clause of a SELECT statement, typically via the AS SQL keyword.

This functionality is more conveniently available via the `label()` method on `ColumnElement`.

name label name

obj a `ColumnElement`.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.literal(value, type_=None)`

Return a literal clause, bound to a bind parameter.

Literal clauses are created automatically when non- `ClauseElement` objects (such as strings, ints, dates, etc.) are used in a comparison operation with a `_CompareMixin` subclass, such as a `Column` object. Use this function to force the generation of a literal clause, which will be created as a `_BindParamClause` with a bound value.

Parameters

- **value** – the value to be bound. Can be any Python object supported by the underlying DB-API, or is translatable via the given type argument.
- **type_** – an optional `TypeEngine` which will provide bind-parameter translation for this literal.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.literal_column(text, type_=None)`

Return a textual column expression, as would be in the columns clause of a SELECT statement.

The object returned supports further expressions in the same way as any other column object, including comparison, math and string operations. The `type_` parameter is important to determine proper expression behavior (such as, '+' means string concatenation or numerical addition based on the type).

Parameters

- **text** – the text of the expression; can be any SQL expression. Quoting rules will not be applied. To specify a column-name expression which should be subject to quoting rules, use the `column()` function.
- **type_** – an optional `TypeEngine` object which will provide result-set translation and additional expression semantics for this column. If left as `None` the type will be `NullType`.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.not_(clause)`

Return a negation of the given clause, i.e. NOT (clause).

The `~` operator is also overloaded on all `_CompareMixin` subclasses to produce the same result.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.null()`
Return a `_Null` object, which compiles to `NULL`.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.nullsfirst(column)`
Return a `NULLS FIRST ORDER BY` clause element.

e.g.:

```
someselect.order_by(desc(table1.mycol).nullsfirst())
```

produces:

```
ORDER BY mycol DESC NULLS FIRST
```

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.nullslast(column)`
Return a `NULLS LAST ORDER BY` clause element.

e.g.:

```
someselect.order_by(desc(table1.mycol).nullslast())
```

produces:

```
ORDER BY mycol DESC NULLS LAST
```

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.or_(*clauses)`
Join a list of clauses together using the `OR` operator.

The `|` operator is also overloaded on all `_CompareMixin` subclasses to produce the same result.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.outparam(key, type_=None)`
Create an ‘OUT’ parameter for usage in functions (stored procedures), for databases which support them.

The `outparam` can be used like a regular function parameter. The “output” value will be available from the `ResultProxy` object via its `out_parameters` attribute, which returns a dictionary containing the values.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.outerjoin(left, right, onclause=None)`
Return an `OUTER JOIN` clause element.

The returned object is an instance of `Join`.

Similar functionality is also available via the `outerjoin()` method on any `FromClause`.

Parameters

- **left** – The left side of the join.
- **right** – The right side of the join.
- **onclause** – Optional criterion for the `ON` clause, is derived from foreign key relationships established between left and right otherwise.

To chain joins together, use the `FromClause.join()` or `FromClause.outerjoin()` methods on the resulting `Join` object.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.over(func, partition_by=None, order_by=None)`
Produce an `OVER` clause against a function.

Used against aggregate or so-called “window” functions, for database backends that support window functions.

E.g.:

```
from sqlalchemy import over
over(func.row_number(), order_by='x')
```

Would produce “ROW_NUMBER() OVER(ORDER BY x)”.

Parameters

- **func** – a `FunctionElement` construct, typically generated by `func`.
- **partition_by** – a column element or string, or a list of such, that will be used as the PARTITION BY clause of the OVER construct.
- **order_by** – a column element or string, or a list of such, that will be used as the ORDER BY clause of the OVER construct.

This function is also available from the `func` construct itself via the `FunctionElement.over()` method.

New in 0.7.

```
sqlalchemy.sql.expression.select(columns=None,      whereclause=None,      from_obj=[],
                                **kwargs)
```

Returns a SELECT clause element.

Similar functionality is also available via the `select()` method on any `FromClause`.

The returned object is an instance of `Select`.

All arguments which accept `ClauseElement` arguments also accept string arguments, which will be converted as appropriate into either `text()` or `literal_column()` constructs.

Parameters

- **columns** – A list of `ClauseElement` objects, typically `ColumnElement` objects or subclasses, which will form the columns clause of the resulting statement. For all members which are instances of `Selectable`, the individual `ColumnElement` members of the `Selectable` will be added individually to the columns clause. For example, specifying a `Table` instance will result in all the contained `Column` objects within to be added to the columns clause.

This argument is not present on the form of `select()` available on `Table`.

- **whereclause** – A `ClauseElement` expression which will be used to form the WHERE clause.
- **from_obj** – A list of `ClauseElement` objects which will be added to the FROM clause of the resulting statement. Note that “from” objects are automatically located within the columns and whereclause `ClauseElements`. Use this parameter to explicitly specify “from” objects which are not automatically locatable. This could include `Table` objects that aren’t otherwise present, or `Join` objects whose presence will supercede that of the `Table` objects already located in the other clauses.
- **autocommit** – Deprecated. Use `.execution_options(autocommit=<True|False>)` to set the autocommit option.
- **bind=None** – an `Engine` or `Connection` instance to which the resulting `Select` object will be bound. The `Select` object will otherwise automatically bind to whatever `Connectable` instances can be located within its contained `ClauseElement` members.
- **correlate=True** – indicates that this `Select` object should have its contained `FromClause` elements “correlated” to an enclosing `Select` object. This means that any `ClauseElement` instance within the “froms” collection of this `Select` which is also present in the “froms” collection of an enclosing select will not be rendered in the FROM clause of this select statement.

- **distinct=False** – when `True`, applies a `DISTINCT` qualifier to the columns clause of the resulting statement.

The boolean argument may also be a column expression or list of column expressions - this is a special calling form which is understood by the Postgresql dialect to render the `DISTINCT ON (<columns>)` syntax.

`distinct` is also available via the `distinct()` generative method.

Note: The `distinct` keyword's acceptance of a string argument for usage with MySQL is deprecated. Use the `prefixes` argument or `prefix_with()`.

- **for_update=False** – when `True`, applies `FOR UPDATE` to the end of the resulting statement. Certain database dialects also support alternate values for this parameter, for example mysql supports “read” which translates to `LOCK IN SHARE MODE`, and oracle supports “nowait” which translates to `FOR UPDATE NOWAIT`.
- **group_by** – a list of `ClauseElement` objects which will comprise the `GROUP BY` clause of the resulting select.
- **having** – a `ClauseElement` that will comprise the `HAVING` clause of the resulting select when `GROUP BY` is used.
- **limit=None** – a numerical value which usually compiles to a `LIMIT` expression in the resulting select. Databases that don't support `LIMIT` will attempt to provide similar functionality.
- **offset=None** – a numeric value which usually compiles to an `OFFSET` expression in the resulting select. Databases that don't support `OFFSET` will attempt to provide similar functionality.
- **order_by** – a scalar or list of `ClauseElement` objects which will comprise the `ORDER BY` clause of the resulting select.
- **prefixes** – a list of strings or `ClauseElement` objects to include directly after the `SELECT` keyword in the generated statement, for dialect-specific query features. `prefixes` is also available via the `prefix_with()` generative method.
- **use_labels=False** – when `True`, the statement will be generated using labels for each column in the columns clause, which qualify each column with its parent table's (or aliases) name so that name conflicts between columns in different tables don't occur. The format of the label is `<tablename>_<column>`. The “c” collection of the resulting `Select` object will use these names as well for targeting column members.

`use_labels` is also available via the `apply_labels()` generative method.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.subquery(alias, *args, **kwargs)`

Return an `Alias` object derived from a `Select`.

name alias name

***args, **kwargs**

all other arguments are delivered to the `select()` function.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.table(name, *columns)`

Represent a textual table clause.

The object returned is an instance of `TableClause`, which represents the “syntactical” portion of the schema-level `Table` object. It may be used to construct lightweight table constructs.

Note that the `table()` function is not part of the `sqlalchemy` namespace. It must be imported from the `sql` package:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import table, column
```

Parameters

- **name** – Name of the table.
- **columns** – A collection of `column()` constructs.

See `TableClause` for further examples.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.text(text, bind=None, *args, **kwargs)`
Create a SQL construct that is represented by a literal string.

E.g.:

```
t = text("SELECT * FROM users")
result = connection.execute(t)
```

The advantages `text()` provides over a plain string are backend-neutral support for bind parameters, per-statement execution options, as well as bind parameter and result-column typing behavior, allowing SQLAlchemy type constructs to play a role when executing a statement that is specified literally.

Bind parameters are specified by name, using the format `:name`. E.g.:

```
t = text("SELECT * FROM users WHERE id=:user_id")
result = connection.execute(t, user_id=12)
```

To invoke SQLAlchemy typing logic for bind parameters, the `bindparams` list allows specification of `bindparam()` constructs which specify the type for a given name:

```
t = text("SELECT id FROM users WHERE updated_at>:updated",
        bindparams=[bindparam('updated', DateTime())])
```

Typing during result row processing is also an important concern. Result column types are specified using the `typemap` dictionary, where the keys match the names of columns. These names are taken from what the DBAPI returns as `cursor.description`:

```
t = text("SELECT id, name FROM users",
        typemap={
            'id': Integer,
            'name': Unicode
        })
```

The `text()` construct is used internally for most cases when a literal string is specified for part of a larger query, such as within `select()`, `update()`, `insert()` or `delete()`. In those cases, the same bind parameter syntax is applied:

```
s = select([users.c.id, users.c.name]).where("id=:user_id")
result = connection.execute(s, user_id=12)
```

Using `text()` explicitly usually implies the construction of a full, standalone statement. As such, SQLAlchemy refers to it as an `Executable` object, and it supports the `Executable.execution_options()` method. For example, a `text()` construct that should be subject to “autocommit” can be set explicitly so using the `autocommit` option:

```
t = text("EXEC my_procedural_thing()").\
    execution_options(autocommit=True)
```

Note that SQLAlchemy’s usual “autocommit” behavior applies to `text()` constructs - that is, statements which begin with a phrase such as `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, or a variety of other phrases specific to certain backends, will be eligible for autocommit if no transaction is in progress.

Parameters

- **text** – the text of the SQL statement to be created. use `:<param>` to specify bind parameters; they will be compiled to their engine-specific format.
- **autocommit** – Deprecated. Use `.execution_options(autocommit=<True|False>)` to set the autocommit option.
- **bind** – an optional connection or engine to be used for this text query.
- **bindparams** – a list of `bindparam()` instances which can be used to define the types and/or initial values for the bind parameters within the textual statement; the keynames of the bindparams must match those within the text of the statement. The types will be used for pre-processing on bind values.
- **typemap** – a dictionary mapping the names of columns represented in the columns clause of a `SELECT` statement to type objects, which will be used to perform post-processing on columns within the result set. This argument applies to any expression that returns result sets.

```
sqlalchemy.sql.expression.true()
```

Return a `_True` object, which compiles to `true`, or the boolean equivalent for the target dialect.

```
sqlalchemy.sql.expression.tuple_(*expr)
```

Return a SQL tuple.

Main usage is to produce a composite IN construct:

```
tuple_(table.c.col1, table.c.col2).in_(
    [(1, 2), (5, 12), (10, 19)]
)
```

```
sqlalchemy.sql.expression.type_coerce(expr, type_)
```

Coerce the given expression into the given type, on the Python side only.

`type_coerce()` is roughly similar to `:func:.'cast'`, except no “CAST” expression is rendered - the given type is only applied towards expression typing and against received result values.

e.g.:

```
from sqlalchemy.types import TypeDecorator
import uuid
```

```
class AsUuid(TypeDecorator):
    impl = String

    def process_bind_param(self, value, dialect):
        if value is not None:
            return str(value)
        else:
            return None
```



```

def process_result_value(self, value, dialect):
    if value is not None:
        return uuid.UUID(value)
    else:
        return None

conn.execute(
    select([type_coerce(mytable.c.ident, AsGuid)]).\
        where(
            type_coerce(mytable.c.ident, AsGuid) ==
            uuid.uuid3(uuid.NAMESPACE_URL, 'bar')
        )
)

```

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.union(*selects, **kwargs)`

Return a UNION of multiple selectable.

The returned object is an instance of `CompoundSelect`.

A similar `union()` method is available on all `FromClause` subclasses.

***selects** a list of `Select` instances.

****kwargs** available keyword arguments are the same as those of `select()`.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.union_all(*selects, **kwargs)`

Return a UNION ALL of multiple selectable.

The returned object is an instance of `CompoundSelect`.

A similar `union_all()` method is available on all `FromClause` subclasses.

***selects** a list of `Select` instances.

****kwargs** available keyword arguments are the same as those of `select()`.

`sqlalchemy.sql.expression.update(table, whereclause=None, values=None, inline=False, **kwargs)`

Return an `Update` clause element.

Similar functionality is available via the `update()` method on `Table`.

Parameters

- **table** – The table to be updated.
- **whereclause** – A `ClauseElement` describing the WHERE condition of the UPDATE statement. Note that the `where()` generative method may also be used for this.
- **values** – A dictionary which specifies the SET conditions of the UPDATE, and is optional. If left as `None`, the SET conditions are determined from the bind parameters used during the compile phase of the UPDATE statement. If the bind parameters also are `None` during the compile phase, then the SET conditions will be generated from the full list of table columns. Note that the `values()` generative method may also be used for this.
- **inline** – if `True`, SQL defaults will be compiled ‘inline’ into the statement and not pre-executed.

If both *values* and compile-time bind parameters are present, the compile-time bind parameters override the information specified within *values* on a per-key basis.

The keys within *values* can be either `Column` objects or their string identifiers. Each key may reference one of:

- a literal data value (i.e. string, number, etc.);

- a Column object;
- a SELECT statement.

If a SELECT statement is specified which references this UPDATE statement's table, the statement will be correlated against the UPDATE statement.

3.2.2 Classes

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**Alias** (*selectable, name=None*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.FromClause

Represents an table or selectable alias (AS).

Represents an alias, as typically applied to any table or sub-select within a SQL statement using the AS keyword (or without the keyword on certain databases such as Oracle).

This object is constructed from the `alias()` module level function as well as the `FromClause.alias()` method available on all `FromClause` subclasses.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**_BindParamClause** (*key, value, type_=None, unique=False, callable_=None, isoutparam=False, required=False, _compared_to_operator=None, _compared_to_type=None*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ColumnElement

Represent a bind parameter.

Public constructor is the `bindparam()` function.

__init__ (*key, value, type_=None, unique=False, callable_=None, isoutparam=False, required=False, _compared_to_operator=None, _compared_to_type=None*)
Construct a `_BindParamClause`.

Parameters

- **key** – the key for this bind param. Will be used in the generated SQL statement for dialects that use named parameters. This value may be modified when part of a compilation operation, if other `_BindParamClause` objects exist with the same key, or if its length is too long and truncation is required.
- **value** – Initial value for this bind param. This value may be overridden by the dictionary of parameters sent to statement compilation/execution.
- **callable_** – A callable function that takes the place of “value”. The function will be called at statement execution time to determine the ultimate value. Used for scenarios where the actual bind value cannot be determined at the point at which the clause construct is created, but embeded bind values are still desirable.
- **type_** – A `TypeEngine` object that will be used to pre-process the value corresponding to this `_BindParamClause` at execution time.
- **unique** – if True, the key name of this `BindParamClause` will be modified if another `_BindParamClause` of the same name already has been located within the containing `ClauseElement`.
- **required** – a value is required at execution time.
- **isoutparam** – if True, the parameter should be treated like a stored procedure “OUT” parameter.

compare (*other*, ***kw*)

Compare this `_BindParamClause` to the given clause.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**ClauseElement**

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.visitors.Visitable

Base class for elements of a programmatically constructed SQL expression.

compare (*other*, ***kw*)

Compare this `ClauseElement` to the given `ClauseElement`.

Subclasses should override the default behavior, which is a straight identity comparison.

***kw* are arguments consumed by subclass `compare()` methods and may be used to modify the criteria for comparison. (see `ColumnElement`)

compile (*bind=None*, *dialect=None*, ***kw*)

Compile this SQL expression.

The return value is a `Compiled` object. Calling `str()` or `unicode()` on the returned value will yield a string representation of the result. The `Compiled` object also can return a dictionary of bind parameter names and values using the `params` accessor.

Parameters

- **bind** – An `Engine` or `Connection` from which a `Compiled` will be acquired. This argument takes precedence over this `ClauseElement`'s bound engine, if any.
- **column_keys** – Used for `INSERT` and `UPDATE` statements, a list of column names which should be present in the `VALUES` clause of the compiled statement. If `None`, all columns from the target table object are rendered.
- **dialect** – A `Dialect` instance from which a `Compiled` will be acquired. This argument takes precedence over the `bind` argument as well as this `ClauseElement`'s bound engine, if any.
- **inline** – Used for `INSERT` statements, for a dialect which does not support inline retrieval of newly generated primary key columns, will force the expression used to create the new primary key value to be rendered inline within the `INSERT` statement's `VALUES` clause. This typically refers to `Sequence` execution but may also refer to any server-side default generation function associated with a primary key `Column`.

execute (**multiparams*, ***params*)

Compile and execute this `ClauseElement`. Deprecated since version 0.7: Only SQL expressions which subclass `Executable` may provide the `execute()` method.

get_children (***kwargs*)

Return immediate child elements of this `ClauseElement`.

This is used for visit traversal.

***kwargs* may contain flags that change the collection that is returned, for example to return a subset of items in order to cut down on larger traversals, or to return child items from a different context (such as schema-level collections instead of clause-level).

params (**optionaldict*, ***kwargs*)

Return a copy with `bindparam()` elements replaced.

Returns a copy of this `ClauseElement` with `bindparam()` elements replaced with values taken from the given dictionary:

```
>>> clause = column('x') + bindparam('foo')
>>> print clause.compile().params
```

```
{'foo':None}
>>> print clause.params({'foo':7}).compile().params
{'foo':7}
```

scalar (*multiparams, **params)

Compile and execute this `ClauseElement`, returning `Deprecated` since version 0.7: Only SQL expressions which subclass `Executable` may provide the `scalar()` method. the result's scalar representation.

self_group (against=None)

Apply a 'grouping' to this `ClauseElement`.

This method is overridden by subclasses to return a "grouping" construct, i.e. parenthesis. In particular it's used by "binary" expressions to provide a grouping around themselves when placed into a larger expression, as well as by `select()` constructs when placed into the FROM clause of another `select()`. (Note that subqueries should be normally created using the `Select.alias()` method, as many platforms require nested SELECT statements to be named).

As expressions are composed together, the application of `self_group()` is automatic - end-user code should never need to use this method directly. Note that SQLAlchemy's clause constructs take operator precedence into account - so parenthesis might not be needed, for example, in an expression like `x OR (y AND z)` - AND takes precedence over OR.

The base `self_group()` method of `ClauseElement` just returns self.

unique_params (*optionaldict, **kwargs)

Return a copy with `bindparam()` elements replaced.

Same functionality as `params()`, except adds `unique=True` to affected bind parameters so that multiple statements can be used.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**ClauseList** (*clauses, **kwargs)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ClauseElement

Describe a list of clauses, separated by an operator.

By default, is comma-separated, such as a column listing.

compare (other, **kw)

Compare this `ClauseList` to the given `ClauseList`, including a comparison of all the clause items.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**ColumnClause** (text, selectable=None, type_=None, is_literal=False)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression._Immutable, sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ColumnElement

Represents a generic column expression from any textual string.

This includes columns associated with tables, aliases and select statements, but also any arbitrary text. May or may not be bound to an underlying `Selectable`.

`ColumnClause` is constructed by itself typically via the `column()` function. It may be placed directly into constructs such as `select()` constructs:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import column, select
```

```
c1, c2 = column("c1"), column("c2")
s = select([c1, c2]).where(c1==5)
```

There is also a variant on `column()` known as `literal_column()` - the difference is that in the latter case, the string value is assumed to be an exact expression, rather than a column name, so that no quoting rules or similar are applied:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import literal_column, select

s = select([literal_column("5 + 7")])
```

`ColumnClause` can also be used in a table-like fashion by combining the `column()` function with the `table()` function, to produce a “lightweight” form of table metadata:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import table, column

user = table("user",
             column("id"),
             column("name"),
             column("description"),
             )
```

The above construct can be created in an ad-hoc fashion and is not associated with any `schema.MetaData`, unlike it’s more full fledged `schema.Table` counterpart.

Parameters

- **text** – the text of the element.
- **selectable** – parent selectable.
- **type** – `types.TypeEngine` object which can associate this `ColumnClause` with a type.
- **is_literal** – if True, the `ColumnClause` is assumed to be an exact expression that will be delivered to the output with no quoting rules applied regardless of case sensitive settings. the `literal_column()` function is usually used to create such a `ColumnClause`.

```
class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ColumnCollection(*cols)
Bases: sqlalchemy.util._collections.OrderedProperties
```

An ordered dictionary that stores a list of `ColumnElement` instances.

Overrides the `__eq__()` method to produce SQL clauses between sets of correlated columns.

add (*column*)
Add a column to this collection.

The key attribute of the column will be used as the hash key for this dictionary.

replace (*column*)
add the given column to this collection, removing unaliased versions of this column as well as existing columns with the same key.

e.g.:

```
t = Table('sometable', metadata, Column('col1', Integer))
t.columns.replace(Column('col1', Integer, key='columnname'))
```

will remove the original ‘col1’ from the collection, and add the new column under the name ‘columnname’.

Used by `schema.Column` to override columns during table reflection.

```
class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ColumnElement
Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ClauseElement, sqlalchemy.sql.expression._CompareMixin
```

Represent an element that is usable within the “column clause” portion of a `SELECT` statement.

This includes columns associated with tables, aliases, and subqueries, expressions, function calls, SQL keywords such as NULL, literals, etc. `ColumnElement` is the ultimate base class for all such elements.

`ColumnElement` supports the ability to be a *proxy* element, which indicates that the `ColumnElement` may be associated with a `Selectable` which was derived from another `Selectable`. An example of a “derived” `Selectable` is an `Alias` of a `Table`.

A `ColumnElement`, by subclassing the `_CompareMixin` mixin class, provides the ability to generate new `ClauseElement` objects using Python expressions. See the `_CompareMixin` docstring for more details.

anon_label

provides a constant ‘anonymous label’ for this `ColumnElement`.

This is a `label()` expression which will be named at compile time. The same `label()` is returned each time `anon_label` is called so that expressions can reference `anon_label` multiple times, producing the same label name at compile time.

the compiler uses this function automatically at compile time for expressions that are known to be ‘unnamed’ like binary expressions and function calls.

compare (*other*, *use_proxies=False*, *equivalents=None*, ***kw*)

Compare this `ColumnElement` to another.

Special arguments understood:

Parameters

- **use_proxies** – when True, consider two columns that share a common base column as equivalent (i.e. `shares_lineage()`)
- **equivalents** – a dictionary of columns as keys mapped to sets of columns. If the given “other” column is present in this dictionary, if any of the columns in the corresponding set() pass the comparison test, the result is True. This is used to expand the comparison to other columns that may be known to be equivalent to this one via foreign key or other criterion.

shares_lineage (*othercolumn*)

Return True if the given `ColumnElement` has a common ancestor to this `ColumnElement`.

class `sqlalchemy.sql.expression._CompareMixin`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.sql.operators.ColumnOperators`

Defines comparison and math operations for `ClauseElement` instances.

See `ColumnOperators` and `Operators` for descriptions of all operations.

asc ()

See `ColumnOperators.asc()`.

between (*clleft*, *cright*)

See `ColumnOperators.between()`.

collate (*collation*)

See `ColumnOperators.collate()`.

contains (*other*, *escape=None*)

See `ColumnOperators.contains()`.

desc ()

See `ColumnOperators.desc()`.

distinct ()

See `ColumnOperators.distinct()`.

endswith (*other*, *escape=None*)
 See `ColumnOperators.endswith()`.

in_ (*other*)
 See `ColumnOperators.in_()`.

label (*name*)
 Produce a column label, i.e. `<columnname> AS <name>`.
 This is a shortcut to the `label()` function.
 if 'name' is None, an anonymous label name will be generated.

match (*other*)
 See `ColumnOperators.match()`.

nullsfirst ()
 See `ColumnOperators.nullsfirst()`.

nullslast ()
 See `ColumnOperators.nullslast()`.

op (*operator*)
 See `ColumnOperators.op()`.

startswith (*other*, *escape=None*)
 See `ColumnOperators.startswith()`.

class `sqlalchemy.sql.operators.ColumnOperators`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.sql.operators.Operators`

Defines comparison and math operations.

By default all methods call down to `Operators.operate()` or `Operators.reverse_operate()` passing in the appropriate operator function from the Python builtin operator module or a SQLAlchemy-specific operator function from `sqlalchemy.expression.operators`. For example the `__eq__` function:

```
def __eq__(self, other):
    return self.operate(operators.eq, other)
```

Where `operators.eq` is essentially:

```
def eq(a, b):
    return a == b
```

A SQLAlchemy construct like `ColumnElement` ultimately overrides `Operators.operate()` and others to return further `ClauseElement` constructs, so that the `==` operation above is replaced by a clause construct.

The docstrings here will describe column-oriented behavior of each operator. For ORM-based operators on related objects and collections, see `RelationshipProperty.Comparator`.

__eq__ (*other*)
 Implement the `==` operator.
 In a column context, produces the clause `a = b`. If the target is None, produces `a IS NULL`.

__ne__ (*other*)
 Implement the `!=` operator.
 In a column context, produces the clause `a != b`. If the target is None, produces `a IS NOT NULL`.

`__gt__` (*other*)

Implement the > operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a > b`.

`__ge__` (*other*)

Implement the >= operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a >= b`.

`__lt__` (*other*)

Implement the < operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a < b`.

`__le__` (*other*)

Implement the <= operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a <= b`.

`__neg__` ()

Implement the - operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `-a`.

`__add__` (*other*)

Implement the + operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a + b` if the parent object has non-string affinity. If the parent object has a string affinity, produces the concatenation operator, `a || b` - see `concat()`.

`__mul__` (*other*)

Implement the * operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a * b`.

`__div__` (*other*)

Implement the / operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a / b`.

`__truediv__` (*other*)

Implement the // operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a / b`.

`__sub__` (*other*)

Implement the - operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a - b`.

`__radd__` (*other*)

Implement the + operator in reverse.

See `__add__()`.

`__rsub__` (*other*)

Implement the - operator in reverse.

See `__sub__()`.

`__rtruediv__` (*other*)

Implement the // operator in reverse.

See `__truediv__()`.

`__rdiv__` (*other*)
 Implement the / operator in reverse.
 See `__div__()`.

`__rmul__` (*other*)
 Implement the * operator in reverse.
 See `__mul__()`.

`__mod__` (*other*)
 Implement the % operator.
 In a column context, produces the clause `a % b`.

`__eq__` (*other*)
 Implement the == operator.
 In a column context, produces the clause `a = b`. If the target is `None`, produces `a IS NULL`.

`__init__`
`x.__init__(...)` initializes x; see `x.__class__.__doc__` for signature

`__le__` (*other*)
 Implement the <= operator.
 In a column context, produces the clause `a <= b`.

`__lt__` (*other*)
 Implement the < operator.
 In a column context, produces the clause `a < b`.

`__ne__` (*other*)
 Implement the != operator.
 In a column context, produces the clause `a != b`. If the target is `None`, produces `a IS NOT NULL`.

`asc()`
 Produce a `asc()` clause against the parent object.

`between` (*cleft, cright*)
 Produce a `between()` clause against the parent object, given the lower and upper range.

`collate` (*collation*)
 Produce a `collate()` clause against the parent object, given the collation string.

`concat` (*other*)
 Implement the 'concat' operator.
 In a column context, produces the clause `a || b`, or uses the `concat()` operator on MySQL.

`contains` (*other, **kwargs*)
 Implement the 'contains' operator.
 In a column context, produces the clause `LIKE '%<other>%'`

`desc()`
 Produce a `desc()` clause against the parent object.

`distinct()`
 Produce a `distinct()` clause against the parent object.

`endswith` (*other, **kwargs*)
 Implement the 'endswith' operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `LIKE '%<other>'`

ilike (*other*, *escape=None*)

Implement the `ilike` operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a ILIKE other`.

in_ (*other*)

Implement the `in` operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a IN other`. “other” may be a tuple/list of column expressions, or a `select()` construct.

like (*other*, *escape=None*)

Implement the `like` operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `a LIKE other`.

match (*other*, ***kwargs*)

Implements the ‘match’ operator.

In a column context, this produces a `MATCH` clause, i.e. `MATCH '<other>'`. The allowed contents of `other` are database backend specific.

nullsfirst ()

Produce a `nullsfirst()` clause against the parent object.

nullslast ()

Produce a `nullslast()` clause against the parent object.

op (*opstring*)

produce a generic operator function.

e.g.:

```
somecolumn.op("*")(5)
```

produces:

```
somecolumn * 5
```

Parameters operator – a string which will be output as the infix operator between this `ClauseElement` and the expression passed to the generated function.

This function can also be used to make bitwise operators explicit. For example:

```
somecolumn.op('&')(0xff)
```

is a bitwise AND of the value in `somecolumn`.

operate (*op*, **other*, ***kwargs*)

Operate on an argument.

This is the lowest level of operation, raises `NotImplementedError` by default.

Overriding this on a subclass can allow common behavior to be applied to all operations. For example, overriding `ColumnOperators` to apply `func.lower()` to the left and right side:

```
class MyComparator(ColumnOperators):
    def operate(self, op, other):
        return op(func.lower(self), func.lower(other))
```

Parameters

- **op** – Operator callable.
- ***other** – the ‘other’ side of the operation. Will be a single scalar for most operations.
- ****kwargs** – modifiers. These may be passed by special operators such as `ColumnOperators.contains()`.

reverse_operate (*op, other, **kwargs*)

Reverse operate on an argument.

Usage is the same as `operate()`.

startswith (*other, **kwargs*)

Implement the `startswith` operator.

In a column context, produces the clause `LIKE '<other>%'`

timetuple

Hack, allows datetime objects to be compared on the LHS.

class `sqlalchemy.sql.expression.CompoundSelect` (*keyword, *selects, **kwargs*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.sql.expression._SelectBase`

Forms the basis of UNION, UNION ALL, and other SELECT-based set operations.

class `sqlalchemy.sql.expression.Delete` (*table, whereclause, bind=None, returning=None, **kwargs*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.sql.expression.UpdateBase`

Represent a DELETE construct.

The `Delete` object is created using the `delete()` function.

where (*whereclause*)

Add the given WHERE clause to a newly returned delete construct.

class `sqlalchemy.sql.expression.Executable`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.sql.expression._Generative`

Mark a ClauseElement as supporting execution.

`Executable` is a superclass for all “statement” types of objects, including `select()`, `delete()`, `update()`, `insert()`, `text()`.

bind

Returns the `Engine` or `Connection` to which this `Executable` is bound, or None if none found.

This is a traversal which checks locally, then checks among the “from” clauses of associated objects until a bound engine or connection is found.

execute (**multiparams, **params*)

Compile and execute this `Executable`.

execution_options (***kw*)

Set non-SQL options for the statement which take effect during execution.

Execution options can be set on a per-statement or per `Connection` basis. Additionally, the `Engine` and ORM `Query` objects provide access to execution options which they in turn configure upon connections.

The `execution_options()` method is generative. A new instance of this statement is returned that contains the options:

```
statement = select([table.c.x, table.c.y])
statement = statement.execution_options(autocommit=True)
```

Note that only a subset of possible execution options can be applied to a statement - these include “autocommit” and “stream_results”, but not “isolation_level” or “compiled_cache”. See `Connection.execution_options()` for a full list of possible options.

See also:

```
Connection.execution_options()
Query.execution_options()
```

scalar (*multiparams, **params)

Compile and execute this `Executable`, returning the result’s scalar representation.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**FunctionElement** (*clauses, **kwargs)
Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.Executable, sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ColumnElement, sqlalchemy.sql.expression.FromClause

Base for SQL function-oriented constructs.

__init__ (*clauses, **kwargs)

Construct a `FunctionElement`.

clauses

Return the underlying `ClauseList` which contains the arguments for this `FunctionElement`.

columns

Fulfill the ‘columns’ contract of `ColumnElement`.

Returns a single-element list consisting of this object.

execute ()

Execute this `FunctionElement` against an embedded ‘bind’.

This first calls `select()` to produce a SELECT construct.

Note that `FunctionElement` can be passed to the `Connectable.execute()` method of `Connection` or `Engine`.

over (partition_by=None, order_by=None)

Produce an OVER clause against this function.

Used against aggregate or so-called “window” functions, for database backends that support window functions.

The expression:

```
func.row_number().over(order_by='x')
```

is shorthand for:

```
from sqlalchemy import over
over(func.row_number(), order_by='x')
```

See `over()` for a full description.

New in 0.7.

scalar ()

Execute this `FunctionElement` against an embedded ‘bind’ and return a scalar value.

This first calls `select()` to produce a SELECT construct.

Note that `FunctionElement` can be passed to the `Connectable.scalar()` method of `Connection` or `Engine`.

select()

Produce a `select()` construct against this `FunctionElement`.

This is shorthand for:

```
s = select([function_element])
```

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**Function**(name, *clauses, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.FunctionElement

Describe a named SQL function.

See the superclass `FunctionElement` for a description of public methods.

__init__(name, *clauses, **kw)

Construct a `Function`.

The `func` construct is normally used to construct new `Function` instances.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**FromClause**

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.Selectable

Represent an element that can be used within the FROM clause of a SELECT statement.

alias(name=None)

return an alias of this `FromClause`.

This is shorthand for calling:

```
from sqlalchemy import alias
a = alias(self, name=name)
```

See `alias()` for details.

c

`attrgetter(attr, ...)` -> `attrgetter` object

Return a callable object that fetches the given attribute(s) from its operand. After, `f=attrgetter('name')`, the call `f(r)` returns `r.name`. After, `g=attrgetter('name', 'date')`, the call `g(r)` returns `(r.name, r.date)`. After, `h=attrgetter('name.first', 'name.last')`, the call `h(r)` returns `(r.name.first, r.name.last)`.

columns

Return the collection of `Column` objects contained by this `FromClause`.

correspond_on_equivalents(column, equivalents)

Return `corresponding_column` for the given column, or if None search for a match in the given dictionary.

corresponding_column(column, require_embedded=False)

Given a `ColumnElement`, return the exported `ColumnElement` object from this `Selectable` which corresponds to that original `Column` via a common ancestor column.

Parameters

- **column** – the target `ColumnElement` to be matched
- **require_embedded** – only return corresponding columns for

the given `ColumnElement`, if the given `ColumnElement` is actually present within a sub-element of this `FromClause`. Normally the column will match if it merely shares a common ancestor with one of the exported columns of this `FromClause`.

count (*whereclause=None*, ***params*)

return a SELECT COUNT generated against this `FromClause`.

description

a brief description of this `FromClause`.

Used primarily for error message formatting.

foreign_keys

Return the collection of `ForeignKey` objects which this `FromClause` references.

is_derived_from (*fromclause*)

Return True if this `FromClause` is 'derived' from the given `FromClause`.

An example would be an `Alias` of a `Table` is derived from that `Table`.

join (*right*, *onclause=None*, *isouter=False*)

return a join of this `FromClause` against another `FromClause`.

outerjoin (*right*, *onclause=None*)

return an outer join of this `FromClause` against another `FromClause`.

primary_key

Return the collection of `Column` objects which comprise the primary key of this `FromClause`.

replace_selectable (*old*, *alias*)

replace all occurrences of `FromClause` 'old' with the given `Alias` object, returning a copy of this `FromClause`.

select (*whereclause=None*, ***params*)

return a SELECT of this `FromClause`.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**Insert** (*table*, *values=None*, *inline=False*, *bind=None*, *prefixes=None*, *returning=None*, ***kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ValuesBase

Represent an INSERT construct.

The `Insert` object is created using the `insert()` function.

prefix_with (*clause*)

Add a word or expression between INSERT and INTO. Generative.

If multiple prefixes are supplied, they will be separated with spaces.

values (**args*, ***kwargs*)

specify the VALUES clause for an INSERT statement, or the SET clause for an UPDATE.

****kwargs** key=<somevalue> arguments

***args** A single dictionary can be sent as the first positional argument. This allows non-string based keys, such as `Column` objects, to be used.

returning (**cols*)

Add a RETURNING or equivalent clause to this statement.

The given list of columns represent columns within the table that is the target of the INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE. Each element can be any column expression. `Table` objects will be expanded into their individual columns.

Upon compilation, a RETURNING clause, or database equivalent, will be rendered within the statement. For INSERT and UPDATE, the values are the newly inserted/updated values. For DELETE, the values are those of the rows which were deleted.

Upon execution, the values of the columns to be returned are made available via the result set and can be iterated using `fetchone()` and similar. For DBAPIs which do not natively support returning values (i.e. `cx_oracle`), SQLAlchemy will approximate this behavior at the result level so that a reasonable amount of behavioral neutrality is provided.

Note that not all databases/DBAPIs support RETURNING. For those backends with no support, an exception is raised upon compilation and/or execution. For those who do support it, the functionality across backends varies greatly, including restrictions on `executemany()` and other statements which return multiple rows. Please read the documentation notes for the database in use in order to determine the availability of RETURNING.

class `sqlalchemy.sql.expression.Join` (*left, right, onclause=None, isouter=False*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.sql.expression.FromClause`

represent a JOIN construct between two `FromClause` elements.

The public constructor function for `Join` is the module-level `join()` function, as well as the `join()` method available off all `FromClause` subclasses.

__init__ (*left, right, onclause=None, isouter=False*)

Construct a new `Join`.

The usual entrypoint here is the `join()` function or the `FromClause.join()` method of any `FromClause` object.

alias (*name=None*)

return an alias of this `Join`.

Used against a `Join` object, `alias()` calls the `select()` method first so that a subquery against a `select()` construct is generated. the `select()` construct also has the `correlate` flag set to `False` and will not auto-correlate inside an enclosing `select()` construct.

The equivalent long-hand form, given a `Join` object `j`, is:

```
from sqlalchemy import select, alias
j = alias(
    select([j.left, j.right]).\
        select_from(j).\
        with_labels(True).\
        correlate(False),
    name=name
)
```

See `alias()` for further details on aliases.

select (*whereclause=None, fold_equivalents=False, **kwargs*)

Create a `Select` from this `Join`.

The equivalent long-hand form, given a `Join` object `j`, is:

```
from sqlalchemy import select
j = select([j.left, j.right], **kw).\
    where(whereclause).\
    select_from(j)
```

Parameters

- **whereclause** – the WHERE criterion that will be sent to the `select()` function
- **fold_equivalents** – based on the join criterion of this `Join`, do not include repeat column names in the column list of the resulting select, for columns that are calculated to be “equivalent” based on the join criterion of this `Join`. This will recursively apply to any joins directly nested by this one as well.
- ****kwargs** – all other kwargs are sent to the underlying `select()` function.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**Operators**

Base of comparison and logical operators.

Implements base methods `operate()` and `reverse_operate()`, as well as `__and__()`, `__or__()`, `__invert__()`.

Usually is used via its most common subclass `ColumnOperators`.

__and__ (*other*)

Implement the & operator.

When used with SQL expressions, results in an AND operation, equivalent to `and_()`, that is:

`a & b`

is equivalent to:

```
from sqlalchemy import and_  
and_(a, b)
```

Care should be taken when using & regarding operator precedence; the & operator has the highest precedence. The operands should be enclosed in parenthesis if they contain further sub expressions:

```
(a == 2) & (b == 4)
```

__or__ (*other*)

Implement the | operator.

When used with SQL expressions, results in an OR operation, equivalent to `or_()`, that is:

`a | b`

is equivalent to:

```
from sqlalchemy import or_  
or_(a, b)
```

Care should be taken when using | regarding operator precedence; the | operator has the highest precedence. The operands should be enclosed in parenthesis if they contain further sub expressions:

```
(a == 2) | (b == 4)
```

__invert__ ()

Implement the ~ operator.

When used with SQL expressions, results in a NOT operation, equivalent to `not_()`, that is:

`~a`

is equivalent to:

```
from sqlalchemy import not_
not_(a)
```

op (*opstring*)
produce a generic operator function.

e.g.:

```
somecolumn.op("")(5)
```

produces:

```
somecolumn * 5
```

Parameters operator – a string which will be output as the infix operator between this `ClauseElement` and the expression passed to the generated function.

This function can also be used to make bitwise operators explicit. For example:

```
somecolumn.op('&')(0xff)
```

is a bitwise AND of the value in `somecolumn`.

operate (*op*, **other*, ***kwargs*)
Operate on an argument.

This is the lowest level of operation, raises `NotImplementedError` by default.

Overriding this on a subclass can allow common behavior to be applied to all operations. For example, overriding `ColumnOperators` to apply `func.lower()` to the left and right side:

```
class MyComparator(ColumnOperators):
    def operate(self, op, other):
        return op(func.lower(self), func.lower(other))
```

Parameters

- **op** – Operator callable.
- ***other** – the ‘other’ side of the operation. Will be a single scalar for most operations.
- ****kwargs** – modifiers. These may be passed by special operators such as `ColumnOperators.contains()`.

reverse_operate (*op*, *other*, ***kwargs*)
Reverse operate on an argument.

Usage is the same as `operate()`.

```
class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.Select(columns, whereclause=None, from_obj=None, distinct=False, having=None, correlate=True, prefixes=None, **kwargs)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.sql.expression._SelectBase`

Represents a SELECT statement.

Select statements support appendable clauses, as well as the ability to execute themselves and return a result set.

__init__ (*columns*, *whereclause=None*, *from_obj=None*, *distinct=False*, *having=None*, *correlate=True*, *prefixes=None*, ***kwargs*)
Construct a Select object.

The public constructor for Select is the `select()` function; see that function for argument descriptions.

Additional generative and mutator methods are available on the `_SelectBase` superclass.

append_column (*column*)
append the given column expression to the columns clause of this select() construct.

append_correlation (*fromclause*)
append the given correlation expression to this select() construct.

append_from (*fromclause*)
append the given FromClause expression to this select() construct's FROM clause.

append_having (*having*)
append the given expression to this select() construct's HAVING criterion.
The expression will be joined to existing HAVING criterion via AND.

append_prefix (*clause*)
append the given columns clause prefix expression to this select() construct.

append_whereclause (*whereclause*)
append the given expression to this select() construct's WHERE criterion.
The expression will be joined to existing WHERE criterion via AND.

column (*column*)
return a new select() construct with the given column expression added to its columns clause.

correlate (**fromclauses*)
return a new select() construct which will correlate the given FROM clauses to that of an enclosing select(), if a match is found.

By “match”, the given fromclause must be present in this select's list of FROM objects and also present in an enclosing select's list of FROM objects.

Calling this method turns off the select's default behavior of “auto-correlation”. Normally, select() auto-correlates all of its FROM clauses to those of an embedded select when compiled.

If the fromclause is None, correlation is disabled for the returned select().

distinct (**expr*)
Return a new select() construct which will apply DISTINCT to its columns clause.

Parameters **expr* – optional column expressions. When present, the Postgresql dialect will render a `DISTINCT ON (<expressions>>)` construct.

except_ (*other*, ***kwargs*)
return a SQL EXCEPT of this select() construct against the given selectable.

except_all (*other*, ***kwargs*)
return a SQL EXCEPT ALL of this select() construct against the given selectable.

froms
Return the displayed list of FromClause elements.

get_children (*column_collections=True*, ***kwargs*)
return child elements as per the ClauseElement specification.

having (*having*)

return a new select() construct with the given expression added to its HAVING clause, joined to the existing clause via AND, if any.

inner_columns

an iterator of all ColumnElement expressions which would be rendered into the columns clause of the resulting SELECT statement.

intersect (*other*, ***kwargs*)

return a SQL INTERSECT of this select() construct against the given selectable.

intersect_all (*other*, ***kwargs*)

return a SQL INTERSECT ALL of this select() construct against the given selectable.

locate_all_froms

return a Set of all FromClause elements referenced by this Select.

This set is a superset of that returned by the `froms` property, which is specifically for those FromClause elements that would actually be rendered.

prefix_with (**expr*)

return a new select() construct which will apply the given expressions, typically strings, to the start of its columns clause, not using any commas. In particular is useful for MySQL keywords.

e.g.:

```
select(['a', 'b']).prefix_with('HIGH_PRIORITY',
                              'SQL_SMALL_RESULT',
                              'ALL')
```

Would render:

```
SELECT HIGH_PRIORITY SQL_SMALL_RESULT ALL a, b
```

select_from (*fromclause*)

return a new select() construct with the given FROM expression applied to its list of FROM objects.

self_group (*against=None*)

return a 'grouping' construct as per the ClauseElement specification.

This produces an element that can be embedded in an expression. Note

that this method is called automatically as needed when constructing expressions.

union (*other*, ***kwargs*)

return a SQL UNION of this select() construct against the given selectable.

union_all (*other*, ***kwargs*)

return a SQL UNION ALL of this select() construct against the given selectable.

where (*whereclause*)

return a new select() construct with the given expression added to its WHERE clause, joined to the existing clause via AND, if any.

with_hint (*selectable*, *text*, *dialect_name='**)

Add an indexing hint for the given selectable to this `Select`.

The text of the hint is rendered in the appropriate location for the database backend in use, relative to the given `Table` or `Alias` passed as the *selectable* argument. The dialect implementation typically uses Python string substitution syntax with the token `%(name)s` to render the name of the table or alias. E.g. when using Oracle, the following:

```
select ([mytable]).\
    with_hint(mytable, "+ index(%(name)s ix_mytable)")
```

Would render SQL as:

```
select /*+ index(mytable ix_mytable) */ ... from mytable
```

The `dialect_name` option will limit the rendering of a particular hint to a particular backend. Such as, to add hints for both Oracle and Sybase simultaneously:

```
select ([mytable]).\
    with_hint(mytable, "+ index(%(name)s ix_mytable)", 'oracle').\
    with_hint(mytable, "WITH INDEX ix_mytable", 'sybase')
```

with_only_columns (*columns*)

return a new select() construct with its columns clause replaced with the given columns.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**Selectable**

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ClauseElement

mark a class as being selectable

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression._**SelectBase** (*use_labels=False*, *for_update=False*,
limit=None, *offset=None*, *order_by=None*,
group_by=None, *bind=None*, *autocommit=None*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.Executable, sqlalchemy.sql.expression.FromClause

Base class for `Select` and `CompoundSelects`.

append_group_by (**clauses*)

Append the given GROUP BY criterion applied to this selectable.

The criterion will be appended to any pre-existing GROUP BY criterion.

append_order_by (**clauses*)

Append the given ORDER BY criterion applied to this selectable.

The criterion will be appended to any pre-existing ORDER BY criterion.

apply_labels ()

return a new selectable with the 'use_labels' flag set to True.

This will result in column expressions being generated using labels against their table name, such as "SELECT somecolumn AS tablename_somecolumn". This allows selectables which contain multiple FROM clauses to produce a unique set of column names regardless of name conflicts among the individual FROM clauses.

as_scalar ()

return a 'scalar' representation of this selectable, which can be used as a column expression.

Typically, a select statement which has only one column in its columns clause is eligible to be used as a scalar expression.

The returned object is an instance of `_ScalarSelect`.

autocommit ()

return a new selectable with the 'autocommit' flag set to `Deprecated` since version 0.6: `autocommit()` is deprecated. Use `Executable.execution_options()` with the 'autocommit' flag. `True`.

group_by (**clauses*)

return a new selectable with the given list of GROUP BY criterion applied.

The criterion will be appended to any pre-existing GROUP BY criterion.

label (*name*)

return a ‘scalar’ representation of this selectable, embedded as a subquery with a label.

See also `as_scalar()`.

limit (*limit*)

return a new selectable with the given LIMIT criterion applied.

offset (*offset*)

return a new selectable with the given OFFSET criterion applied.

order_by (**clauses*)

return a new selectable with the given list of ORDER BY criterion applied.

The criterion will be appended to any pre-existing ORDER BY criterion.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**TableClause** (*name*, **columns*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression._Immutable, sqlalchemy.sql.expression.FromClause

Represents a minimal “table” construct.

The constructor for `TableClause` is the `table()` function. This produces a lightweight table object that has only a name and a collection of columns, which are typically produced by the `column()` function:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import table, column

user = table("user",
             column("id"),
             column("name"),
             column("description"),
            )
```

The `TableClause` construct serves as the base for the more commonly used `Table` object, providing the usual set of `FromClause` services including the `.c.` collection and statement generation methods.

It does **not** provide all the additional schema-level services of `Table`, including constraints, references to other tables, or support for `MetaData`-level services. It’s useful on its own as an ad-hoc construct used to generate quick SQL statements when a more fully fledged `Table` is not on hand.

count (*whereclause*=None, ***params*)

return a SELECT COUNT generated against this `TableClause`.

delete (*whereclause*=None, ***kwargs*)

Generate a `delete()` construct.

insert (*values*=None, *inline*=False, ***kwargs*)

Generate an `insert()` construct.

update (*whereclause*=None, *values*=None, *inline*=False, ***kwargs*)

Generate an `update()` construct.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**Update** (*table*, *whereclause*, *values*=None, *inline*=False, *bind*=None, *returning*=None, ***kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ValuesBase

Represent an Update construct.

The `Update` object is created using the `update()` function.

where (*whereclause*)

return a new update() construct with the given expression added to its WHERE clause, joined to the existing clause via AND, if any.

values (**args*, ***kwargs*)

specify the VALUES clause for an INSERT statement, or the SET clause for an UPDATE.

****kwargs** key=<somevalue> arguments

***args** A single dictionary can be sent as the first positional argument. This allows non-string based keys, such as Column objects, to be used.

class sqlalchemy.sql.expression.**ValuesBase** (*table*, *values*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.UpdateBase

Supplies support for **ValuesBase.values()** to INSERT and UPDATE constructs.

values (**args*, ***kwargs*)

specify the VALUES clause for an INSERT statement, or the SET clause for an UPDATE.

****kwargs** key=<somevalue> arguments

***args** A single dictionary can be sent as the first positional argument. This allows non-string based keys, such as Column objects, to be used.

3.2.3 Generic Functions

SQL functions which are known to SQLAlchemy with regards to database-specific rendering, return types and argument behavior. Generic functions are invoked like all SQL functions, using the **func** attribute:

```
select ([func.count()]).select_from(sometable)
```

Note that any name not known to **func** generates the function name as is - there is no restriction on what SQL functions can be called, known or unknown to SQLAlchemy, built-in or user defined. The section here only describes those functions where SQLAlchemy already knows what argument and return types are in use.

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.**AnsiFunction** (***kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.GenericFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.**GenericFunction** (*type_=None*, *args=()*, ***kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.Function

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.**ReturnTypeFromArgs** (**args*, ***kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.GenericFunction

Define a function whose return type is the same as its arguments.

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.**char_length** (*arg*, ***kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.GenericFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.**coalesce** (**args*, ***kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.ReturnTypeFromArgs

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.**concat** (**args*, ***kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.GenericFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.**count** (*expression=None*, ***kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.GenericFunction

The ANSI COUNT aggregate function. With no arguments, emits COUNT *.

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.**current_date** (***kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.AnsiFunction

```

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.current_time(**kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.AnsiFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.current_timestamp(**kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.AnsiFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.current_user(**kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.AnsiFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.localtime(**kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.AnsiFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.localtimestamp(**kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.AnsiFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.max(*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.ReturnTypeFromArgs

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.min(*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.ReturnTypeFromArgs

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.next_value(seq, **kw)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.Function

    Represent the ‘next value’, given a Sequence as it’s single argument.

    Compiles into the appropriate function on each backend, or will raise NotImplementedError if used on a backend
    that does not provide support for sequences.

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.now(type_=None, args=(), **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.GenericFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.random(*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.GenericFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.session_user(**kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.AnsiFunction

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.sum(*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.ReturnTypeFromArgs

class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.sysdate(**kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.AnsiFunction

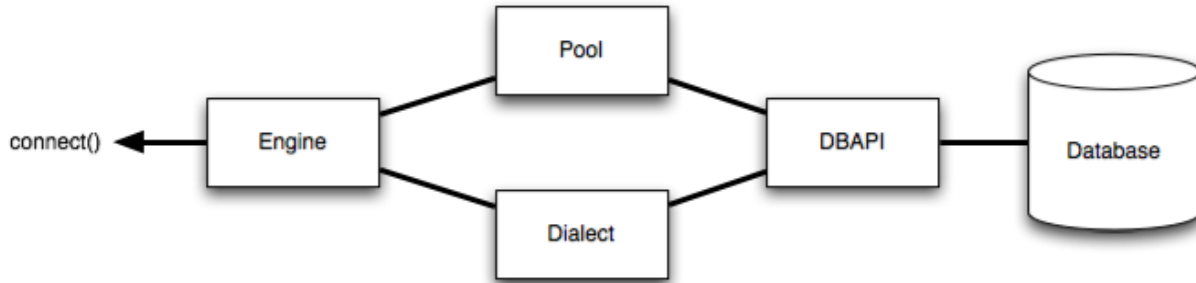
class sqlalchemy.sql.functions.user(**kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.functions.AnsiFunction

```

3.3 Engine Configuration

The **Engine** is the starting point for any SQLAlchemy application. It’s “home base” for the actual database and its DBAPI, delivered to the SQLAlchemy application through a connection pool and a **Dialect**, which describes how to talk to a specific kind of database/DBAPI combination.

The general structure can be illustrated as follows:



Where above, an `Engine` references both a `Dialect` and a `Pool`, which together interpret the DBAPI's module functions as well as the behavior of the database.

Creating an engine is just a matter of issuing a single call, `create_engine()`:

```
from sqlalchemy import create_engine
engine = create_engine('postgresql://scott:tiger@localhost:5432/mydatabase')
```

The above engine creates a `Dialect` object tailored towards PostgreSQL, as well as a `Pool` object which will establish a DBAPI connection at `localhost:5432` when a connection request is first received. Note that the `Engine` and its underlying `Pool` do **not** establish the first actual DBAPI connection until the `Engine.connect()` method is called, or an operation which is dependent on this method such as `Engine.execute()` is invoked. In this way, `Engine` and `Pool` can be said to have a *lazy initialization* behavior.

The `Engine`, once created, can either be used directly to interact with the database, or can be passed to a `Session` object to work with the ORM. This section covers the details of configuring an `Engine`. The next section, *Working with Engines and Connections*, will detail the usage API of the `Engine` and similar, typically for non-ORM applications.

3.3.1 Supported Databases

SQLAlchemy includes many `Dialect` implementations for various backends; each is described as its own package in the `sqlalchemy.dialects_toplevel` package. A SQLAlchemy dialect always requires that an appropriate DBAPI driver is installed.

The table below summarizes the state of DBAPI support in SQLAlchemy 0.7. The values translate as:

- yes / Python platform - The SQLAlchemy dialect is mostly or fully operational on the target platform.
- yes / OS platform - The DBAPI supports that platform.
- no / Python platform - The DBAPI does not support that platform, or there is no SQLAlchemy dialect support.
- no / OS platform - The DBAPI does not support that platform.
- partial - the DBAPI is partially usable on the target platform but has major unresolved issues.
- development - a development version of the dialect exists, but is not yet usable.
- thirdparty - the dialect itself is maintained by a third party, who should be consulted for information on current support.
- * - indicates the given DBAPI is the “default” for SQLAlchemy, i.e. when just the database name is specified

Driver	Connect string	Py2K	Py3K	Jython	Unix
Continued					

Table 3.1 – continued from previous page

DB2/Informix IDS					
ibm-db	thirdparty	thirdparty	thirdparty	thirdparty	thirdparty
Drizzle					
mysql-python	drizzle+mysqldb*	yes	development	no	yes
Firebird / Interbase					
kinterbasdb	firebird+kinterbasdb*	yes	development	no	yes
Informix					
informixdb	informix+informixdb*	yes	development	no	unknown
MaxDB					
sapdb	maxdb+sapdb*	development	development	no	yes
Microsoft Access					
pyodbc	access+pyodbc*	development	development	no	unknown
Microsoft SQL Server					
adodbapi	mssql+adodbapi	development	development	no	no
jTDS JDBC Driver	mssql+zxjdbc	no	no	development	yes
mxodbc	mssql+mxodbc	yes	development	no	yes with FreeTDS
pyodbc	mssql+pyodbc*	yes	development	no	yes with FreeTDS
pymssql	mssql+pymssql	yes	development	no	yes
MySQL					
MySQL Connector/J	mysql+zxjdbc	no	no	yes	yes
MySQL Connector/Python	mysql+mysqlconnector	yes	yes	no	yes
mysql-python	mysql+mysqldb*	yes	development	no	yes
OurSQL	mysql+oursql	yes	yes	no	yes
pymysql	mysql+pymysql	yes	development	no	yes
Oracle					
cx_oracle	oracle+cx_oracle*	yes	development	no	yes
Oracle JDBC Driver	oracle+zxjdbc	no	no	yes	yes
Postgresql					
pg8000	postgresql+pg8000	yes	yes	no	yes
PostgreSQL JDBC Driver	postgresql+zxjdbc	no	no	yes	yes
psycopg2	postgresql+psycopg2*	yes	yes	no	yes
pypostgresql	postgresql+pypostgresql	no	yes	no	yes
SQLite					
pysqlite	sqlite+pysqlite*	yes	yes	no	yes
sqlite3	sqlite+pysqlite*	yes	yes	no	yes
Sybase ASE					
mxodbc	sybase+mxodbc	development	development	no	yes
pyodbc	sybase+pyodbc*	partial	development	no	unknown
python-sybase	sybase+pysybase	yes ¹	development	no	yes

Further detail on dialects is available at [Dialects](#).

3.3.2 Engine Creation API

Keyword options can also be specified to `create_engine()`, following the string URL as follows:

```
db = create_engine('postgresql://...', encoding='latin1', echo=True)
```

```
sqlalchemy.create_engine(*args, **kwargs)
```

Create a new [Engine](#) instance.

¹ The Sybase dialect currently lacks the ability to reflect tables.

The standard calling form is to send the URL as the first positional argument, usually a string that indicates database dialect and connection arguments. Additional keyword arguments may then follow it which establish various options on the resulting `Engine` and its underlying `Dialect` and `Pool` constructs.

The string form of the URL is `dialect+driver://user:password@host/dbname[?key=value...]`, where `dialect` is a database name such as `mysql`, `oracle`, `postgresql`, etc., and `driver` the name of a DBAPI, such as `psycopg2`, `pyodbc`, `cx_oracle`, etc. Alternatively, the URL can be an instance of `URL`.

`**kwargs` takes a wide variety of options which are routed towards their appropriate components. Arguments may be specific to the `Engine`, the underlying `Dialect`, as well as the `Pool`. Specific dialects also accept keyword arguments that are unique to that dialect. Here, we describe the parameters that are common to most `create_engine()` usage.

Once established, the newly resulting `Engine` will request a connection from the underlying `Pool` once `Engine.connect()` is called, or a method which depends on it such as `Engine.execute()` is invoked. The `Pool` in turn will establish the first actual DBAPI connection when this request is received. The `create_engine()` call itself does **not** establish any actual DBAPI connections directly.

Parameters

- **assert_unicode** – Deprecated. A warning is raised in all cases when a non-Unicode object is passed when SQLAlchemy would coerce into an encoding (note: but **not** when the DBAPI handles unicode objects natively). To suppress or raise this warning to an error, use the Python warnings filter documented at: <http://docs.python.org/library/warnings.html>
- **connect_args** – a dictionary of options which will be passed directly to the DBAPI's `connect()` method as additional keyword arguments.
- **convert_unicode=False** – if set to True, all String/character based types will convert Python Unicode values to raw byte values sent to the DBAPI as bind parameters, and all raw byte values to Python Unicode coming out in result sets. This is an engine-wide method to provide Unicode conversion across the board for those DBAPIs that do not accept Python Unicode objects as input. For Unicode conversion on a column-by-column level, use the `Unicode` column type instead, described in *Column and Data Types*. Note that many DBAPIs have the ability to return Python Unicode objects in result sets directly - SQLAlchemy will use these modes of operation if possible and will also attempt to detect “Unicode returns” behavior by the DBAPI upon first connect by the `Engine`. When this is detected, string values in result sets are passed through without further processing.
- **creator** – a callable which returns a DBAPI connection. This creation function will be passed to the underlying connection pool and will be used to create all new database connections. Usage of this function causes connection parameters specified in the URL argument to be bypassed.
- **echo=False** – if True, the Engine will log all statements as well as a `repr()` of their parameter lists to the engines logger, which defaults to `sys.stdout`. The `echo` attribute of `Engine` can be modified at any time to turn logging on and off. If set to the string `"debug"`, result rows will be printed to the standard output as well. This flag ultimately controls a Python logger; see *Configuring Logging* for information on how to configure logging directly.
- **echo_pool=False** – if True, the connection pool will log all checkouts/checkins to the logging stream, which defaults to `sys.stdout`. This flag ultimately controls a Python logger; see *Configuring Logging* for information on how to configure logging directly.
- **encoding='utf-8'** – the encoding to use for all Unicode translations, both by engine-wide unicode conversion as well as the `Unicode` type object.
- **execution_options** – Dictionary execution options which will be applied to all connections. See `execution_options()`

- **implicit_returning=True** – When `True`, a RETURNING- compatible construct, if available, will be used to fetch newly generated primary key values when a single row INSERT statement is emitted with no existing returning() clause. This applies to those backends which support RETURNING or a compatible construct, including PostgreSQL, Firebird, Oracle, Microsoft SQL Server. Set this to `False` to disable the automatic usage of RETURNING.
- **label_length=None** – optional integer value which limits the size of dynamically generated column labels to that many characters. If less than 6, labels are generated as “_(counter)”. If `None`, the value of `dialect.max_identifier_length` is used instead.
- **listeners** – A list of one or more `PoolListener` objects which will receive connection pool events.
- **logging_name** – String identifier which will be used within the “name” field of logging records generated within the “sqlalchemy.engine” logger. Defaults to a hexstring of the object’s id.
- **max_overflow=10** – the number of connections to allow in connection pool “overflow”, that is connections that can be opened above and beyond the `pool_size` setting, which defaults to five. this is only used with `QueuePool`.
- **module=None** – reference to a Python module object (the module itself, not its string name). Specifies an alternate DBAPI module to be used by the engine’s dialect. Each sub-dialect references a specific DBAPI which will be imported before first connect. This parameter causes the import to be bypassed, and the given module to be used instead. Can be used for testing of DBAPIs as well as to inject “mock” DBAPI implementations into the `Engine`.
- **pool=None** – an already-constructed instance of `Pool`, such as a `QueuePool` instance. If non-`None`, this pool will be used directly as the underlying connection pool for the engine, bypassing whatever connection parameters are present in the URL argument. For information on constructing connection pools manually, see [Connection Pooling](#).
- **poolclass=None** – a `Pool` subclass, which will be used to create a connection pool instance using the connection parameters given in the URL. Note this differs from `pool` in that you don’t actually instantiate the pool in this case, you just indicate what type of pool to be used.
- **pool_logging_name** – String identifier which will be used within the “name” field of logging records generated within the “sqlalchemy.pool” logger. Defaults to a hexstring of the object’s id.
- **pool_size=5** – the number of connections to keep open inside the connection pool. This used with `QueuePool` as well as `SingletonThreadPool`. With `QueuePool`, a `pool_size` setting of 0 indicates no limit; to disable pooling, set `poolclass` to `NullPool` instead.
- **pool_recycle=-1** – this setting causes the pool to recycle connections after the given number of seconds has passed. It defaults to -1, or no timeout. For example, setting to 3600 means connections will be recycled after one hour. Note that MySQL in particular will disconnect automatically if no activity is detected on a connection for eight hours (although this is configurable with the MySQLDB connection itself and the server configuration as well).
- **pool_timeout=30** – number of seconds to wait before giving up on getting a connection from the pool. This is only used with `QueuePool`.
- **strategy='plain'** – selects alternate engine implementations. Currently available is the `threadlocal` strategy, which is described in [Using the Threadlocal Execution Strategy](#).

`sqlalchemy.engine_from_config(configuration, prefix='sqlalchemy.', **kwargs)`
 Create a new Engine instance using a configuration dictionary.

The dictionary is typically produced from a config file where keys are prefixed, such as `sqlalchemy.url`, `sqlalchemy.echo`, etc. The `'prefix'` argument indicates the prefix to be searched for.

A select set of keyword arguments will be “coerced” to their expected type based on string values. In a future release, this functionality will be expanded and include dialect-specific arguments.

3.3.3 Database Urls

SQLAlchemy indicates the source of an Engine strictly via [RFC-1738](#) style URLs, combined with optional keyword arguments to specify options for the Engine. The form of the URL is:

```
dialect+driver://username:password@host:port/database
```

Dialect names include the identifying name of the SQLAlchemy dialect which include `sqlite`, `mysql`, `postgresql`, `oracle`, `mssql`, and `firebird`. The `drivername` is the name of the DBAPI to be used to connect to the database using all lowercase letters. If not specified, a “default” DBAPI will be imported if available - this default is typically the most widely known driver available for that backend (i.e. `cx_oracle`, `pysqlite/sqlite3`, `psycopg2`, `mysqldb`). For Jython connections, specify the `zxjdbc` driver, which is the JDBC-DBAPI bridge included with Jython.

```
# postgresql - psycopg2 is the default driver.
pg_db = create_engine('postgresql://scott:tiger@localhost/mydatabase')
pg_db = create_engine('postgresql+psycopg2://scott:tiger@localhost/mydatabase')
pg_db = create_engine('postgresql+pg8000://scott:tiger@localhost/mydatabase')
pg_db = create_engine('postgresql+pypostgresql://scott:tiger@localhost/mydatabase')
```

```
# postgresql on Jython
pg_db = create_engine('postgresql+zxjdbc://scott:tiger@localhost/mydatabase')
```

```
# mysql - MySQLdb (mysql-python) is the default driver
mysql_db = create_engine('mysql://scott:tiger@localhost/foo')
mysql_db = create_engine('mysql+mysqldb://scott:tiger@localhost/foo')
```

```
# mysql on Jython
mysql_db = create_engine('mysql+zxjdbc://localhost/foo')
```

```
# mysql with pyodbc (buggy)
mysql_db = create_engine('mysql+pyodbc://scott:tiger@some_dsn')
```

```
# oracle - cx_oracle is the default driver
oracle_db = create_engine('oracle://scott:tiger@127.0.0.1:1521/sidname')
```

```
# oracle via TNS name
oracle_db = create_engine('oracle+cx_oracle://scott:tiger@tnsname')
```

```
# mssql using ODBC datasource names. PyODBC is the default driver.
mssql_db = create_engine('mssql://mydsn')
mssql_db = create_engine('mssql+pyodbc://mydsn')
mssql_db = create_engine('mssql+adodbapi://mydsn')
mssql_db = create_engine('mssql+pyodbc://username:password@mydsn')
```

SQLite connects to file based databases. The same URL format is used, omitting the hostname, and using the “file” portion as the filename of the database. This has the effect of four slashes being present for an absolute file path:

```
# sqlite://<nohostname>/<path>
# where <path> is relative:
sqlite_db = create_engine('sqlite:///foo.db')
```

```
# or absolute, starting with a slash:
sqlite_db = create_engine('sqlite:///absolute/path/to/foo.db')
```

To use a SQLite `:memory:` database, specify an empty URL:

```
sqlite_memory_db = create_engine('sqlite://')
```

The `Engine` will ask the connection pool for a connection when the `connect()` or `execute()` methods are called. The default connection pool, `QueuePool`, will open connections to the database on an as-needed basis. As concurrent statements are executed, `QueuePool` will grow its pool of connections to a default size of five, and will allow a default “overflow” of ten. Since the `Engine` is essentially “home base” for the connection pool, it follows that you should keep a single `Engine` per database established within an application, rather than creating a new one for each connection.

Note: `QueuePool` is not used by default for SQLite engines. See [SQLite](#) for details on SQLite connection pool usage.

```
class sqlalchemy.engine.url.URL(drivername, username=None, password=None, host=None,
                                port=None, database=None, query=None)
```

Represent the components of a URL used to connect to a database.

This object is suitable to be passed directly to a `create_engine()` call. The fields of the URL are parsed from a string by the module-level `make_url()` function. the string format of the URL is an RFC-1738-style string.

All initialization parameters are available as public attributes.

Parameters

- **drivername** – the name of the database backend. This name will correspond to a module in `sqlalchemy/databases` or a third party plug-in.
- **username** – The user name.
- **password** – database password.
- **host** – The name of the host.
- **port** – The port number.
- **database** – The database name.
- **query** – A dictionary of options to be passed to the dialect and/or the DBAPI upon connect.

```
get_dialect()
```

Return the SQLAlchemy database dialect class corresponding to this URL’s driver name.

```
translate_connect_args(names=[], **kw)
```

Translate url attributes into a dictionary of connection arguments.

Returns attributes of this url (`host`, `database`, `username`, `password`, `port`) as a plain dictionary. The attribute names are used as the keys by default. Unset or false attributes are omitted from the final dictionary.

Parameters

- ****kw** – Optional, alternate key names for url attributes.
- **names** – Deprecated. Same purpose as the keyword-based alternate names, but correlates the name to the original positionally.

3.3.4 Custom DBAPI connect() arguments

Custom arguments used when issuing the `connect()` call to the underlying DBAPI may be issued in three distinct ways. String-based arguments can be passed directly from the URL string as query arguments:

```
db = create_engine('postgresql://scott:tiger@localhost/test?argument1=foo&argument2=bar')
```

If SQLAlchemy's database connector is aware of a particular query argument, it may convert its type from string to its proper type.

`create_engine()` also takes an argument `connect_args` which is an additional dictionary that will be passed to `connect()`. This can be used when arguments of a type other than string are required, and SQLAlchemy's database connector has no type conversion logic present for that parameter:

```
db = create_engine('postgresql://scott:tiger@localhost/test', connect_args = {'argument1':
```

The most customizable connection method of all is to pass a `creator` argument, which specifies a callable that returns a DBAPI connection:

```
def connect():
    return psycopg.connect(user='scott', host='localhost')
```

```
db = create_engine('postgresql://', creator=connect)
```

3.3.5 Configuring Logging

Python's standard `logging` module is used to implement informational and debug log output with SQLAlchemy. This allows SQLAlchemy's logging to integrate in a standard way with other applications and libraries. The `echo` and `echo_pool` flags that are present on `create_engine()`, as well as the `echo_uow` flag used on `Session`, all interact with regular loggers.

This section assumes familiarity with the above linked logging module. All logging performed by SQLAlchemy exists underneath the `sqlalchemy` namespace, as used by `logging.getLogger('sqlalchemy')`. When logging has been configured (i.e. such as via `logging.basicConfig()`), the general namespace of SA loggers that can be turned on is as follows:

- `sqlalchemy.engine` - controls SQL echoing. set to `logging.INFO` for SQL query output, `logging.DEBUG` for query + result set output.
- `sqlalchemy.dialects` - controls custom logging for SQL dialects. See the documentation of individual dialects for details.
- `sqlalchemy.pool` - controls connection pool logging. set to `logging.INFO` or lower to log connection pool checkouts/checkins.
- `sqlalchemy.orm` - controls logging of various ORM functions. set to `logging.INFO` for information on mapper configurations.

For example, to log SQL queries using Python logging instead of the `echo=True` flag:

```
import logging
```

```
logging.basicConfig()
logging.getLogger('sqlalchemy.engine').setLevel(logging.INFO)
```

By default, the log level is set to `logging.WARN` within the entire `sqlalchemy` namespace so that no log operations occur, even within an application that has logging enabled otherwise.

The `echo` flags present as keyword arguments to `create_engine()` and others as well as the `echo` property on `Engine`, when set to `True`, will first attempt to ensure that logging is enabled. Unfortunately, the logging

module provides no way of determining if output has already been configured (note we are referring to if a logging configuration has been set up, not just that the logging level is set). For this reason, any `echo=True` flags will result in a call to `logging.basicConfig()` using `sys.stdout` as the destination. It also sets up a default format using the level name, timestamp, and logger name. Note that this configuration has the affect of being configured **in addition** to any existing logger configurations. Therefore, **when using Python logging, ensure all echo flags are set to False at all times**, to avoid getting duplicate log lines.

The logger name of instance such as an `Engine` or `Pool` defaults to using a truncated hex identifier string. To set this to a specific name, use the “`logging_name`” and “`pool_logging_name`” keyword arguments with `sqlalchemy.create_engine()`.

Note: The SQLAlchemy `Engine` conserves Python function call overhead by only emitting log statements when the current logging level is detected as `logging.INFO` or `logging.DEBUG`. It only checks this level when a new connection is procured from the connection pool. Therefore when changing the logging configuration for an already-running application, any `Connection` that’s currently active, or more commonly a `Session` object that’s active in a transaction, won’t log any SQL according to the new configuration until a new `Connection` is procured (in the case of `Session`, this is after the current transaction ends and a new one begins).

3.4 Working with Engines and Connections

This section details direct usage of the `Engine`, `Connection`, and related objects. Its important to note that when using the SQLAlchemy ORM, these objects are not generally accessed; instead, the `Session` object is used as the interface to the database. However, for applications that are built around direct usage of textual SQL statements and/or SQL expression constructs without involvement by the ORM’s higher level management services, the `Engine` and `Connection` are king (and queen?) - read on.

3.4.1 Basic Usage

Recall from *Engine Configuration* that an `Engine` is created via the `create_engine()` call:

```
engine = create_engine('mysql://scott:tiger@localhost/test')
```

The typical usage of `create_engine()` is once per particular database URL, held globally for the lifetime of a single application process. A single `Engine` manages many individual DBAPI connections on behalf of the process and is intended to be called upon in a concurrent fashion. The `Engine` is **not** synonymous to the DBAPI `connect` function, which represents just one connection resource - the `Engine` is most efficient when created just once at the module level of an application, not per-object or per-function call.

For a multiple-process application that uses the `os.fork` system call, or for example the Python `multiprocessing` module, it’s usually required that a separate `Engine` be used for each child process. This is because the `Engine` maintains a reference to a connection pool that ultimately references DBAPI connections - these tend to not be portable across process boundaries. An `Engine` that is configured not to use pooling (which is achieved via the usage of `NullPool`) does not have this requirement.

The engine can be used directly to issue SQL to the database. The most generic way is first procure a connection resource, which you get via the `connect` method:

```
connection = engine.connect()
result = connection.execute("select username from users")
for row in result:
    print "username:", row['username']
connection.close()
```

The connection is an instance of `Connection`, which is a **proxy** object for an actual DBAPI connection. The DBAPI connection is retrieved from the connection pool at the point at which `Connection` is created.

The returned result is an instance of `ResultProxy`, which references a DBAPI cursor and provides a largely compatible interface with that of the DBAPI cursor. The DBAPI cursor will be closed by the `ResultProxy` when all of its result rows (if any) are exhausted. A `ResultProxy` that returns no rows, such as that of an UPDATE statement (without any returned rows), releases cursor resources immediately upon construction.

When the `close()` method is called, the referenced DBAPI connection is returned to the connection pool. From the perspective of the database itself, nothing is actually “closed”, assuming pooling is in use. The pooling mechanism issues a `rollback()` call on the DBAPI connection so that any transactional state or locks are removed, and the connection is ready for its next usage.

The above procedure can be performed in a shorthand way by using the `execute()` method of `Engine` itself:

```
result = engine.execute("select username from users")
for row in result:
    print "username:", row['username']
```

Where above, the `execute()` method acquires a new `Connection` on its own, executes the statement with that object, and returns the `ResultProxy`. In this case, the `ResultProxy` contains a special flag known as `close_with_result`, which indicates that when its underlying DBAPI cursor is closed, the `Connection` object itself is also closed, which again returns the DBAPI connection to the connection pool, releasing transactional resources.

If the `ResultProxy` potentially has rows remaining, it can be instructed to close out its resources explicitly:

```
result.close()
```

If the `ResultProxy` has pending rows remaining and is dereferenced by the application without being closed, Python garbage collection will ultimately close out the cursor as well as trigger a return of the pooled DBAPI connection resource to the pool (SQLAlchemy achieves this by the usage of weakref callbacks - *never* the `__del__` method) - however it's never a good idea to rely upon Python garbage collection to manage resources.

Our example above illustrated the execution of a textual SQL string. The `execute()` method can of course accommodate more than that, including the variety of SQL expression constructs described in *SQL Expression Language Tutorial*.

3.4.2 Using Transactions

Note: This section describes how to use transactions when working directly with `Engine` and `Connection` objects. When using the SQLAlchemy ORM, the public API for transaction control is via the `Session` object, which makes usage of the `Transaction` object internally. See *Managing Transactions* for further information.

The `Connection` object provides a `begin()` method which returns a `Transaction` object. This object is usually used within a try/except clause so that it is guaranteed to `rollback()` or `commit()`:

```
trans = connection.begin()
try:
    r1 = connection.execute(table1.select())
    connection.execute(table1.insert(), col1=7, col2='this is some data')
    trans.commit()
except:
    trans.rollback()
    raise
```

Nesting of Transaction Blocks

The `Transaction` object also handles “nested” behavior by keeping track of the outermost begin/commit pair. In this example, two functions both issue a transaction on a `Connection`, but only the outermost `Transaction` object

actually takes effect when it is committed.

```
# method_a starts a transaction and calls method_b
def method_a(connection):
    trans = connection.begin() # open a transaction
    try:
        method_b(connection)
        trans.commit() # transaction is committed here
    except:
        trans.rollback() # this rolls back the transaction unconditionally
        raise

# method_b also starts a transaction
def method_b(connection):
    trans = connection.begin() # open a transaction - this runs in the context of method_a
    try:
        connection.execute("insert into mytable values ('bat', 'lala')")
        connection.execute(mytable.insert(), coll='bat', col2='lala')
        trans.commit() # transaction is not committed yet
    except:
        trans.rollback() # this rolls back the transaction unconditionally
        raise

# open a Connection and call method_a
conn = engine.connect()
method_a(conn)
conn.close()
```

Above, `method_a` is called first, which calls `connection.begin()`. Then it calls `method_b`. When `method_b` calls `connection.begin()`, it just increments a counter that is decremented when it calls `commit()`. If either `method_a` or `method_b` calls `rollback()`, the whole transaction is rolled back. The transaction is not committed until `method_a` calls the `commit()` method. This “nesting” behavior allows the creation of functions which “guarantee” that a transaction will be used if one was not already available, but will automatically participate in an enclosing transaction if one exists.

3.4.3 Understanding Autocommit

The previous transaction example illustrates how to use `Transaction` so that several executions can take part in the same transaction. What happens when we issue an INSERT, UPDATE or DELETE call without using `Transaction`? The answer is **autocommit**. While many DBAPI implementation provide various special “non-transactional” modes, the current SQLAlchemy behavior is such that it implements its own “autocommit” which works completely consistently across all backends. This is achieved by detecting statements which represent data-changing operations, i.e. INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, as well as data definition language (DDL) statements such as CREATE TABLE, ALTER TABLE, and then issuing a COMMIT automatically if no transaction is in progress. The detection is based on compiled statement attributes, or in the case of a text-only statement via regular expressions:

```
conn = engine.connect()
conn.execute("INSERT INTO users VALUES (1, 'john')") # autocommits
```

Full control of the “autocommit” behavior is available using the generative `Connection.execution_options()` method provided on `Connection`, `Engine`, `Executable`, using the “autocommit” flag which will turn on or off the autocommit for the selected scope. For example, a `text()` construct representing a stored procedure that commits might use it so that a SELECT statement will issue a COMMIT:

```
engine.execute(text("SELECT my_mutating_procedure()").execution_options(autocommit=True))
```

3.4.4 Connectionless Execution, Implicit Execution

Recall from the first section we mentioned executing with and without explicit usage of `Connection`. “Connectionless” execution refers to the usage of the `execute()` method on an object which is not a `Connection`. This was illustrated using the `execute()` method of `Engine`.

In addition to “connectionless” execution, it is also possible to use the `execute()` method of any `Executable` construct, which is a marker for SQL expression objects that support execution. The SQL expression object itself references an `Engine` or `Connection` known as the **bind**, which it uses in order to provide so-called “implicit” execution services.

Given a table as below:

```
meta = MetaData()
users_table = Table('users', meta,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', String(50))
)
```

Explicit execution delivers the SQL text or constructed SQL expression to the `execute()` method of `Connection`:

```
engine = create_engine('sqlite:///file.db')
connection = engine.connect()
result = connection.execute(users_table.select())
for row in result:
    # ....
connection.close()
```

Explicit, connectionless execution delivers the expression to the `execute()` method of `Engine`:

```
engine = create_engine('sqlite:///file.db')
result = engine.execute(users_table.select())
for row in result:
    # ....
result.close()
```

Implicit execution is also connectionless, and calls the `execute()` method on the expression itself, utilizing the fact that either an `Engine` or `Connection` has been *bound* to the expression object (binding is discussed further in *Schema Definition Language*):

```
engine = create_engine('sqlite:///file.db')
meta.bind = engine
result = users_table.select().execute()
for row in result:
    # ....
result.close()
```

In both “connectionless” examples, the `Connection` is created behind the scenes; the `ResultProxy` returned by the `execute()` call references the `Connection` used to issue the SQL statement. When the `ResultProxy` is closed, the underlying `Connection` is closed for us, resulting in the DBAPI connection being returned to the pool with transactional resources removed.

3.4.5 Using the Threadlocal Execution Strategy

The “threadlocal” engine strategy is an optional feature which can be used by non-ORM applications to associate transactions with the current thread, such that all parts of the application can participate in that transaction implicitly without the need to explicitly reference a `Connection`. “threadlocal” is designed for a very specific pattern of use, and is not appropriate unless this very specific pattern, described below, is what’s desired. It has **no impact** on the

“thread safety” of SQLAlchemy components or one’s application. It also should not be used when using an ORM `Session` object, as the `Session` itself represents an ongoing transaction and itself handles the job of maintaining connection and transactional resources.

Enabling `threadlocal` is achieved as follows:

```
db = create_engine('mysql://localhost/test', strategy='threadlocal')
```

The above `Engine` will now acquire a `Connection` using connection resources derived from a thread-local variable whenever `Engine.execute()` or `Engine.contextual_connect()` is called. This connection resource is maintained as long as it is referenced, which allows multiple points of an application to share a transaction while using connectionless execution:

```
def call_operation1():
    engine.execute("insert into users values (?, ?)", 1, "john")

def call_operation2():
    users.update(users.c.user_id==5).execute(name='ed')

db.begin()
try:
    call_operation1()
    call_operation2()
    db.commit()
except:
    db.rollback()
```

Explicit execution can be mixed with connectionless execution by using the `Engine.connect` method to acquire a `Connection` that is not part of the `threadlocal` scope:

```
db.begin()
conn = db.connect()
try:
    conn.execute(log_table.insert(), message="Operation started")
    call_operation1()
    call_operation2()
    db.commit()
    conn.execute(log_table.insert(), message="Operation succeeded")
except:
    db.rollback()
    conn.execute(log_table.insert(), message="Operation failed")
finally:
    conn.close()
```

To access the `Connection` that is bound to the `threadlocal` scope, call `Engine.contextual_connect()`:

```
conn = db.contextual_connect()
call_operation3(conn)
conn.close()
```

Calling `close()` on the “contextual” connection does not release its resources until all other usages of that resource are closed as well, including that any ongoing transactions are rolled back or committed.

3.4.6 Connection / Engine API

```
class sqlalchemy.engine.base.Connection(engine, connection=None, close_with_result=False,
                                         _branch=False, _execution_options=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.engine.base.Connectable
```

Provides high-level functionality for a wrapped DB-API connection.

Provides execution support for string-based SQL statements as well as `ClauseElement`, `Compiled` and `DefaultGenerator` objects. Provides a `begin()` method to return `Transaction` objects.

The `Connection` object is **not** thread-safe. While a `Connection` can be shared among threads using properly synchronized access, it is still possible that the underlying DBAPI connection may not support shared access between threads. Check the DBAPI documentation for details.

The `Connection` object represents a single dbapi connection checked out from the connection pool. In this state, the connection pool has no affect upon the connection, including its expiration or timeout state. For the connection pool to properly manage connections, connections should be returned to the connection pool (i.e. `connection.close()`) whenever the connection is not in use.

__init__ (*engine*, *connection=None*, *close_with_result=False*, *_branch=False*, *_execution_options=None*)
Construct a new `Connection`.

The constructor here is not public and is only called only by an `Engine`. See `Engine.connect()` and `Engine.contextual_connect()` methods.

begin()

Begin a transaction and return a transaction handle.

The returned object is an instance of `Transaction`.

Repeated calls to `begin` on the same `Connection` will create a lightweight, emulated nested transaction. Only the outermost transaction may `commit`. Calls to `commit` on inner transactions are ignored. Any transaction in the hierarchy may `rollback`, however.

See also `Connection.begin_nested()`, `Connection.begin_twophase()`.

begin_nested()

Begin a nested transaction and return a transaction handle.

The returned object is an instance of `NestedTransaction`.

Nested transactions require SAVEPOINT support in the underlying database. Any transaction in the hierarchy may `commit` and `rollback`, however the outermost transaction still controls the overall `commit` or `rollback` of the transaction of a whole.

See also `Connection.begin()`, `Connection.begin_twophase()`.

begin_twophase (*xid=None*)

Begin a two-phase or XA transaction and return a transaction handle.

The returned object is an instance of `TwoPhaseTransaction`, which in addition to the methods provided by `Transaction`, also provides a `prepare()` method.

Parameters `xid` – the two phase transaction id. If not supplied, a random id will be generated.

See also `Connection.begin()`, `Connection.begin_twophase()`.

close()

Close this `Connection`.

This results in a release of the underlying database resources, that is, the DBAPI connection referenced internally. The DBAPI connection is typically restored back to the connection-holding `Pool` referenced by the `Engine` that produced this `Connection`. Any transactional state present on the DBAPI connection is also unconditionally released via the DBAPI connection's `rollback()` method, regardless of any `Transaction` object that may be outstanding with regards to this `Connection`.

After `close()` is called, the `Connection` is permanently in a closed state, and will allow no further operations.

closed

Return True if this connection is closed.

connect ()

Returns self.

This `Connectable` interface method returns self, allowing `Connections` to be used interchangeably with `Engines` in most situations that require a bind.

connection

The underlying DB-API connection managed by this `Connection`.

contextual_connect (kwargs)**

Returns self.

This `Connectable` interface method returns self, allowing `Connections` to be used interchangeably with `Engines` in most situations that require a bind.

create (entity, **kwargs)

Emit CREATE statements for the given schema entity. Deprecated since version 0.7: Use the `create()` method on the given schema object directly, i.e. `Table.create()`, `Index.create()`, `MetaData.create_all()`

detach ()

Detach the underlying DB-API connection from its connection pool.

This `Connection` instance will remain useable. When closed, the DB-API connection will be literally closed and not returned to its pool. The pool will typically lazily create a new connection to replace the detached connection.

This method can be used to insulate the rest of an application from a modified state on a connection (such as a transaction isolation level or similar). Also see `PoolListener` for a mechanism to modify connection state when connections leave and return to their connection pool.

drop (entity, **kwargs)

Emit DROP statements for the given schema entity. Deprecated since version 0.7: Use the `drop()` method on the given schema object directly, i.e. `Table.drop()`, `Index.drop()`, `MetaData.drop_all()`

execute (object, *multiparams, **params)

Executes the a SQL statement construct and returns a `ResultProxy`.

Parameters

- **object** – The statement to be executed. May be one of:
 - a plain string
 - any `ClauseElement` construct that is also a subclass of `Executable`, such as a `select ()` construct
 - a `FunctionElement`, such as that generated by `func`, will be automatically wrapped in a SELECT statement, which is then executed.
 - a `DDLElement` object
 - a `DefaultGenerator` object
 - a `Compiled` object
- ***multiparams/**params** – represent bound parameter values to be used in the execution. Typically, the format is either a collection of one or more dictionaries passed to `*multiparams`:

```
conn.execute(
    table.insert(),
    {"id":1, "value":"v1"},
    {"id":2, "value":"v2"}
)
```

...or individual key/values interpreted by `**params`:

```
conn.execute(
    table.insert(), id=1, value="v1"
)
```

In the case that a plain SQL string is passed, and the underlying DBAPI accepts positional bind parameters, a collection of tuples or individual values in `*multiparams` may be passed:

```
conn.execute(
    "INSERT INTO table (id, value) VALUES (?, ?)",
    (1, "v1"), (2, "v2")
)

conn.execute(
    "INSERT INTO table (id, value) VALUES (?, ?)",
    1, "v1"
)
```

Note above, the usage of a question mark “?” or other symbol is contingent upon the “paramstyle” accepted by the DBAPI in use, which may be any of “qmark”, “named”, “pyformat”, “format”, “numeric”. See [pep-249](#) for details on paramstyle.

To execute a textual SQL statement which uses bound parameters in a DBAPI-agnostic way, use the `text()` construct.

execution_options (***opt*)

Set non-SQL options for the connection which take effect during execution.

The method returns a copy of this `Connection` which references the same underlying DBAPI connection, but also defines the given execution options which will take effect for a call to `execute()`. As the new `Connection` references the same underlying resource, it is probably best to ensure that the copies would be discarded immediately, which is implicit if used as in:

```
result = connection.execution_options(stream_results=True).\
    execute(stmt)
```

`Connection.execution_options()` accepts all options as those accepted by `Executable.execution_options()`. Additionally, it includes options that are applicable only to `Connection`.

Parameters

- **autocommit** – Available on: `Connection`, `statement`. When `True`, a `COMMIT` will be invoked after execution when executed in ‘autocommit’ mode, i.e. when an explicit transaction is not begun on the connection. Note that DBAPI connections by default are always in a transaction - SQLAlchemy uses rules applied to different kinds of statements to determine if `COMMIT` will be invoked in order to provide its “autocommit” feature. Typically, all `INSERT/UPDATE/DELETE` statements as well as `CREATE/DROP` statements have autocommit behavior enabled; `SELECT` constructs do not. Use this option when invoking

a SELECT or other specific SQL construct where COMMIT is desired (typically when calling stored procedures and such), and an explicit transaction is not in progress.

- **compiled_cache** – Available on: Connection. A dictionary where `Compiled` objects will be cached when the `Connection` compiles a clause expression into a `Compiled` object. It is the user’s responsibility to manage the size of this dictionary, which will have keys corresponding to the dialect, clause element, the column names within the VALUES or SET clause of an INSERT or UPDATE, as well as the “batch” mode for an INSERT or UPDATE statement. The format of this dictionary is not guaranteed to stay the same in future releases.

Note that the ORM makes use of its own “compiled” caches for some operations, including flush operations. The caching used by the ORM internally supersedes a cache dictionary specified here.

- **isolation_level** – Available on: Connection. Set the transaction isolation level for the lifespan of this connection. Valid values include those string values accepted by the `isolation_level` parameter passed to `create_engine()`, and are database specific, including those for *SQLite*, *PostgreSQL* - see those dialect’s documentation for further info.

Note that this option necessarily affects the underlying DBAPI connection for the lifespan of the originating `Connection`, and is not per-execution. This setting is not removed until the underlying DBAPI connection is returned to the connection pool, i.e. the `Connection.close()` method is called.

- **stream_results** – Available on: Connection, statement. Indicate to the dialect that results should be “streamed” and not pre-buffered, if possible. This is a limitation of many DBAPIs. The flag is currently understood only by the `psycopg2` dialect.

in_transaction()

Return True if a transaction is in progress.

info

A collection of per-DB-API connection instance properties.

invalidate (*exception=None*)

Invalidate the underlying DBAPI connection associated with this `Connection`.

The underlying DB-API connection is literally closed (if possible), and is discarded. Its source connection pool will typically lazily create a new connection to replace it.

Upon the next usage, this `Connection` will attempt to reconnect to the pool with a new connection.

Transactions in progress remain in an “opened” state (even though the actual transaction is gone); these must be explicitly rolled back before a reconnect on this `Connection` can proceed. This is to prevent applications from accidentally continuing their transactional operations in a non-transactional state.

invalidated

Return True if this connection was invalidated.

reflecttable (*table*, *include_columns=None*)

Load table description from the database. Deprecated since version 0.7: Use `autoload=True` with `Table`, or use the `Inspector` object. Given a `Table` object, reflect its columns and properties from the database, populating the given `Table` object with attributes.. If `include_columns` (a list or set) is specified, limit the autoload to the given column names.

The default implementation uses the `Inspector` interface to provide the output, building upon the granular table/column/ constraint etc. methods of `Dialect`.

run_callable (*callable_*, *args, **kwargs)

Given a callable object or function, execute it, passing a `Connection` as the first argument.

The given *args and **kwargs are passed subsequent to the `Connection` argument.

This function, along with `Engine.run_callable()`, allows a function to be run with a `Connection` or `Engine` object without the need to know which one is being dealt with.

scalar (*object*, *multiparams, **params)

Executes and returns the first column of the first row.

The underlying result/cursor is closed after execution.

transaction (*callable_*, *args, **kwargs)

Execute the given function within a transaction boundary.

The function is passed this `Connection` as the first argument, followed by the given *args and **kwargs.

This is a shortcut for explicitly invoking `Connection.begin()`, calling `Transaction.commit()` upon success or `Transaction.rollback()` upon an exception raise:

```
def do_something(conn, x, y):
    conn.execute("some statement", {'x':x, 'y':y})

conn.transaction(do_something, 5, 10)
```

Note that context managers (i.e. the with statement) present a more modern way of accomplishing the above, using the `Transaction` object as a base:

```
with conn.begin():
    conn.execute("some statement", {'x':5, 'y':10})
```

One advantage to the `Connection.transaction()` method is that the same method is also available on `Engine` as `Engine.transaction()` - this method procures a `Connection` and then performs the same operation, allowing equivalent usage with either a `Connection` or `Engine` without needing to know what kind of object it is.

class sqlalchemy.engine.base.**Connectable**

Bases: object

Interface for an object which supports execution of SQL constructs.

The two implementations of `Connectable` are `Connection` and `Engine`.

`Connectable` must also implement the 'dialect' member which references a `Dialect` instance.

connect (**kwargs)

Return a `Connection` object.

Depending on context, this may be `self` if this object is already an instance of `Connection`, or a newly procured `Connection` if this object is an instance of `Engine`.

contextual_connect ()

Return a `Connection` object which may be part of an ongoing context.

Depending on context, this may be `self` if this object is already an instance of `Connection`, or a newly procured `Connection` if this object is an instance of `Engine`.

create (*entity*, **kwargs)

Emit CREATE statements for the given schema entity. Deprecated since version 0.7: Use the `create()` method on the given schema object directly, i.e. `Table.create()`, `Index.create()`, `MetaData.create_all()`

drop (*entity*, ***kwargs*)

Emit DROP statements for the given schema entity. Deprecated since version 0.7: Use the `drop()` method on the given schema object directly, i.e. `Table.drop()`, `Index.drop()`, `MetaData.drop_all()`

execute (*object*, **multiparams*, ***params*)

Executes the given construct and returns a `ResultProxy`.

scalar (*object*, **multiparams*, ***params*)

Executes and returns the first column of the first row.

The underlying cursor is closed after execution.

class `sqlalchemy.engine.base.Engine` (*pool*, *dialect*, *url*, *logging_name=None*, *echo=None*, *proxy=None*, *execution_options=None*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.engine.base.Connectable`, `sqlalchemy.log.Identified`

Connects a `Pool` and `Dialect` together to provide a source of database connectivity and behavior.

An `Engine` object is instantiated publically using the `create_engine()` function.

connect (***kwargs*)

Return a new `Connection` object.

The `Connection` object is a facade that uses a DBAPI connection internally in order to communicate with the database. This connection is procured from the connection-holding `Pool` referenced by this `Engine`. When the `close()` method of the `Connection` object is called, the underlying DBAPI connection is then returned to the connection pool, where it may be used again in a subsequent call to `connect()`.

contextual_connect (*close_with_result=False*, ***kwargs*)

Return a `Connection` object which may be part of some ongoing context.

By default, this method does the same thing as `Engine.connect()`. Subclasses of `Engine` may override this method to provide contextual behavior.

Parameters close_with_result – When True, the first `ResultProxy` created by the `Connection` will call the `Connection.close()` method of that connection as soon as any pending result rows are exhausted. This is used to supply the “connectionless execution” behavior provided by the `Engine.execute()` method.

create (*entity*, *connection=None*, ***kwargs*)

Emit CREATE statements for the given schema entity. Deprecated since version 0.7: Use the `create()` method on the given schema object directly, i.e. `Table.create()`, `Index.create()`, `MetaData.create_all()`

dispose ()

Dispose of the connection pool used by this `Engine`.

A new connection pool is created immediately after the old one has been disposed. This new pool, like all SQLAlchemy connection pools, does not make any actual connections to the database until one is first requested.

This method has two general use cases:

- When a dropped connection is detected, it is assumed that all connections held by the pool are potentially dropped, and the entire pool is replaced.
- An application may want to use `dispose()` within a test suite that is creating multiple engines.

It is critical to note that `dispose()` does **not** guarantee that the application will release all open database connections - only those connections that are checked into the pool are closed. Connections which remain checked out or have been detached from the engine are not affected.

driver

Driver name of the `Dialect` in use by this Engine.

drop (*entity*, *connection=None*, ***kwargs*)

Emit DROP statements for the given schema entity. Deprecated since version 0.7: Use the `drop()` method on the given schema object directly, i.e. `Table.drop()`, `Index.drop()`, `MetaData.drop_all()`

echo

When `True`, enable log output for this element.

This has the effect of setting the Python logging level for the namespace of this element's class and object reference. A value of boolean `True` indicates that the `loglevel` `logging.INFO` will be set for the logger, whereas the string value `debug` will set the `loglevel` to `logging.DEBUG`.

execute (*statement*, **multiparams*, ***params*)

Executes the given construct and returns a `ResultProxy`.

The arguments are the same as those used by `Connection.execute()`.

Here, a `Connection` is acquired using the `contextual_connect()` method, and the statement executed with that connection. The returned `ResultProxy` is flagged such that when the `ResultProxy` is exhausted and its underlying cursor is closed, the `Connection` created here will also be closed, which allows its associated DBAPI connection resource to be returned to the connection pool.

func

Deprecated since version 0.7: Use `expression.func` to create function constructs.

name

String name of the `Dialect` in use by this Engine.

raw_connection ()

Return a "raw" DBAPI connection from the connection pool.

The returned object is a proxied version of the DBAPI connection object used by the underlying driver in use. The object will have all the same behavior as the real DBAPI connection, except that its `close()` method will result in the connection being returned to the pool, rather than being closed for real.

This method provides direct DBAPI connection access for special situations. In most situations, the `Connection` object should be used, which is procured using the `Engine.connect()` method.

reflecttable (*table*, *connection=None*, *include_columns=None*)

Load table description from the database. Deprecated since version 0.7: Use `autoload=True` with `Table`, or use the `Inspector` object. Uses the given `Connection`, or if `None` produces its own `Connection`, and passes the `table` and `include_columns` arguments onto that `Connection` object's `Connection.reflecttable()` method. The `Table` object is then populated with new attributes.

run_callable (*callable_*, **args*, ***kwargs*)

Given a callable object or function, execute it, passing a `Connection` as the first argument.

The given `*args` and `**kwargs` are passed subsequent to the `Connection` argument.

This function, along with `Connection.run_callable()`, allows a function to be run with a `Connection` or `Engine` object without the need to know which one is being dealt with.

table_names (*schema=None*, *connection=None*)

Return a list of all table names available in the database.

Parameters

- **schema** – Optional, retrieve names from a non-default schema.

- **connection** – Optional, use a specified connection. Default is the `contextual_connect` for this Engine.

text (*text*, **args*, ***kwargs*)

Return a `text()` construct, Deprecated since version 0.7: Use `expression.text()` to create text constructs. bound to this engine.

This is equivalent to:

```
text("SELECT * FROM table", bind=engine)
```

transaction (*callable_*, **args*, ***kwargs*)

Execute the given function within a transaction boundary.

The function is passed a newly procured `Connection` as the first argument, followed by the given **args* and ***kwargs*. The `Connection` is then closed (returned to the pool) when the operation is complete.

This method can be used interchangeably with `Connection.transaction()`. See that method for more details on usage as well as a modern alternative using context managers (i.e. the `with` statement).

update_execution_options (***opt*)

Update the default execution_options dictionary of this `Engine`.

The given keys/values in ***opt* are added to the default execution options that will be used for all connections. The initial contents of this dictionary can be sent via the `execution_options` paramter to `create_engine()`.

See `Connection.execution_options()` for more details on execution options.

class sqlalchemy.engine.base.**NestedTransaction** (*connection*, *parent*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.engine.base.Transaction

Represent a ‘nested’, or SAVEPOINT transaction.

A new `NestedTransaction` object may be procured using the `Connection.begin_nested()` method.

The interface is the same as that of `Transaction`.

class sqlalchemy.engine.base.**ResultProxy** (*context*)

Wraps a DB-API cursor object to provide easier access to row columns.

Individual columns may be accessed by their integer position, case-insensitive column name, or by `schema.Column` object. e.g.:

```
row = fetchone()

col1 = row[0]      # access via integer position

col2 = row['col2']  # access via name

col3 = row[mytable.c.mycol] # access via Column object.
```

`ResultProxy` also handles post-processing of result column data using `TypeEngine` objects, which are referenced from the originating SQL statement that produced this result set.

close (*_autoclose_connection=True*)

Close this `ResultProxy`.

Closes the underlying DBAPI cursor corresponding to the execution.

Note that any data cached within this `ResultProxy` is still available. For some types of results, this may include buffered rows.

If this `ResultProxy` was generated from an implicit execution, the underlying `Connection` will also be closed (returns the underlying DBAPI connection to the connection pool.)

This method is called automatically when:

- all result rows are exhausted using the `fetchXXX()` methods.
- `cursor.description` is `None`.

fetchall()

Fetch all rows, just like DB-API `cursor.fetchall()`.

fetchmany(*size=None*)

Fetch many rows, just like DB-API `cursor.fetchmany(size=cursor.arraysize)`.

If rows are present, the cursor remains open after this is called. Else the cursor is automatically closed and an empty list is returned.

fetchone()

Fetch one row, just like DB-API `cursor.fetchone()`.

If a row is present, the cursor remains open after this is called. Else the cursor is automatically closed and `None` is returned.

first()

Fetch the first row and then close the result set unconditionally.

Returns `None` if no row is present.

inserted_primary_key

Return the primary key for the row just inserted.

The return value is a list of scalar values corresponding to the list of primary key columns in the target table.

This only applies to single row `insert()` constructs which did not explicitly specify `Insert.returning()`.

Note that primary key columns which specify a `server_default` clause, or otherwise do not qualify as “autoincrement” columns (see the notes at [Column](#)), and were generated using the database-side default, will appear in this list as `None` unless the backend supports “returning” and the insert statement executed with the “implicit returning” enabled.

is_insert

True if this `ResultProxy` is the result of a executing an expression language compiled `expression.insert()` construct.

When True, this implies that the `inserted_primary_key` attribute is accessible, assuming the statement did not include a user defined “returning” construct.

keys()

Return the current set of string keys for rows.

last_inserted_ids()

Return the primary key for the row just inserted. Deprecated since version 0.6: Use `ResultProxy.inserted_primary_key`

last_inserted_params()

Return the collection of inserted parameters from this execution.

last_updated_params()

Return the collection of updated parameters from this execution.

lastrow_has_defaults()

Return `lastrow_has_defaults()` from the underlying `ExecutionContext`.

See `ExecutionContext` for details.

lastrowid

return the ‘lastrowid’ accessor on the DBAPI cursor.

This is a DBAPI specific method and is only functional for those backends which support it, for statements where it is appropriate. It’s behavior is not consistent across backends.

Usage of this method is normally unnecessary; the `inserted_primary_key` attribute provides a tuple of primary key values for a newly inserted row, regardless of database backend.

postfetch_cols()

Return `postfetch_cols()` from the underlying `ExecutionContext`.

See `ExecutionContext` for details.

returns_rows

True if this `ResultProxy` returns rows.

I.e. if it is legal to call the methods `fetchone()`, `fetchmany()` `fetchall()`.

rowcount

Return the ‘rowcount’ for this result.

The ‘rowcount’ reports the number of rows affected by an UPDATE or DELETE statement. It has *no* other uses and is not intended to provide the number of rows present from a SELECT.

Note that this row count may not be properly implemented in some dialects; this is indicated by `supports_sane_rowcount()` and `supports_sane_multi_rowcount()`. `rowcount()` also may not work at this time for a statement that uses `returning()`.

scalar()

Fetch the first column of the first row, and close the result set.

Returns None if no row is present.

supports_sane_multi_rowcount()

Return `supports_sane_multi_rowcount` from the dialect.

supports_sane_rowcount()

Return `supports_sane_rowcount` from the dialect.

class sqlalchemy.engine.base.**RowProxy** (*parent, row, processors, keymap*)

Proxy values from a single cursor row.

Mostly follows “ordered dictionary” behavior, mapping result values to the string-based column name, the integer position of the result in the row, as well as Column instances which can be mapped to the original Columns that produced this result set (for results that correspond to constructed SQL expressions).

has_key(key)

Return True if this RowProxy contains the given key.

items()

Return a list of tuples, each tuple containing a key/value pair.

keys()

Return the list of keys as strings represented by this RowProxy.

class sqlalchemy.engine.base.**Transaction** (*connection, parent*)
Bases: object

Represent a database transaction in progress.

The `Transaction` object is procured by calling the `begin()` method of `Connection`:

```
from sqlalchemy import create_engine
engine = create_engine("postgresql://scott:tiger@localhost/test")
connection = engine.connect()
trans = connection.begin()
connection.execute("insert into x (a, b) values (1, 2)")
trans.commit()
```

The object provides `rollback()` and `commit()` methods in order to control transaction boundaries. It also implements a context manager interface so that the Python `with` statement can be used with the `Connection.begin()` method:

```
with connection.begin():
    connection.execute("insert into x (a, b) values (1, 2)")
```

The `Transaction` object is **not** threadsafe.

See also: `Connection.begin()`, `Connection.begin_twophase()`, `Connection.begin_nested()`.

close()

Close this `Transaction`.

If this transaction is the base transaction in a `begin/commit` nesting, the transaction will `rollback()`. Otherwise, the method returns.

This is used to cancel a `Transaction` without affecting the scope of an enclosing transaction.

commit()

Commit this `Transaction`.

rollback()

Roll back this `Transaction`.

class sqlalchemy.engine.base.**TwoPhaseTransaction** (*connection, xid*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.engine.base.Transaction

Represent a two-phase transaction.

A new `TwoPhaseTransaction` object may be procured using the `Connection.begin_twophase()` method.

The interface is the same as that of `Transaction` with the addition of the `prepare()` method.

prepare()

Prepare this `TwoPhaseTransaction`.

After a `PREPARE`, the transaction can be committed.

3.5 Connection Pooling

The establishment of a database connection is typically a somewhat expensive operation, and applications need a way to get at database connections repeatedly with minimal overhead. Particularly for server-side web applications, a

connection pool is the standard way to maintain a “pool” of active database connections in memory which are reused across requests.

SQLAlchemy includes several connection pool implementations which integrate with the `Engine`. They can also be used directly for applications that want to add pooling to an otherwise plain DBAPI approach.

3.5.1 Connection Pool Configuration

The `Engine` returned by the `create_engine()` function in most cases has a `QueuePool` integrated, pre-configured with reasonable pooling defaults. If you’re reading this section to simply enable pooling- congratulations! You’re already done.

The most common `QueuePool` tuning parameters can be passed directly to `create_engine()` as keyword arguments: `pool_size`, `max_overflow`, `pool_recycle` and `pool_timeout`. For example:

```
engine = create_engine('postgresql://me@localhost/mydb',
                      pool_size=20, max_overflow=0)
```

In the case of SQLite, the `SingletonThreadPool` or `NullPool` are selected by the dialect to provide greater compatibility with SQLite’s threading and locking model, as well as to provide a reasonable default behavior to SQLite “memory” databases, which maintain their entire dataset within the scope of a single connection.

All SQLAlchemy pool implementations have in common that none of them “pre create” connections - all implementations wait until first use before creating a connection. At that point, if no additional concurrent checkout requests for more connections are made, no additional connections are created. This is why it’s perfectly fine for `create_engine()` to default to using a `QueuePool` of size five without regard to whether or not the application really needs five connections queued up - the pool would only grow to that size if the application actually used five connections concurrently, in which case the usage of a small pool is an entirely appropriate default behavior.

3.5.2 Switching Pool Implementations

The usual way to use a different kind of pool with `create_engine()` is to use the `poolclass` argument. This argument accepts a class imported from the `sqlalchemy.pool` module, and handles the details of building the pool for you. Common options include specifying `QueuePool` with SQLite:

```
from sqlalchemy.pool import QueuePool
engine = create_engine('sqlite:///file.db', poolclass=QueuePool)
```

Disabling pooling using `NullPool`:

```
from sqlalchemy.pool import NullPool
engine = create_engine(
    'postgresql+psycopg2://scott:tiger@localhost/test',
    poolclass=NullPool)
```

3.5.3 Using a Custom Connection Function

All `Pool` classes accept an argument `creator` which is a callable that creates a new connection. `create_engine()` accepts this function to pass onto the pool via an argument of the same name:

```
import sqlalchemy.pool as pool
import psycopg2

def getconn():
    c = psycopg2.connect(username='ed', host='127.0.0.1', dbname='test')
    # do things with 'c' to set up
```

```
return c
```

```
engine = create_engine('postgresql+psycopg2://', creator=getconn)
```

For most “initialize on connection” routines, it’s more convenient to use a `PoolListener`, so that the usual URL argument to `create_engine()` is still usable. `creator` is there as a total last resort for when a DBAPI has some form of `connect` that is not at all supported by SQLAlchemy.

3.5.4 Constructing a Pool

To use a `Pool` by itself, the `creator` function is the only argument that’s required and is passed first, followed by any additional options:

```
import sqlalchemy.pool as pool
import psycopg2

def getconn():
    c = psycopg2.connect(username='ed', host='127.0.0.1', dbname='test')
    return c
```

```
mypool = pool.QueuePool(getconn, max_overflow=10, pool_size=5)
```

DBAPI connections can then be procured from the pool using the `Pool.connect()` function. The return value of this method is a DBAPI connection that’s contained within a transparent proxy:

```
# get a connection
conn = mypool.connect()

# use it
cursor = conn.cursor()
cursor.execute("select foo")
```

The purpose of the transparent proxy is to intercept the `close()` call, such that instead of the DBAPI connection being closed, its returned to the pool:

```
# "close" the connection. Returns
# it to the pool.
conn.close()
```

The proxy also returns its contained DBAPI connection to the pool when it is garbage collected, though it’s not deterministic in Python that this occurs immediately (though it is typical with cPython).

A particular pre-created `Pool` can be shared with one or more engines by passing it to the `pool` argument of `create_engine()`:

```
e = create_engine('postgresql://', pool=mypool)
```

3.5.5 Pool Event Listeners

Connection pools support an event interface that allows hooks to execute upon first connect, upon each new connection, and upon checkout and checkin of connections. See `PoolListener` for details.

3.5.6 API Documentation - Available Pool Implementations

```
class sqlalchemy.pool.Pool(creator, recycle=-1, echo=None, use_threadlocal=False, logging_name=None, reset_on_return=True, listeners=None, events=None, _dispatch=None)
```

Abstract base class for connection pools.

```
__init__(creator, recycle=-1, echo=None, use_threadlocal=False, logging_name=None, reset_on_return=True, listeners=None, events=None, _dispatch=None)
```

Construct a Pool.

Parameters

- **creator** – a callable function that returns a DB-API connection object. The function will be called with parameters.
- **recycle** – If set to non -1, number of seconds between connection recycling, which means upon checkout, if this timeout is surpassed the connection will be closed and replaced with a newly opened connection. Defaults to -1.
- **logging_name** – String identifier which will be used within the “name” field of logging records generated within the “sqlalchemy.pool” logger. Defaults to a hexstring of the object’s id.
- **echo** – If True, connections being pulled and retrieved from the pool will be logged to the standard output, as well as pool sizing information. Echoing can also be achieved by enabling logging for the “sqlalchemy.pool” namespace. Defaults to False.
- **use_threadlocal** – If set to True, repeated calls to `connect()` within the same application thread will be guaranteed to return the same connection object, if one has already been retrieved from the pool and has not been returned yet. Offers a slight performance advantage at the cost of individual transactions by default. The `unique_connection()` method is provided to bypass the threadlocal behavior installed into `connect()`.
- **reset_on_return** – If true, reset the database state of connections returned to the pool. This is typically a ROLLBACK to release locks and transaction resources. Disable at your own peril. Defaults to True.
- **events** – a list of 2-tuples, each of the form `(callable, target)` which will be passed to `event.listen()` upon construction. Provided here so that event listeners can be assigned via `create_engine` before dialect-level listeners are applied.
- **listeners** – Deprecated. A list of `PoolListener`-like objects or dictionaries of callables that receive events when DB-API connections are created, checked out and checked in to the pool. This has been superseded by `listen()`.

connect()

Return a DBAPI connection from the pool.

The connection is instrumented such that when its `close()` method is called, the connection will be returned to the pool.

dispose()

Dispose of this pool.

This method leaves the possibility of checked-out connections remaining open, It is advised to not reuse the pool once `dispose()` is called, and to instead use a new pool constructed by the `recreate()` method.

recreate()

Return a new `Pool`, of the same class as this one and configured with identical creation arguments.

This method is used in conjunction with `dispose()` to close out an entire `Pool` and create a new one in its place.

class sqlalchemy.pool.QueuePool(*creator*, *pool_size*=5, *max_overflow*=10, *timeout*=30, ***kw*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.pool.Pool

A `Pool` that imposes a limit on the number of open connections.

`QueuePool` is the default pooling implementation used for all `Engine` objects, unless the SQLite dialect is in use.

__init__(*creator*, *pool_size*=5, *max_overflow*=10, *timeout*=30, ***kw*)

Construct a QueuePool.

Parameters

- **creator** – a callable function that returns a DB-API connection object. The function will be called with parameters.
- **pool_size** – The size of the pool to be maintained, defaults to 5. This is the largest number of connections that will be kept persistently in the pool. Note that the pool begins with no connections; once this number of connections is requested, that number of connections will remain. `pool_size` can be set to 0 to indicate no size limit; to disable pooling, use a `NullPool` instead.
- **max_overflow** – The maximum overflow size of the pool. When the number of checked-out connections reaches the size set in `pool_size`, additional connections will be returned up to this limit. When those additional connections are returned to the pool, they are disconnected and discarded. It follows then that the total number of simultaneous connections the pool will allow is `pool_size + max_overflow`, and the total number of “sleeping” connections the pool will allow is `pool_size`. `max_overflow` can be set to -1 to indicate no overflow limit; no limit will be placed on the total number of concurrent connections. Defaults to 10.
- **timeout** – The number of seconds to wait before giving up on returning a connection. Defaults to 30.
- **recycle** – If set to non -1, number of seconds between connection recycling, which means upon checkout, if this timeout is surpassed the connection will be closed and replaced with a newly opened connection. Defaults to -1.
- **echo** – If True, connections being pulled and retrieved from the pool will be logged to the standard output, as well as pool sizing information. Echoing can also be achieved by enabling logging for the “sqlalchemy.pool” namespace. Defaults to False.
- **use_threadlocal** – If set to True, repeated calls to `connect()` within the same application thread will be guaranteed to return the same connection object, if one has already been retrieved from the pool and has not been returned yet. Offers a slight performance advantage at the cost of individual transactions by default. The `unique_connection()` method is provided to bypass the threadlocal behavior installed into `connect()`.
- **reset_on_return** – If true, reset the database state of connections returned to the pool. This is typically a ROLLBACK to release locks and transaction resources. Disable at your own peril. Defaults to True.
- **listeners** – A list of `PoolListener`-like objects or dictionaries of callables that receive events when DB-API connections are created, checked out and checked in to the pool.

class sqlalchemy.pool.SingletonThreadPool(*creator*, *pool_size*=5, ***kw*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.pool.Pool

A Pool that maintains one connection per thread.

Maintains one connection per each thread, never moving a connection to a thread other than the one which it was created in.

Options are the same as those of `Pool`, as well as:

Parameters `pool_size` – The number of threads in which to maintain connections at once. Defaults to five.

`SingletonThreadPool` is used by the SQLite dialect automatically when a memory-based database is used. See *SQLite*.

```
__init__(creator, pool_size=5, **kw)
```

```
class sqlalchemy.pool.AssertionPool(*args, **kw)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.pool.Pool`

A `Pool` that allows at most one checked out connection at any given time.

This will raise an exception if more than one connection is checked out at a time. Useful for debugging code that is using more connections than desired.

`AssertionPool` also logs a traceback of where the original connection was checked out, and reports this in the assertion error raised (new in 0.7).

```
class sqlalchemy.pool.NullPool(creator, recycle=-1, echo=None, use_threadlocal=False, logging_name=None, reset_on_return=True, listeners=None, events=None, _dispatch=None)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.pool.Pool`

A `Pool` which does not pool connections.

Instead it literally opens and closes the underlying DB-API connection per each connection open/close.

Reconnect-related functions such as `recycle` and connection invalidation are not supported by this `Pool` implementation, since no connections are held persistently.

`NullPool` is used by the SQLite dialect automatically when a file-based database is used (as of SQLAlchemy 0.7). See *SQLite*.

```
class sqlalchemy.pool.StaticPool(creator, recycle=-1, echo=None, use_threadlocal=False, logging_name=None, reset_on_return=True, listeners=None, events=None, _dispatch=None)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.pool.Pool`

A `Pool` of exactly one connection, used for all requests.

Reconnect-related functions such as `recycle` and connection invalidation (which is also used to support auto-reconnect) are not currently supported by this `Pool` implementation but may be implemented in a future release.

3.5.7 Pooling Plain DB-API Connections

Any [PEP 249](#) DB-API module can be “proxied” through the connection pool transparently. Usage of the DB-API is exactly as before, except the `connect()` method will consult the pool. Below we illustrate this with `psycopg2`:

```
import sqlalchemy.pool as pool
import psycopg2 as psycopgg
```

```
psycopgg = pool.manage(psycopgg)
```

```
# then connect normally
```

```
connection = psycopgg.connect(database='test', username='scott',
                               password='tiger')
```

This produces a `_DBProxy` object which supports the same `connect()` function as the original DB-API module. Upon connection, a connection proxy object is returned, which delegates its calls to a real DB-API connection object. This connection object is stored persistently within a connection pool (an instance of `Pool`) that corresponds to the exact connection arguments sent to the `connect()` function.

The connection proxy supports all of the methods on the original connection object, most of which are proxied via `__getattr__()`. The `close()` method will return the connection to the pool, and the `cursor()` method will return a proxied cursor object. Both the connection proxy and the cursor proxy will also return the underlying connection to the pool after they have both been garbage collected, which is detected via weakref callbacks (`__del__` is not used).

Additionally, when connections are returned to the pool, a `rollback()` is issued on the connection unconditionally. This is to release any locks still held by the connection that may have resulted from normal activity.

By default, the `connect()` method will return the same connection that is already checked out in the current thread. This allows a particular connection to be used in a given thread without needing to pass it around between functions. To disable this behavior, specify `use_threadlocal=False` to the `manage()` function.

`sqlalchemy.pool.manage(module, **params)`

Return a proxy for a DB-API module that automatically pools connections.

Given a DB-API 2.0 module and pool management parameters, returns a proxy for the module that will automatically pool connections, creating new connection pools for each distinct set of connection arguments sent to the decorated module's `connect()` function.

Parameters

- **module** – a DB-API 2.0 database module
- **poolclass** – the class used by the pool module to provide pooling. Defaults to `QueuePool`.
- ****params** – will be passed through to `poolclass`

`sqlalchemy.pool.clear_managers()`

Remove all current DB-API 2.0 managers.

All pools and connections are disposed.

3.6 Schema Definition Language

3.6.1 Describing Databases with MetaData

The core of SQLAlchemy's query and object mapping operations are supported by *database metadata*, which is comprised of Python objects that describe tables and other schema-level objects. These objects are at the core of three major types of operations - issuing CREATE and DROP statements (known as *DDL*), constructing SQL queries, and expressing information about structures that already exist within the database.

Database metadata can be expressed by explicitly naming the various components and their properties, using constructs such as `Table`, `Column`, `ForeignKey` and `Sequence`, all of which are imported from the `sqlalchemy.schema` package. It can also be generated by SQLAlchemy using a process called *reflection*, which means you start with a single object such as `Table`, assign it a name, and then instruct SQLAlchemy to load all the additional information related to that name from a particular engine source.

A key feature of SQLAlchemy's database metadata constructs is that they are designed to be used in a *declarative* style which closely resembles that of real DDL. They are therefore most intuitive to those who have some background in creating real schema generation scripts.

A collection of metadata entities is stored in an object aptly named `MetaData`:

```
from sqlalchemy import *
```

```
metadata = MetaData()
```

`MetaData` is a container object that keeps together many different features of a database (or multiple databases) being described.

To represent a table, use the `Table` class. Its two primary arguments are the table name, then the `MetaData` object which it will be associated with. The remaining positional arguments are mostly `Column` objects describing each column:

```
user = Table('user', metadata,
             Column('user_id', Integer, primary_key = True),
             Column('user_name', String(16), nullable = False),
             Column('email_address', String(60)),
             Column('password', String(20), nullable = False)
)
```

Above, a table called `user` is described, which contains four columns. The primary key of the table consists of the `user_id` column. Multiple columns may be assigned the `primary_key=True` flag which denotes a multi-column primary key, known as a *composite* primary key.

Note also that each column describes its datatype using objects corresponding to genericized types, such as `Integer` and `String`. SQLAlchemy features dozens of types of varying levels of specificity as well as the ability to create custom types. Documentation on the type system can be found at *types*.

Accessing Tables and Columns

The `MetaData` object contains all of the schema constructs we've associated with it. It supports a few methods of accessing these table objects, such as the `sorted_tables` accessor which returns a list of each `Table` object in order of foreign key dependency (that is, each table is preceded by all tables which it references):

```
>>> for t in metadata.sorted_tables:
...     print t.name
user
user_preference
invoice
invoice_item
```

In most cases, individual `Table` objects have been explicitly declared, and these objects are typically accessed directly as module-level variables in an application. Once a `Table` has been defined, it has a full set of accessors which allow inspection of its properties. Given the following `Table` definition:

```
employees = Table('employees', metadata,
                  Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
                  Column('employee_name', String(60), nullable=False),
                  Column('employee_dept', Integer, ForeignKey("departments.department_id"))
)
```

Note the `ForeignKey` object used in this table - this construct defines a reference to a remote table, and is fully described in *Defining Foreign Keys*. Methods of accessing information about this table include:

```
# access the column "EMPLOYEE_ID":
employees.columns.employee_id

# or just
employees.c.employee_id
```

```
# via string
employees.c['employee_id']

# iterate through all columns
for c in employees.c:
    print c

# get the table's primary key columns
for primary_key in employees.primary_key:
    print primary_key

# get the table's foreign key objects:
for fkey in employees.foreign_keys:
    print fkey

# access the table's MetaData:
employees.metadata

# access the table's bound Engine or Connection, if its MetaData is bound:
employees.bind

# access a column's name, type, nullable, primary key, foreign key
employees.c.employee_id.name
employees.c.employee_id.type
employees.c.employee_id.nullable
employees.c.employee_id.primary_key
employees.c.employee_dept.foreign_keys

# get the "key" of a column, which defaults to its name, but can
# be any user-defined string:
employees.c.employee_name.key

# access a column's table:
employees.c.employee_id.table is employees

# get the table related by a foreign key
list(employees.c.employee_dept.foreign_keys)[0].column.table
```

Creating and Dropping Database Tables

Once you've defined some `Table` objects, assuming you're working with a brand new database one thing you might want to do is issue CREATE statements for those tables and their related constructs (as an aside, it's also quite possible that you *don't* want to do this, if you already have some preferred methodology such as tools included with your database or an existing scripting system - if that's the case, feel free to skip this section - SQLAlchemy has no requirement that it be used to create your tables).

The usual way to issue CREATE is to use `create_all()` on the `MetaData` object. This method will issue queries that first check for the existence of each individual table, and if not found will issue the CREATE statements:

```
engine = create_engine('sqlite:///memory:')

metadata = MetaData()

user = Table('user', metadata,
```

```

        Column('user_id', Integer, primary_key = True),
        Column('user_name', String(16), nullable = False),
        Column('email_address', String(60), key='email'),
        Column('password', String(20), nullable = False)
    )

    user_prefs = Table('user_prefs', metadata,
        Column('pref_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
        Column('user_id', Integer, ForeignKey("user.user_id"), nullable=False),
        Column('pref_name', String(40), nullable=False),
        Column('pref_value', String(100))
    )

    metadata.create_all(engine)
    PRAGMA table_info(user){}
    CREATE TABLE user(
        user_id INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY,
        user_name VARCHAR(16) NOT NULL,
        email_address VARCHAR(60),
        password VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL
    )
    PRAGMA table_info(user_prefs){}
    CREATE TABLE user_prefs(
        pref_id INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY,
        user_id INTEGER NOT NULL REFERENCES user(user_id),
        pref_name VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
        pref_value VARCHAR(100)
    )

```

`create_all()` creates foreign key constraints between tables usually inline with the table definition itself, and for this reason it also generates the tables in order of their dependency. There are options to change this behavior such that `ALTER TABLE` is used instead.

Dropping all tables is similarly achieved using the `drop_all()` method. This method does the exact opposite of `create_all()` - the presence of each table is checked first, and tables are dropped in reverse order of dependency.

Creating and dropping individual tables can be done via the `create()` and `drop()` methods of `Table`. These methods by default issue the `CREATE` or `DROP` regardless of the table being present:

```

engine = create_engine('sqlite:///memory:')

meta = MetaData()

employees = Table('employees', meta,
    Column('employee_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('employee_name', String(60), nullable=False, key='name'),
    Column('employee_dept', Integer, ForeignKey("departments.department_id"))
)
employees.create(engine)
CREATE TABLE employees(
employee_id SERIAL NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY,
employee_name VARCHAR(60) NOT NULL,
employee_dept INTEGER REFERENCES departments(department_id)
)

drop() method:

```

```
employees.drop(engine)
DROP TABLE employee
```

To enable the “check first for the table existing” logic, add the `checkfirst=True` argument to `create()` or `drop()`:

```
employees.create(engine, checkfirst=True)
employees.drop(engine, checkfirst=False)
```

Binding MetaData to an Engine or Connection

Notice in the previous section the creator/dropper methods accept an argument for the database engine in use. When a schema construct is combined with an [Engine](#) object, or an individual [Connection](#) object, we call this the *bind*. In the above examples the bind is associated with the schema construct only for the duration of the operation. However, the option exists to persistently associate a bind with a set of schema constructs via the [MetaData](#) object’s `bind` attribute:

```
engine = create_engine('sqlite://')
```

```
# create MetaData
meta = MetaData()
```

```
# bind to an engine
meta.bind = engine
```

We can now call methods like `create_all()` without needing to pass the [Engine](#):

```
meta.create_all()
```

The [MetaData](#)’s `bind` is used for anything that requires an active connection, such as loading the definition of a table from the database automatically (called *reflection*):

```
# describe a table called 'users', query the database for its columns
users_table = Table('users', meta, autoload=True)
```

As well as for executing SQL constructs that are derived from that [MetaData](#)’s table objects:

```
# generate a SELECT statement and execute
result = users_table.select().execute()
```

Binding the [MetaData](#) to the [Engine](#) is a **completely optional** feature. The above operations can be achieved without the persistent bind using parameters:

```
# describe a table called 'users', query the database for its columns
users_table = Table('users', meta, autoload=True, autoload_with=engine)
```

```
# generate a SELECT statement and execute
result = engine.execute(users_table.select())
```

Should you use `bind` ? It’s probably best to start without it, and wait for a specific need to arise. `Bind` is useful if:

- You aren’t using the ORM, are usually using “connectionless” execution, and find yourself constantly needing to specify the same [Engine](#) object throughout the entire application. `Bind` can be used here to provide “implicit” execution.
- Your application has multiple schemas that correspond to different engines. Using one [MetaData](#) for each schema, bound to each engine, provides a decent place to delineate between the schemas. The ORM will also integrate with this approach, where the [Session](#) will naturally use the engine that is bound to each table via its metadata (provided the [Session](#) itself has no `bind` configured.).

Alternatively, the `bind` attribute of [MetaData](#) is *confusing* if:

- Your application talks to multiple database engines at different times, which use the *same* set of `Table` objects. It's usually confusing and unnecessary to begin to create “copies” of `Table` objects just so that different engines can be used for different operations. An example is an application that writes data to a “master” database while performing read-only operations from a “read slave”. A global `MetaData` object is *not* appropriate for per-request switching like this, although a `ThreadLocalMetaData` object is.
- You are using the ORM `Session` to handle which class/table is bound to which engine, or you are using the `Session` to manage switching between engines. It's a good idea to keep the “binding of tables to engines” in one place - either using `MetaData` only (the `Session` can of course be present, it just has no bind configured), or using `Session` only (the bind attribute of `MetaData` is left empty).

Specifying the Schema Name

Some databases support the concept of multiple schemas. A `Table` can reference this by specifying the `schema` keyword argument:

```
financial_info = Table('financial_info', meta,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('value', String(100), nullable=False),
    schema='remote_banks'
)
```

Within the `MetaData` collection, this table will be identified by the combination of `financial_info` and `remote_banks`. If another table called `financial_info` is referenced without the `remote_banks` schema, it will refer to a different `Table`. `ForeignKey` objects can specify references to columns in this table using the form `remote_banks.financial_info.id`.

The `schema` argument should be used for any name qualifiers required, including Oracle's “owner” attribute and similar. It also can accommodate a dotted name for longer schemes:

```
schema="dbo.scott"
```

Backend-Specific Options

`Table` supports database-specific options. For example, MySQL has different table backend types, including “MyISAM” and “InnoDB”. This can be expressed with `Table` using `mysql_engine`:

```
addresses = Table('engine_email_addresses', meta,
    Column('address_id', Integer, primary_key = True),
    Column('remote_user_id', Integer, ForeignKey(users.c.user_id)),
    Column('email_address', String(20)),
    mysql_engine='InnoDB'
)
```

Other backends may support table-level options as well - these would be described in the individual documentation sections for each dialect.

Column, Table, MetaData API

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.Column(*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.SchemaItem, sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ColumnClause
    Represents a column in a database table.

    __init__(*args, **kwargs)
        Construct a new Column object.
```

Parameters

- **name** – The name of this column as represented in the database. This argument may be the first positional argument, or specified via keyword.

Names which contain no upper case characters will be treated as case insensitive names, and will not be quoted unless they are a reserved word. Names with any number of upper case characters will be quoted and sent exactly. Note that this behavior applies even for databases which standardize upper case names as case insensitive such as Oracle.

The name field may be omitted at construction time and applied later, at any time before the Column is associated with a [Table](#). This is to support convenient usage within the [declarative](#) extension.

- **type_** – The column’s type, indicated using an instance which subclasses [TypeEngine](#). If no arguments are required for the type, the class of the type can be sent as well, e.g.:

```
# use a type with arguments
Column('data', String(50))

# use no arguments
Column('level', Integer)
```

The `type` argument may be the second positional argument or specified by keyword.

There is partial support for automatic detection of the type based on that of a [ForeignKey](#) associated with this column, if the type is specified as `None`. However, this feature is not fully implemented and may not function in all cases.

- ***args** – Additional positional arguments include various [SchemaItem](#) derived constructs which will be applied as options to the column. These include instances of [Constraint](#), [ForeignKey](#), [ColumnDefault](#), and [Sequence](#). In some cases an equivalent keyword argument is available such as `server_default`, `default` and `unique`.
- **autoincrement** – This flag may be set to `False` to indicate an integer primary key column that should not be considered to be the “autoincrement” column, that is the integer primary key column which generates values implicitly upon INSERT and whose value is usually returned via the DBAPI cursor.lastrowid attribute. It defaults to `True` to satisfy the common use case of a table with a single integer primary key column. If the table has a composite primary key consisting of more than one integer column, set this flag to `True` only on the column that should be considered “autoincrement”.

The setting *only* has an effect for columns which are:

- Integer derived (i.e. INT, SMALLINT, BIGINT).
- Part of the primary key
- Are not referenced by any foreign keys
- have no server side or client side defaults (with the exception of Postgresql SERIAL).

The setting has these two effects on columns that meet the above criteria:

- DDL issued for the column will include database-specific keywords intended to signify this column as an “autoincrement” column, such as AUTO INCREMENT on MySQL, SERIAL on Postgresql, and IDENTITY on MS-SQL. It does *not* issue AUTOINCREMENT for SQLite since this is a special SQLite flag that is not required for autoincrementing behavior. See the SQLite dialect documentation for information on SQLite’s AUTOINCREMENT.

- The column will be considered to be available as `cursor.lastrowid` or equivalent, for those dialects which “post fetch” newly inserted identifiers after a row has been inserted (SQLite, MySQL, MS-SQL). It does not have any effect in this regard for databases that use sequences to generate primary key identifiers (i.e. Firebird, Postgresql, Oracle).
- **default** – A scalar, Python callable, or `ClauseElement` representing the *default value* for this column, which will be invoked upon insert if this column is otherwise not specified in the VALUES clause of the insert. This is a shortcut to using `ColumnDefault` as a positional argument.

Contrast this argument to `server_default` which creates a default generator on the database side.
- **doc** – optional String that can be used by the ORM or similar to document attributes. This attribute does not render SQL comments (a future attribute ‘comment’ will achieve that).
- **key** – An optional string identifier which will identify this `Column` object on the `Table`. When a key is provided, this is the only identifier referencing the `Column` within the application, including ORM attribute mapping; the `name` field is used only when rendering SQL.
- **index** – When `True`, indicates that the column is indexed. This is a shortcut for using a `Index` construct on the table. To specify indexes with explicit names or indexes that contain multiple columns, use the `Index` construct instead.
- **info** – A dictionary which defaults to `{}`. A space to store application specific data. This must be a dictionary.
- **nullable** – If set to the default of `True`, indicates the column will be rendered as allowing NULL, else it’s rendered as NOT NULL. This parameter is only used when issuing CREATE TABLE statements.
- **onupdate** – A scalar, Python callable, or `ClauseElement` representing a default value to be applied to the column within UPDATE statements, which will be invoked upon update if this column is not present in the SET clause of the update. This is a shortcut to using `ColumnDefault` as a positional argument with `for_update=True`.
- **primary_key** – If `True`, marks this column as a primary key column. Multiple columns can have this flag set to specify composite primary keys. As an alternative, the primary key of a `Table` can be specified via an explicit `PrimaryKeyConstraint` object.
- **server_default** – A `FetchdValue` instance, str, Unicode or `text()` construct representing the DDL DEFAULT value for the column.

String types will be emitted as-is, surrounded by single quotes:

```
Column('x', Text, server_default="val")
```

```
x TEXT DEFAULT 'val'
```

A `text()` expression will be rendered as-is, without quotes:

```
Column('y', DateTime, server_default=text('NOW()'))
```

```
y DATETIME DEFAULT NOW()
```

Strings and `text()` will be converted into a `DefaultClause` object upon initialization.

Use `FetchdValue` to indicate that an already-existing column will generate a default value on the database side which will be available to SQLAlchemy for post-fetch after

inserts. This construct does not specify any DDL and the implementation is left to the database, such as via a trigger.

- **server_onupdate** – A `FetchValue` instance representing a database-side default generation function. This indicates to SQLAlchemy that a newly generated value will be available after updates. This construct does not specify any DDL and the implementation is left to the database, such as via a trigger.
- **quote** – Force quoting of this column’s name on or off, corresponding to `True` or `False`. When left at its default of `None`, the column identifier will be quoted according to whether the name is case sensitive (identifiers with at least one upper case character are treated as case sensitive), or if it’s a reserved word. This flag is only needed to force quoting of a reserved word which is not known by the SQLAlchemy dialect.
- **unique** – When `True`, indicates that this column contains a unique constraint, or if `index` is `True` as well, indicates that the `Index` should be created with the unique flag. To specify multiple columns in the constraint/index or to specify an explicit name, use the `UniqueConstraint` or `Index` constructs explicitly.

append_foreign_key (*fk*)

copy (***kw*)

Create a copy of this Column, uninitialized.

This is used in `Table.to_metadata`.

get_children (*schema_visitor=False, **kwargs*)

references (*column*)

Return `True` if this Column references the given column via foreign key.

class sqlalchemy.schema.**MetaData** (*bind=None, reflect=False*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.SchemaItem

A collection of Tables and their associated schema constructs.

Holds a collection of Tables and an optional binding to an `Engine` or `Connection`. If bound, the `Table` objects in the collection and their columns may participate in implicit SQL execution.

The `Table` objects themselves are stored in the `metadata.tables` dictionary.

The `bind` property may be assigned to dynamically. A common pattern is to start unbound and then bind later when an engine is available:

```
metadata = MetaData()
# define tables
Table('mytable', metadata, ...)
# connect to an engine later, perhaps after loading a URL from a
# configuration file
metadata.bind = an_engine
```

`MetaData` is a thread-safe object after tables have been explicitly defined or loaded via reflection.

__init__ (*bind=None, reflect=False*)

Create a new `MetaData` object.

Parameters

- **bind** – An `Engine` or `Connection` to bind to. May also be a string or `URL` instance, these are passed to `create_engine()` and this `MetaData` will be bound to the resulting engine.

- **reflect** – Optional, automatically load all tables from the bound database. Defaults to False. `bind` is required when this option is set. For finer control over loaded tables, use the `reflect` method of `MetaData`.

append_ddl_listener (*event_name, listener*)

Append a DDL event listener to this `MetaData`.

Deprecated. See `DDLEvents`.

bind

An `Engine` or `Connection` to which this `MetaData` is bound.

This property may be assigned an `Engine` or `Connection`, or assigned a string or URL to automatically create a basic `Engine` for this `bind` with `create_engine()`.

clear ()

Clear all `Table` objects from this `MetaData`.

create_all (*bind=None, tables=None, checkfirst=True*)

Create all tables stored in this metadata.

Conditional by default, will not attempt to recreate tables already present in the target database.

Parameters

- **bind** – A `Connectable` used to access the database; if None, uses the existing bind on this `MetaData`, if any.
- **tables** – Optional list of `Table` objects, which is a subset of the total tables in the `MetaData` (others are ignored).
- **checkfirst** – Defaults to True, don't issue CREATEs for tables already present in the target database.

drop_all (*bind=None, tables=None, checkfirst=True*)

Drop all tables stored in this metadata.

Conditional by default, will not attempt to drop tables not present in the target database.

Parameters

- **bind** – A `Connectable` used to access the database; if None, uses the existing bind on this `MetaData`, if any.
- **tables** – Optional list of `Table` objects, which is a subset of the total tables in the `MetaData` (others are ignored).
- **checkfirst** – Defaults to True, only issue DROPs for tables confirmed to be present in the target database.

is_bound ()

True if this `MetaData` is bound to an `Engine` or `Connection`.

reflect (*bind=None, schema=None, views=False, only=None*)

Load all available table definitions from the database.

Automatically creates `Table` entries in this `MetaData` for any table available in the database but not yet present in the `MetaData`. May be called multiple times to pick up tables recently added to the database, however no special action is taken if a table in this `MetaData` no longer exists in the database.

Parameters

- **bind** – A `Connectable` used to access the database; if None, uses the existing bind on this `MetaData`, if any.

- **schema** – Optional, query and reflect tables from an alterate schema.
- **views** – If True, also reflect views.
- **only** – Optional. Load only a sub-set of available named tables. May be specified as a sequence of names or a callable.

If a sequence of names is provided, only those tables will be reflected. An error is raised if a table is requested but not available. Named tables already present in this `MetaData` are ignored.

If a callable is provided, it will be used as a boolean predicate to filter the list of potential table names. The callable is called with a table name and this `MetaData` instance as positional arguments and should return a true value for any table to reflect.

remove (*table*)

Remove the given Table object from this `MetaData`.

sorted_tables

Returns a list of Table objects sorted in order of dependency.

class sqlalchemy.schema.**SchemaItem**

Bases: sqlalchemy.events.SchemaEventTarget, sqlalchemy.sql.visitors.Visitable

Base class for items that define a database schema.

class sqlalchemy.schema.**Table** (*args, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.SchemaItem, sqlalchemy.sql.expression.TableClause

Represent a table in a database.

e.g.:

```
mytable = Table("mytable", metadata,
                Column('mytable_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
                Column('value', String(50))
                )
```

The `Table` object constructs a unique instance of itself based on its name and optionl schema name within the given `MetaData` object. Calling the `Table` constructor with the same name and same `MetaData` argument a second time will return the *same* `Table` object - in this way the `Table` constructor acts as a registry function.

Constructor arguments are as follows:

Parameters

- **name** – The name of this table as represented in the database.

This property, along with the *schema*, indicates the *singleton identity* of this table in relation to its parent `MetaData`. Additional calls to `Table` with the same name, metadata, and schema name will return the same `Table` object.

Names which contain no upper case characters will be treated as case insensitive names, and will not be quoted unless they are a reserved word. Names with any number of upper case characters will be quoted and sent exactly. Note that this behavior applies even for databases which standardize upper case names as case insensitive such as Oracle.

- **metadata** – a `MetaData` object which will contain this table. The metadata is used as a point of association of this table with other tables which are referenced via foreign key. It also may be used to associate this table with a particular `Connectable`.
- ***args** – Additional positional arguments are used primarily to add the list of `Column` objects contained within this table. Similar to the style of a CREATE TABLE statement, other

`SchemaItem` constructs may be added here, including `PrimaryKeyConstraint`, and `ForeignKeyConstraint`.

- **autoload** – Defaults to `False`: the `Columns` for this table should be reflected from the database. Usually there will be no `Column` objects in the constructor if this property is set.
- **autoload_with** – If `autoload==True`, this is an optional `Engine` or `Connection` instance to be used for the table reflection. If `None`, the underlying `MetaData`’s bound connectable will be used.
- **extend_existing** – When `True`, indicates that if this `Table` is already present in the given `MetaData`, apply further arguments within the constructor to the existing `Table`.

If `extend_existing` or `keep_existing` are not set, an error is raised if additional table modifiers are specified when the given `Table` is already present in the `MetaData`.

- **implicit_returning** – `True` by default - indicates that `RETURNING` can be used by default to fetch newly inserted primary key values, for backends which support this. Note that `create_engine()` also provides an `implicit_returning` flag.
- **include_columns** – A list of strings indicating a subset of columns to be loaded via the `autoload` operation; table columns who aren’t present in this list will not be represented on the resulting `Table` object. Defaults to `None` which indicates all columns should be reflected.
- **info** – A dictionary which defaults to `{}`. A space to store application specific data. This must be a dictionary.
- **keep_existing** – When `True`, indicates that if this `Table` is already present in the given `MetaData`, ignore further arguments within the constructor to the existing `Table`, and return the `Table` object as originally created. This is to allow a function that wishes to define a new `Table` on first call, but on subsequent calls will return the same `Table`, without any of the declarations (particularly constraints) being applied a second time. Also see `extend_existing`.

If `extend_existing` or `keep_existing` are not set, an error is raised if additional table modifiers are specified when the given `Table` is already present in the `MetaData`.

- **listeners** – A list of tuples of the form `(<eventname>, <fn>)` which will be passed to `event.listen()` upon construction. This alternate hook to `event.listen()` allows the establishment of a listener function specific to this `Table` before the “autoload” process begins. Particularly useful for the `events.column_reflect()` event:

```
def listen_for_reflect(table, column_info):
    "handle the column reflection event"
    # ...

t = Table(
    'sometable',
    autoload=True,
    listeners=[
        ('column_reflect', listen_for_reflect)
    ])
```

- **mustexist** – When `True`, indicates that this `Table` must already be present in the given `MetaData`’ collection, else an exception is raised.

- **prefixes** – A list of strings to insert after CREATE in the CREATE TABLE statement. They will be separated by spaces.
- **quote** – Force quoting of this table’s name on or off, corresponding to `True` or `False`. When left at its default of `None`, the column identifier will be quoted according to whether the name is case sensitive (identifiers with at least one upper case character are treated as case sensitive), or if it’s a reserved word. This flag is only needed to force quoting of a reserved word which is not known by the SQLAlchemy dialect.
- **quote_schema** – same as ‘quote’ but applies to the schema identifier.
- **schema** – The *schema name* for this table, which is required if the table resides in a schema other than the default selected schema for the engine’s database connection. Defaults to `None`.
- **useexisting** – Deprecated. Use `extend_existing`.

__init__ (**args, **kw*)
Constructor for `Table`.

This method is a no-op. See the top-level documentation for `Table` for constructor arguments.

add_is_dependent_on (*table*)
Add a ‘dependency’ for this `Table`.

This is another `Table` object which must be created first before this one can, or dropped after this one.

Usually, dependencies between tables are determined via `ForeignKey` objects. However, for other situations that create dependencies outside of foreign keys (rules, inheriting), this method can manually establish such a link.

append_column (*column*)
Append a `Column` to this `Table`.

The “key” of the newly added `Column`, i.e. the value of its `.key` attribute, will then be available in the `.c` collection of this `Table`, and the column definition will be included in any CREATE TABLE, SELECT, UPDATE, etc. statements generated from this `Table` construct.

Note that this does **not** change the definition of the table as it exists within any underlying database, assuming that table has already been created in the database. Relational databases support the addition of columns to existing tables using the SQL ALTER command, which would need to be emitted for an already-existing table that doesn’t contain the newly added column.

append_constraint (*constraint*)
Append a `Constraint` to this `Table`.

This has the effect of the constraint being included in any future CREATE TABLE statement, assuming specific DDL creation events have not been associated with the given `Constraint` object.

Note that this does **not** produce the constraint within the relational database automatically, for a table that already exists in the database. To add a constraint to an existing relational database table, the SQL ALTER command must be used. SQLAlchemy also provides the `AddConstraint` construct which can produce this SQL when invoked as an executable clause.

append_ddl_listener (*event_name, listener*)
Append a DDL event listener to this `Table`.

Deprecated. See `DDLEvents`.

bind
Return the connectable associated with this `Table`.

create (*bind=None, checkfirst=False*)

Issue a CREATE statement for this `Table`, using the given `Connectable` for connectivity.

See also `MetaData.create_all()`.

drop (*bind=None, checkfirst=False*)

Issue a DROP statement for this `Table`, using the given `Connectable` for connectivity.

See also `MetaData.drop_all()`.

exists (*bind=None*)

Return True if this table exists.

get_children (*column_collections=True, schema_visitor=False, **kw*)

key

tometadata (*metadata, schema=<symbol 'retain_schema'>*)

Return a copy of this `Table` associated with a different `MetaData`.

E.g.:

```
# create two metadata
meta1 = MetaData('sqlite:///querytest.db')
meta2 = MetaData()

# load 'users' from the sqlite engine
users_table = Table('users', meta1, autoload=True)

# create the same Table object for the plain metadata
users_table_2 = users_table.tometadata(meta2)
```

class sqlalchemy.schema.**ThreadLocalMetaData**

Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.MetaData

A `MetaData` variant that presents a different `bind` in every thread.

Makes the `bind` property of the `MetaData` a thread-local value, allowing this collection of tables to be bound to different `Engine` implementations or connections in each thread.

The `ThreadLocalMetaData` starts off bound to `None` in each thread. Binds must be made explicitly by assigning to the `bind` property or using `connect()`. You can also re-bind dynamically multiple times per thread, just like a regular `MetaData`.

__init__ ()

Construct a `ThreadLocalMetaData`.

bind

The bound `Engine` or `Connection` for this thread.

This property may be assigned an `Engine` or `Connection`, or assigned a string or URL to automatically create a basic `Engine` for this bind with `create_engine()`.

dispose ()

Dispose all bound engines, in all thread contexts.

is_bound ()

True if there is a bind for this thread.

3.6.2 Reflecting Database Objects

A `Table` object can be instructed to load information about itself from the corresponding database schema object already existing within the database. This process is called *reflection*. Most simply you need only specify the table name, a `MetaData` object, and the `autoload=True` flag. If the `MetaData` is not persistently bound, also add the `autoload_with` argument:

```
>>> messages = Table('messages', meta, autoload=True, autoload_with=engine)
>>> [c.name for c in messages.columns]
['message_id', 'message_name', 'date']
```

The above operation will use the given engine to query the database for information about the `messages` table, and will then generate `Column`, `ForeignKey`, and other objects corresponding to this information as though the `Table` object were hand-constructed in Python.

When tables are reflected, if a given table references another one via foreign key, a second `Table` object is created within the `MetaData` object representing the connection. Below, assume the table `shopping_cart_items` references a table named `shopping_carts`. Reflecting the `shopping_cart_items` table has the effect such that the `shopping_carts` table will also be loaded:

```
>>> shopping_cart_items = Table('shopping_cart_items', meta, autoload=True, autoload_with=engine)
>>> 'shopping_carts' in meta.tables:
True
```

The `MetaData` has an interesting “singleton-like” behavior such that if you requested both tables individually, `MetaData` will ensure that exactly one `Table` object is created for each distinct table name. The `Table` constructor actually returns to you the already-existing `Table` object if one already exists with the given name. Such as below, we can access the already generated `shopping_carts` table just by naming it:

```
shopping_carts = Table('shopping_carts', meta)
```

Of course, it’s a good idea to use `autoload=True` with the above table regardless. This is so that the table’s attributes will be loaded if they have not been already. The `autoload` operation only occurs for the table if it hasn’t already been loaded; once loaded, new calls to `Table` with the same name will not re-issue any reflection queries.

Overriding Reflected Columns

Individual columns can be overridden with explicit values when reflecting tables; this is handy for specifying custom datatypes, constraints such as primary keys that may not be configured within the database, etc.:

```
>>> mytable = Table('mytable', meta,
... Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),    # override reflected 'id' to have primary key
... Column('mydata', Unicode(50)),              # override reflected 'mydata' to be Unicode
... autoload=True)
```

Reflecting Views

The reflection system can also reflect views. Basic usage is the same as that of a table:

```
my_view = Table("some_view", metadata, autoload=True)
```

Above, `my_view` is a `Table` object with `Column` objects representing the names and types of each column within the view “some_view”.

Usually, it’s desired to have at least a primary key constraint when reflecting a view, if not foreign keys as well. View reflection doesn’t extrapolate these constraints.

Use the “override” technique for this, specifying explicitly those columns which are part of the primary key or have foreign key constraints:

```
my_view = Table("some_view", metadata,
                Column("view_id", Integer, primary_key=True),
                Column("related_thing", Integer, ForeignKey("othertable.thing_id")),
                autoload=True
            )
```

Reflecting All Tables at Once

The `MetaData` object can also get a listing of tables and reflect the full set. This is achieved by using the `reflect()` method. After calling it, all located tables are present within the `MetaData` object's dictionary of tables:

```
meta = MetaData()
meta.reflect(bind=someengine)
users_table = meta.tables['users']
addresses_table = meta.tables['addresses']
```

`metadata.reflect()` also provides a handy way to clear or delete all the rows in a database:

```
meta = MetaData()
meta.reflect(bind=someengine)
for table in reversed(meta.sorted_tables):
    someengine.execute(table.delete())
```

Fine Grained Reflection with Inspector

A low level interface which provides a backend-agnostic system of loading lists of schema, table, column, and constraint descriptions from a given database is also available. This is known as the “Inspector”:

```
from sqlalchemy import create_engine
from sqlalchemy.engine import reflection
engine = create_engine('...')
insp = reflection.Inspector.from_engine(engine)
print insp.get_table_names()
```

```
class sqlalchemy.engine.reflection.Inspector(bind)
    Bases: object
```

Performs database schema inspection.

The Inspector acts as a proxy to the reflection methods of the `Dialect`, providing a consistent interface as well as caching support for previously fetched metadata.

The preferred method to construct an `Inspector` is via the `Inspector.from_engine()` method. I.e.:

```
engine = create_engine('...')
insp = Inspector.from_engine(engine)
```

Where above, the `Dialect` may opt to return an `Inspector` subclass that provides additional methods specific to the dialect's target database.

```
__init__(bind)
    Initialize a new Inspector.
```

Parameters `bind` – a `Connectable`, which is typically an instance of `Engine` or `Connection`.

For a dialect-specific instance of `Inspector`, see `Inspector.from_engine()`

default_schema_name

Return the default schema name presented by the dialect for the current engine's database user.

E.g. this is typically `public` for Postgresql and `dbo` for SQL Server.

classmethod from_engine (*bind*)

Construct a new dialect-specific Inspector object from the given engine or connection.

Parameters *bind* – a `Connectable`, which is typically an instance of `Engine` or `Connection`.

This method differs from direct a direct constructor call of `Inspector` in that the `Dialect` is given a chance to provide a dialect-specific `Inspector` instance, which may provide additional methods.

See the example at `Inspector`.

get_columns (*table_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return information about columns in *table_name*.

Given a string *table_name* and an optional string *schema*, return column information as a list of dicts with these keys:

name the column's name

type `TypeEngine`

nullable boolean

default the column's default value

attrs dict containing optional column attributes

get_foreign_keys (*table_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return information about foreign_keys in *table_name*.

Given a string *table_name*, and an optional string *schema*, return foreign key information as a list of dicts with these keys:

constrained_columns a list of column names that make up the foreign key

referred_schema the name of the referred schema

referred_table the name of the referred table

referred_columns a list of column names in the referred table that correspond to *constrained_columns*

name optional name of the foreign key constraint.

****kw** other options passed to the dialect's `get_foreign_keys()` method.

get_indexes (*table_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return information about indexes in *table_name*.

Given a string *table_name* and an optional string *schema*, return index information as a list of dicts with these keys:

name the index's name

column_names list of column names in order

unique boolean

****kw** other options passed to the dialect's `get_indexes()` method.

get_pk_constraint (*table_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return information about primary key constraint on *table_name*.

Given a string *table_name*, and an optional string *schema*, return primary key information as a dictionary with these keys:

constrained_columns a list of column names that make up the primary key

name optional name of the primary key constraint.

get_primary_keys (*table_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return information about primary keys in *table_name*.

Given a string *table_name*, and an optional string *schema*, return primary key information as a list of column names.

get_schema_names ()

Return all schema names.

get_table_names (*schema=None*, *order_by=None*)

Return all table names in *schema*.

Parameters

- **schema** – Optional, retrieve names from a non-default schema.
- **order_by** – Optional, may be the string “foreign_key” to sort the result on foreign key dependencies.

This should probably not return view names or maybe it should return them with an indicator t or v.

get_table_options (*table_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return a dictionary of options specified when the table of the given name was created.

This currently includes some options that apply to MySQL tables.

get_view_definition (*view_name*, *schema=None*)

Return definition for *view_name*.

Parameters **schema** – Optional, retrieve names from a non-default schema.

get_view_names (*schema=None*)

Return all view names in *schema*.

Parameters **schema** – Optional, retrieve names from a non-default schema.

reflecttable (*table*, *include_columns*)

Given a Table object, load its internal constructs based on introspection.

This is the underlying method used by most dialects to produce table reflection. Direct usage is like:

```
from sqlalchemy import create_engine, MetaData, Table
from sqlalchemy.engine import reflection
```

```
engine = create_engine('...')
meta = MetaData()
user_table = Table('user', meta)
insp = Inspector.from_engine(engine)
insp.reflecttable(user_table, None)
```

Parameters

- **table** – a Table instance.
- **include_columns** – a list of string column names to include in the reflection process. If None, all columns are reflected.

3.6.3 Column Insert/Update Defaults

SQLAlchemy provides a very rich featureset regarding column level events which take place during INSERT and UPDATE statements. Options include:

- Scalar values used as defaults during INSERT and UPDATE operations
- Python functions which execute upon INSERT and UPDATE operations
- SQL expressions which are embedded in INSERT statements (or in some cases execute beforehand)
- SQL expressions which are embedded in UPDATE statements
- Server side default values used during INSERT
- Markers for server-side triggers used during UPDATE

The general rule for all insert/update defaults is that they only take effect if no value for a particular column is passed as an `execute()` parameter; otherwise, the given value is used.

Scalar Defaults

The simplest kind of default is a scalar value used as the default value of a column:

```
Table("mytable", meta,
      Column("somecolumn", Integer, default=12)
)
```

Above, the value “12” will be bound as the column value during an INSERT if no other value is supplied.

A scalar value may also be associated with an UPDATE statement, though this is not very common (as UPDATE statements are usually looking for dynamic defaults):

```
Table("mytable", meta,
      Column("somecolumn", Integer, onupdate=25)
)
```

Python-Executed Functions

The `default` and `onupdate` keyword arguments also accept Python functions. These functions are invoked at the time of insert or update if no other value for that column is supplied, and the value returned is used for the column’s value. Below illustrates a crude “sequence” that assigns an incrementing counter to a primary key column:

```
# a function which counts upwards
i = 0
def mydefault():
    global i
    i += 1
    return i

t = Table("mytable", meta,
      Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True, default=mydefault),
)
```

It should be noted that for real “incrementing sequence” behavior, the built-in capabilities of the database should normally be used, which may include sequence objects or other autoincrementing capabilities. For primary key columns, SQLAlchemy will in most cases use these capabilities automatically. See the API documentation for `Column` including the `autoincrement` flag, as well as the section on [Sequence](#) later in this chapter for background on standard primary key generation techniques.

To illustrate `onupdate`, we assign the Python `datetime` function `now` to the `onupdate` attribute:

```
import datetime

t = Table("mytable", meta,
        Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),

        # define 'last_updated' to be populated with datetime.now()
        Column('last_updated', DateTime, onupdate=datetime.datetime.now),
)
```

When an update statement executes and no value is passed for `last_updated`, the `datetime.datetime.now()` Python function is executed and its return value used as the value for `last_updated`. Notice that we provide `now` as the function itself without calling it (i.e. there are no parenthesis following) - SQLAlchemy will execute the function at the time the statement executes.

Context-Sensitive Default Functions

The Python functions used by `default` and `onupdate` may also make use of the current statement's context in order to determine a value. The *context* of a statement is an internal SQLAlchemy object which contains all information about the statement being executed, including its source expression, the parameters associated with it and the cursor. The typical use case for this context with regards to default generation is to have access to the other values being inserted or updated on the row. To access the context, provide a function that accepts a single `context` argument:

```
def mydefault(context):
    return context.current_parameters['counter'] + 12

t = Table('mytable', meta,
        Column('counter', Integer),
        Column('counter_plus_twelve', Integer, default=mydefault, onupdate=mydefault)
)
```

Above we illustrate a default function which will execute for all INSERT and UPDATE statements where a value for `counter_plus_twelve` was otherwise not provided, and the value will be that of whatever value is present in the execution for the `counter` column, plus the number 12.

While the context object passed to the default function has many attributes, the `current_parameters` member is a special member provided only during the execution of a default function for the purposes of deriving defaults from its existing values. For a single statement that is executing many sets of bind parameters, the user-defined function is called for each set of parameters, and `current_parameters` will be provided with each individual parameter set for each execution.

SQL Expressions

The “default” and “onupdate” keywords may also be passed SQL expressions, including select statements or direct function calls:

```
t = Table("mytable", meta,
        Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),

        # define 'create_date' to default to now()
        Column('create_date', DateTime, default=func.now()),

        # define 'key' to pull its default from the 'keyvalues' table
        Column('key', String(20), default=keyvalues.select(keyvalues.c.type='type1', limit=1)),
)
```

```
# define 'last_modified' to use the current_timestamp SQL function on update
Column('last_modified', DateTime, onupdate=func.utcnow_timestamp())
)
```

Above, the `create_date` column will be populated with the result of the `now()` SQL function (which, depending on backend, compiles into `NOW()` or `CURRENT_TIMESTAMP` in most cases) during an `INSERT` statement, and the key column with the result of a `SELECT` subquery from another table. The `last_modified` column will be populated with the value of `UTC_TIMESTAMP()`, a function specific to MySQL, when an `UPDATE` statement is emitted for this table.

Note that when using `func` functions, unlike when using Python *datetime* functions we *do* call the function, i.e. with parenthesis “()” - this is because what we want in this case is the return value of the function, which is the SQL expression construct that will be rendered into the `INSERT` or `UPDATE` statement.

The above SQL functions are usually executed “inline” with the `INSERT` or `UPDATE` statement being executed, meaning, a single statement is executed which embeds the given expressions or subqueries within the `VALUES` or `SET` clause of the statement. Although in some cases, the function is “pre-executed” in a `SELECT` statement of its own beforehand. This happens when all of the following is true:

- the column is a primary key column
- the database dialect does not support a usable `cursor.lastrowid` accessor (or equivalent); this currently includes PostgreSQL, Oracle, and Firebird, as well as some MySQL dialects.
- the dialect does not support the “RETURNING” clause or similar, or the `implicit_returning` flag is set to `False` for the dialect. Dialects which support RETURNING currently include Postgresql, Oracle, Firebird, and MS-SQL.
- the statement is a single execution, i.e. only supplies one set of parameters and doesn’t use “executemany” behavior
- the `inline=True` flag is not set on the `Insert()` or `Update()` construct, and the statement has not defined an explicit `returning()` clause.

Whether or not the default generation clause “pre-executes” is not something that normally needs to be considered, unless it is being addressed for performance reasons.

When the statement is executed with a single set of parameters (that is, it is not an “executemany” style execution), the returned `ResultProxy` will contain a collection accessible via `result.postfetch_cols()` which contains a list of all `Column` objects which had an inline-executed default. Similarly, all parameters which were bound to the statement, including all Python and SQL expressions which were pre-executed, are present in the `last_inserted_params()` or `last_updated_params()` collections on `ResultProxy`. The `inserted_primary_key` collection contains a list of primary key values for the row inserted (a list so that single-column and composite-column primary keys are represented in the same format).

Server Side Defaults

A variant on the SQL expression default is the `server_default`, which gets placed in the `CREATE TABLE` statement during a `create()` operation:

```
t = Table('test', meta,
    Column('abc', String(20), server_default='abc'),
    Column('created_at', DateTime, server_default=text("sysdate"))
)
```

A create call for the above table will produce:

```
CREATE TABLE test (
    abc varchar(20) default 'abc',
```



```

        created_at datetime default sysdate
    )

```

The behavior of `server_default` is similar to that of a regular SQL default; if it's placed on a primary key column for a database which doesn't have a way to "postfetch" the ID, and the statement is not "inlined", the SQL expression is pre-executed; otherwise, SQLAlchemy lets the default fire off on the database side normally.

Triggered Columns

Columns with values set by a database trigger or other external process may be called out with a marker:

```

t = Table('test', meta,
        Column('abc', String(20), server_default=FetchValue()),
        Column('def', String(20), server_onupdate=FetchValue())
)

```

These markers do not emit a "default" clause when the table is created, however they do set the same internal flags as a static `server_default` clause, providing hints to higher-level tools that a "post-fetch" of these rows should be performed after an insert or update.

Defining Sequences

SQLAlchemy represents database sequences using the `Sequence` object, which is considered to be a special case of "column default". It only has an effect on databases which have explicit support for sequences, which currently includes Postgresql, Oracle, and Firebird. The `Sequence` object is otherwise ignored.

The `Sequence` may be placed on any column as a "default" generator to be used during INSERT operations, and can also be configured to fire off during UPDATE operations if desired. It is most commonly used in conjunction with a single integer primary key column:

```

table = Table("cartitems", meta,
        Column("cart_id", Integer, Sequence('cart_id_seq'), primary_key=True),
        Column("description", String(40)),
        Column("createdate", DateTime())
)

```

Where above, the table "cartitems" is associated with a sequence named "cart_id_seq". When INSERT statements take place for "cartitems", and no value is passed for the "cart_id" column, the "cart_id_seq" sequence will be used to generate a value.

When the `Sequence` is associated with a table, CREATE and DROP statements issued for that table will also issue CREATE/DROP for the sequence object as well, thus "bundling" the sequence object with its parent table.

The `Sequence` object also implements special functionality to accommodate Postgresql's SERIAL datatype. The SERIAL type in PG automatically generates a sequence that is used implicitly during inserts. This means that if a `Table` object defines a `Sequence` on its primary key column so that it works with Oracle and Firebird, the `Sequence` would get in the way of the "implicit" sequence that PG would normally use. For this use case, add the flag `optional=True` to the `Sequence` object - this indicates that the `Sequence` should only be used if the database provides no other option for generating primary key identifiers.

The `Sequence` object also has the ability to be executed standalone like a SQL expression, which has the effect of calling its "next value" function:

```

seq = Sequence('some_sequence')
nextid = connection.execute(seq)

```

Default Objects API

class sqlalchemy.schema.**ColumnDefault** (*arg*, ***kwargs*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.DefaultGenerator

A plain default value on a column.

This could correspond to a constant, a callable function, or a SQL clause.

`ColumnDefault` is generated automatically whenever the `default`, `onupdate` arguments of `Column` are used. A `ColumnDefault` can be passed positionally as well.

For example, the following:

```
Column('foo', Integer, default=50)
```

Is equivalent to:

```
Column('foo', Integer, ColumnDefault(50))
```

class sqlalchemy.schema.**DefaultClause** (*arg*, *for_update=False*, *_reflected=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.FetchedValue

A DDL-specified DEFAULT column value.

`DefaultClause` is a `FetchedValue` that also generates a “DEFAULT” clause when “CREATE TABLE” is emitted.

`DefaultClause` is generated automatically whenever the `server_default`, `server_onupdate` arguments of `Column` are used. A `DefaultClause` can be passed positionally as well.

For example, the following:

```
Column('foo', Integer, server_default="50")
```

Is equivalent to:

```
Column('foo', Integer, DefaultClause("50"))
```

class sqlalchemy.schema.**DefaultGenerator** (*for_update=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.schema._NotAColumnExpr, sqlalchemy.schema.SchemaItem

Base class for column *default* values.

class sqlalchemy.schema.**FetchedValue** (*for_update=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.schema._NotAColumnExpr, sqlalchemy.events.SchemaEventTarget

A marker for a transparent database-side default.

Use `FetchedValue` when the database is configured to provide some automatic default for a column.

E.g.:

```
Column('foo', Integer, FetchedValue())
```

Would indicate that some trigger or default generator will create a new value for the `foo` column during an INSERT.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.PassiveDefault (*arg, **kw)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.DefaultClause
```

A DDL-specified DEFAULT column value. Deprecated since version 0.6: `PassiveDefault` is deprecated. Use `DefaultClause`.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.Sequence (name, start=None, increment=None, schema=None, optional=False, quote=None, metadata=None, for_update=False)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.DefaultGenerator
```

Represents a named database sequence.

The `Sequence` object represents the name and configurational parameters of a database sequence. It also represents a construct that can be “executed” by a SQLAlchemy `Engine` or `Connection`, rendering the appropriate “next value” function for the target database and returning a result.

The `Sequence` is typically associated with a primary key column:

```
some_table = Table('some_table', metadata,
    Column('id', Integer, Sequence('some_table_seq'), primary_key=True)
)
```

When CREATE TABLE is emitted for the above `Table`, if the target platform supports sequences, a CREATE SEQUENCE statement will be emitted as well. For platforms that don’t support sequences, the `Sequence` construct is ignored.

See also: `CreateSequence` `DropSequence`

```
__init__ (name, start=None, increment=None, schema=None, optional=False, quote=None, metadata=None, for_update=False)
```

Construct a `Sequence` object.

Parameters

- **name** – The name of the sequence.
- **start** – the starting index of the sequence. This value is used when the CREATE SEQUENCE command is emitted to the database as the value of the “START WITH” clause. If `None`, the clause is omitted, which on most platforms indicates a starting value of 1.
- **increment** – the increment value of the sequence. This value is used when the CREATE SEQUENCE command is emitted to the database as the value of the “INCREMENT BY” clause. If `None`, the clause is omitted, which on most platforms indicates an increment of 1.
- **schema** – Optional schema name for the sequence, if located in a schema other than the default.
- **optional** – boolean value, when `True`, indicates that this `Sequence` object only needs to be explicitly generated on backends that don’t provide another way to generate primary key identifiers. Currently, it essentially means, “don’t create this sequence on the PostgreSQL backend, where the SERIAL keyword creates a sequence for us automatically”.
- **quote** – boolean value, when `True` or `False`, explicitly forces quoting of the schema name on or off. When left at its default of `None`, normal quoting rules based on casing and reserved words take place.
- **metadata** – optional `MetaData` object which will be associated with this `Sequence`. A `Sequence` that is associated with a `MetaData` gains access to the bind of that `MetaData`, meaning the `Sequence.create()` and `Sequence.drop()` methods will make usage of that engine automatically. Additionally, the appropriate CREATE SEQUENCE/ DROP SEQUENCE DDL commands will be emitted corresponding to this

`Sequence` when `MetaData.create_all()` and `MetaData.drop_all()` are invoked (new in 0.7).

Note that when a `Sequence` is applied to a `Column`, the `Sequence` is automatically associated with the `MetaData` object of that column's parent `Table`, when that association is made. The `Sequence` will then be subject to automatic CREATE SEQUENCE/DROP SEQUENCE corresponding to when the `Table` object itself is created or dropped, rather than that of the `MetaData` object overall.

- **for_update** – Indicates this `Sequence`, when associated with a `Column`, should be invoked for UPDATE statements on that column's table, rather than for INSERT statements, when no value is otherwise present for that column in the statement.

create (*bind=None, checkfirst=True*)

Creates this sequence in the database.

drop (*bind=None, checkfirst=True*)

Drops this sequence from the database.

next_value ()

Return a `next_value` function element which will render the appropriate increment function for this `Sequence` within any SQL expression.

3.6.4 Defining Constraints and Indexes

Defining Foreign Keys

A *foreign key* in SQL is a table-level construct that constrains one or more columns in that table to only allow values that are present in a different set of columns, typically but not always located on a different table. We call the columns which are constrained the *foreign key* columns and the columns which they are constrained towards the *referenced* columns. The referenced columns almost always define the primary key for their owning table, though there are exceptions to this. The foreign key is the “joint” that connects together pairs of rows which have a relationship with each other, and SQLAlchemy assigns very deep importance to this concept in virtually every area of its operation.

In SQLAlchemy as well as in DDL, foreign key constraints can be defined as additional attributes within the table clause, or for single-column foreign keys they may optionally be specified within the definition of a single column. The single column foreign key is more common, and at the column level is specified by constructing a `ForeignKey` object as an argument to a `Column` object:

```
user_preference = Table('user_preference', metadata,
    Column('pref_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('user_id', Integer, ForeignKey("user.user_id"), nullable=False),
    Column('pref_name', String(40), nullable=False),
    Column('pref_value', String(100))
)
```

Above, we define a new table `user_preference` for which each row must contain a value in the `user_id` column that also exists in the `user` table's `user_id` column.

The argument to `ForeignKey` is most commonly a string of the form `<tablename>.<columnname>`, or for a table in a remote schema or “owner” of the form `<schemaname>.<tablename>.<columnname>`. It may also be an actual `Column` object, which as we'll see later is accessed from an existing `Table` object via its `c` collection:

```
ForeignKey(user.c.user_id)
```

The advantage to using a string is that the in-python linkage between `user` and `user_preference` is resolved only when first needed, so that table objects can be easily spread across multiple modules and defined in any order.

Foreign keys may also be defined at the table level, using the `ForeignKeyConstraint` object. This object can describe a single- or multi-column foreign key. A multi-column foreign key is known as a *composite* foreign key, and almost always references a table that has a composite primary key. Below we define a table `invoice` which has a composite primary key:

```
invoice = Table('invoice', metadata,
    Column('invoice_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('ref_num', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('description', String(60), nullable=False)
)
```

And then a table `invoice_item` with a composite foreign key referencing `invoice`:

```
invoice_item = Table('invoice_item', metadata,
    Column('item_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('item_name', String(60), nullable=False),
    Column('invoice_id', Integer, nullable=False),
    Column('ref_num', Integer, nullable=False),
    ForeignKeyConstraint(['invoice_id', 'ref_num'], ['invoice.invoice_id', 'invoice.ref_num'])
)
```

It's important to note that the `ForeignKeyConstraint` is the only way to define a composite foreign key. While we could also have placed individual `ForeignKey` objects on both the `invoice_item.invoice_id` and `invoice_item.ref_num` columns, SQLAlchemy would not be aware that these two values should be paired together - it would be two individual foreign key constraints instead of a single composite foreign key referencing two columns.

Creating/Dropping Foreign Key Constraints via ALTER

In all the above examples, the `ForeignKey` object causes the “REFERENCES” keyword to be added inline to a column definition within a “CREATE TABLE” statement when `create_all()` is issued, and `ForeignKeyConstraint` invokes the “CONSTRAINT” keyword inline with “CREATE TABLE”. There are some cases where this is undesirable, particularly when two tables reference each other mutually, each with a foreign key referencing the other. In such a situation at least one of the foreign key constraints must be generated after both tables have been built. To support such a scheme, `ForeignKey` and `ForeignKeyConstraint` offer the flag `use_alter=True`. When using this flag, the constraint will be generated using a definition similar to “ALTER TABLE <tablename> ADD CONSTRAINT <name> ...”. Since a name is required, the `name` attribute must also be specified. For example:

```
node = Table('node', meta,
    Column('node_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('primary_element', Integer,
        ForeignKey('element.element_id', use_alter=True, name='fk_node_element_id')
    )
)

element = Table('element', meta,
    Column('element_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('parent_node_id', Integer),
    ForeignKeyConstraint(
        ['parent_node_id'],
        ['node.node_id'],
        use_alter=True,
        name='fk_element_parent_node_id'
    )
)
```

```
)  
)
```

ON UPDATE and ON DELETE

Most databases support *cascading* of foreign key values, that is the when a parent row is updated the new value is placed in child rows, or when the parent row is deleted all corresponding child rows are set to null or deleted. In data definition language these are specified using phrases like “ON UPDATE CASCADE”, “ON DELETE CASCADE”, and “ON DELETE SET NULL”, corresponding to foreign key constraints. The phrase after “ON UPDATE” or “ON DELETE” may also other allow other phrases that are specific to the database in use. The `ForeignKey` and `ForeignKeyConstraint` objects support the generation of this clause via the `onupdate` and `ondelete` keyword arguments. The value is any string which will be output after the appropriate “ON UPDATE” or “ON DELETE” phrase:

```
child = Table('child', meta,  
             Column('id', Integer,  
                   ForeignKey('parent.id', onupdate="CASCADE", ondelete="CASCADE"),  
                   primary_key=True)  
             )  
)  
  
composite = Table('composite', meta,  
                 Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),  
                 Column('rev_id', Integer),  
                 Column('note_id', Integer),  
                 ForeignKeyConstraint(  
                     ['rev_id', 'note_id'],  
                     ['revisions.id', 'revisions.note_id'],  
                     onupdate="CASCADE", ondelete="SET NULL"  
                 )  
                 )  
)
```

Note that these clauses are not supported on SQLite, and require InnoDB tables when used with MySQL. They may also not be supported on other databases.

UNIQUE Constraint

Unique constraints can be created anonymously on a single column using the `unique` keyword on `Column`. Explicitly named unique constraints and/or those with multiple columns are created via the `UniqueConstraint` table-level construct.

```
meta = MetaData()  
mytable = Table('mytable', meta,  
  
    # per-column anonymous unique constraint  
    Column('col1', Integer, unique=True),  
  
    Column('col2', Integer),  
    Column('col3', Integer),  
  
    # explicit/composite unique constraint. 'name' is optional.  
    UniqueConstraint('col2', 'col3', name='uix_1')  
)
```

CHECK Constraint

Check constraints can be named or unnamed and can be created at the Column or Table level, using the `CheckConstraint` construct. The text of the check constraint is passed directly through to the database, so there is limited “database independent” behavior. Column level check constraints generally should only refer to the column to which they are placed, while table level constraints can refer to any columns in the table.

Note that some databases do not actively support check constraints such as MySQL.

```
meta = MetaData()
mytable = Table('mytable', meta,

    # per-column CHECK constraint
    Column('col1', Integer, CheckConstraint('col1>5')),

    Column('col2', Integer),
    Column('col3', Integer),

    # table level CHECK constraint. 'name' is optional.
    CheckConstraint('col2 > col3 + 5', name='check1')
)

mytable.create(engine)
CREATE TABLE mytable (
    col1 INTEGER CHECK (col1>5),
    col2 INTEGER,
    col3 INTEGER,
    CONSTRAINT check1 CHECK (col2 > col3 + 5)
)
```

Setting up Constraints when using the Declarative ORM Extension

The `Table` is the SQLAlchemy Core construct that allows one to define table metadata, which among other things can be used by the SQLAlchemy ORM as a target to map a class. The *Declarative* extension allows the `Table` object to be created automatically, given the contents of the table primarily as a mapping of `Column` objects.

To apply table-level constraint objects such as `ForeignKeyConstraint` to a table defined using Declarative, use the `__table_args__` attribute, described at *Table Configuration*.

Constraints API

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.Constraint (name=None, deferrable=None, initially=None, _create_rule=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.SchemaItem
```

A table-level SQL constraint.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.CheckConstraint (sqltext, name=None, deferrable=None, initially=None, table=None, _create_rule=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.Constraint
```

A table- or column-level CHECK constraint.

Can be included in the definition of a Table or Column.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.ColumnCollectionConstraint (*columns, **kw)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.ColumnCollectionMixin, sqlalchemy.schema.Constraint
```

A constraint that proxies a `ColumnCollection`.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.ForeignKey(column, _constraint=None, use_alter=False, name=None,
                                   onupdate=None, ondelete=None, deferrable=None, initially=None, link_to_name=False)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.schema.SchemaItem`

Defines a dependency between two columns.

`ForeignKey` is specified as an argument to a `Column` object, e.g.:

```
t = Table("remote_table", metadata,
          Column("remote_id", ForeignKey("main_table.id"))
)
```

Note that `ForeignKey` is only a marker object that defines a dependency between two columns. The actual constraint is in all cases represented by the `ForeignKeyConstraint` object. This object will be generated automatically when a `ForeignKey` is associated with a `Column` which in turn is associated with a `Table`. Conversely, when `ForeignKeyConstraint` is applied to a `Table`, `ForeignKey` markers are automatically generated to be present on each associated `Column`, which are also associated with the constraint object.

Note that you cannot define a “composite” foreign key constraint, that is a constraint between a grouping of multiple parent/child columns, using `ForeignKey` objects. To define this grouping, the `ForeignKeyConstraint` object must be used, and applied to the `Table`. The associated `ForeignKey` objects are created automatically.

The `ForeignKey` objects associated with an individual `Column` object are available in the `foreign_keys` collection of that column.

Further examples of foreign key configuration are in [Defining Foreign Keys](#).

```
__init__(column, _constraint=None, use_alter=False, name=None, onupdate=None, ondelete=None, deferrable=None, initially=None, link_to_name=False)
Construct a column-level FOREIGN KEY.
```

The `ForeignKey` object when constructed generates a `ForeignKeyConstraint` which is associated with the parent `Table` object’s collection of constraints.

Parameters

- **column** – A single target column for the key relationship. A `Column` object or a column name as a string: `tablename.columnkey` or `schema.tablename.columnkey`. `columnkey` is the key which has been assigned to the column (defaults to the column name itself), unless `link_to_name` is `True` in which case the rendered name of the column is used.
- **name** – Optional string. An in-database name for the key if *constraint* is not provided.
- **onupdate** – Optional string. If set, emit ON UPDATE <value> when issuing DDL for this constraint. Typical values include CASCADE, DELETE and RESTRICT.
- **ondelete** – Optional string. If set, emit ON DELETE <value> when issuing DDL for this constraint. Typical values include CASCADE, DELETE and RESTRICT.
- **deferrable** – Optional bool. If set, emit DEFERRABLE or NOT DEFERRABLE when issuing DDL for this constraint.
- **initially** – Optional string. If set, emit INITIALLY <value> when issuing DDL for this constraint.
- **link_to_name** – if `True`, the string name given in `column` is the rendered name of the referenced column, not its locally assigned key.

- **use_alter** – passed to the underlying `ForeignKeyConstraint` to indicate the constraint should be generated/dropped externally from the CREATE TABLE/ DROP TABLE statement. See that classes’ constructor for details.

column

Return the target `Column` referenced by this `ForeignKey`.

If this `ForeignKey` was created using a string-based target column specification, this attribute will on first access initiate a resolution process to locate the referenced remote `Column`. The resolution process traverses to the parent `Column`, `Table`, and `MetaData` to proceed - if any of these aren’t yet present, an error is raised.

copy (*schema=None*)

Produce a copy of this `ForeignKey` object.

The new `ForeignKey` will not be bound to any `Column`.

This method is usually used by the internal copy procedures of `Column`, `Table`, and `MetaData`.

Parameters *schema* – The returned `ForeignKey` will reference the original table and column name, qualified by the given string schema name.

get_referent (*table*)

Return the `Column` in the given `Table` referenced by this `ForeignKey`.

Returns None if this `ForeignKey` does not reference the given `Table`.

references (*table*)

Return True if the given `Table` is referenced by this `ForeignKey`.

target_fullname

Return a string based ‘column specification’ for this `ForeignKey`.

This is usually the equivalent of the string-based “tablename.colname” argument first passed to the object’s constructor.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.ForeignKeyConstraint (columns, refcolumns, name=None, onupdate=None, ondelete=None, deferrable=None,
                                             initially=None, use_alter=False,
                                             link_to_name=False, table=None)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.schema.Constraint`

A table-level FOREIGN KEY constraint.

Defines a single column or composite FOREIGN KEY ... REFERENCES constraint. For a no-frills, single column foreign key, adding a `ForeignKey` to the definition of a `Column` is a shorthand equivalent for an unnamed, single column `ForeignKeyConstraint`.

Examples of foreign key configuration are in *Defining Foreign Keys*.

```
__init__ (columns, refcolumns, name=None, onupdate=None, ondelete=None, deferrable=None,
          initially=None, use_alter=False, link_to_name=False, table=None)
```

Construct a composite-capable FOREIGN KEY.

Parameters

- **columns** – A sequence of local column names. The named columns must be defined and present in the parent Table. The names should match the key given to each column (defaults to the name) unless `link_to_name` is True.
- **refcolumns** – A sequence of foreign column names or `Column` objects. The columns must all be located within the same Table.
- **name** – Optional, the in-database name of the key.

- **onupdate** – Optional string. If set, emit ON UPDATE <value> when issuing DDL for this constraint. Typical values include CASCADE, DELETE and RESTRICT.
- **onDelete** – Optional string. If set, emit ON DELETE <value> when issuing DDL for this constraint. Typical values include CASCADE, DELETE and RESTRICT.
- **deferrable** – Optional bool. If set, emit DEFERRABLE or NOT DEFERRABLE when issuing DDL for this constraint.
- **initially** – Optional string. If set, emit INITIALLY <value> when issuing DDL for this constraint.
- **link_to_name** – if True, the string name given in `column` is the rendered name of the referenced column, not its locally assigned key.
- **use_alter** – If True, do not emit the DDL for this constraint as part of the CREATE TABLE definition. Instead, generate it via an ALTER TABLE statement issued after the full collection of tables have been created, and drop it via an ALTER TABLE statement before the full collection of tables are dropped. This is shorthand for the usage of `AddConstraint` and `DropConstraint` applied as “after-create” and “before-drop” events on the MetaData object. This is normally used to generate/drop constraints on objects that are mutually dependent on each other.

class sqlalchemy.schema.**PrimaryKeyConstraint** (*columns, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.ColumnCollectionConstraint

A table-level PRIMARY KEY constraint.

Defines a single column or composite PRIMARY KEY constraint. For a no-frills primary key, adding `primary_key=True` to one or more Column definitions is a shorthand equivalent for an unnamed single- or multiple-column PrimaryKeyConstraint.

class sqlalchemy.schema.**UniqueConstraint** (*columns, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.ColumnCollectionConstraint

A table-level UNIQUE constraint.

Defines a single column or composite UNIQUE constraint. For a no-frills, single column constraint, adding `unique=True` to the Column definition is a shorthand equivalent for an unnamed, single column UniqueConstraint.

Indexes

Indexes can be created anonymously (using an auto-generated name `ix_<column label>`) for a single column using the inline `index` keyword on `Column`, which also modifies the usage of `unique` to apply the uniqueness to the index itself, instead of adding a separate UNIQUE constraint. For indexes with specific names or which encompass more than one column, use the `Index` construct, which requires a name.

Below we illustrate a `Table` with several `Index` objects associated. The DDL for “CREATE INDEX” is issued right after the create statements for the table:

```
meta = MetaData()
mytable = Table('mytable', meta,
    # an indexed column, with index "ix_mytable_coll1"
    Column('coll1', Integer, index=True),

    # a uniquely indexed column with index "ix_mytable_coll2"
    Column('coll2', Integer, index=True, unique=True),

    Column('coll3', Integer),
```

```

        Column('col4', Integer),

        Column('col5', Integer),
        Column('col6', Integer),
    )

    # place an index on col3, col4
    Index('idx_col34', mytable.c.col3, mytable.c.col4)

    # place a unique index on col5, col6
    Index('myindex', mytable.c.col5, mytable.c.col6, unique=True)

mytable.create(engine)
CREATE TABLE mytable (
    col1 INTEGER,
    col2 INTEGER,
    col3 INTEGER,
    col4 INTEGER,
    col5 INTEGER,
    col6 INTEGER
)
CREATE INDEX ix_mytable_col1 ON mytable (col1)
CREATE UNIQUE INDEX ix_mytable_col2 ON mytable (col2)
CREATE UNIQUE INDEX myindex ON mytable (col5, col6)
CREATE INDEX idx_col34 ON mytable (col3, col4)

```

Note in the example above, the `Index` construct is created externally to the table which it corresponds, using `Column` objects directly. As of SQLAlchemy 0.7, `Index` also supports “inline” definition inside the `Table`, using string names to identify columns:

```

meta = MetaData()
mytable = Table('mytable', meta,
    Column('col1', Integer),

    Column('col2', Integer),

    Column('col3', Integer),
    Column('col4', Integer),

    # place an index on col1, col2
    Index('idx_col12', 'col1', 'col2'),

    # place a unique index on col3, col4
    Index('idx_col34', 'col3', 'col4', unique=True)
)

```

The `Index` object also supports its own `create()` method:

```

i = Index('someindex', mytable.c.col5)
i.create(engine)
CREATE INDEX someindex ON mytable (col5)

```

class sqlalchemy.schema.**Index** (*name*, **columns*, ***kw*)
 Bases: sqlalchemy.schema.ColumnCollectionMixin, sqlalchemy.schema.SchemaItem
 A table-level INDEX.

Defines a composite (one or more column) INDEX. For a no-frills, single column index, adding `index=True` to the `Column` definition is a shorthand equivalent for an unnamed, single column `Index`.

See also:

Indexes - General information on `Index`.

Postgresql-Specific Index Options - PostgreSQL-specific options available for the `Index` construct.

`__init__` (*name*, **columns*, ***kw*)

Construct an index object.

Parameters

- **name** – The name of the index
- ***columns** – Columns to include in the index. All columns must belong to the same table.
- **unique** – Defaults to False: create a unique index.
- ****kw** – Other keyword arguments may be interpreted by specific dialects.

`bind`

Return the connectable associated with this `Index`.

`create` (*bind=None*)

Issue a CREATE statement for this `Index`, using the given `Connectable` for connectivity.

See also `MetaData.create_all()`.

`drop` (*bind=None*)

Issue a DROP statement for this `Index`, using the given `Connectable` for connectivity.

See also `MetaData.drop_all()`.

3.6.5 Customizing DDL

In the preceding sections we've discussed a variety of schema constructs including `Table`, `ForeignKeyConstraint`, `CheckConstraint`, and `Sequence`. Throughout, we've relied upon the `create()` and `create_all()` methods of `Table` and `MetaData` in order to issue data definition language (DDL) for all constructs. When issued, a pre-determined order of operations is invoked, and DDL to create each table is created unconditionally including all constraints and other objects associated with it. For more complex scenarios where database-specific DDL is required, SQLAlchemy offers two techniques which can be used to add any DDL based on any condition, either accompanying the standard generation of tables or by itself.

Controlling DDL Sequences

The `sqlalchemy.schema` package contains SQL expression constructs that provide DDL expressions. For example, to produce a CREATE TABLE statement:

```
from sqlalchemy.schema import CreateTable
engine.execute(CreateTable(mytable))
CREATE TABLE mytable (
    col1 INTEGER,
    col2 INTEGER,
    col3 INTEGER,
    col4 INTEGER,
    col5 INTEGER,
    col6 INTEGER
)
```

Above, the `CreateTable` construct works like any other expression construct (such as `select()`, `table.insert()`, etc.). A full reference of available constructs is in *DDL Expression Constructs API*.

The DDL constructs all extend a common base class which provides the capability to be associated with an individual `Table` or `MetaData` object, to be invoked upon create/drop events. Consider the example of a table which contains a CHECK constraint:

```
users = Table('users', metadata,
              Column('user_id', Integer, primary_key=True),
              Column('user_name', String(40), nullable=False),
              CheckConstraint('length(user_name) >= 8', name="cst_user_name_length")
              )

users.create(engine)
CREATE TABLE users (
    user_id SERIAL NOT NULL,
    user_name VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (user_id),
    CONSTRAINT cst_user_name_length CHECK (length(user_name) >= 8)
)
```

The above table contains a column “user_name” which is subject to a CHECK constraint that validates that the length of the string is at least eight characters. When a `create()` is issued for this table, DDL for the `CheckConstraint` will also be issued inline within the table definition.

The `CheckConstraint` construct can also be constructed externally and associated with the `Table` afterwards:

```
constraint = CheckConstraint('length(user_name) >= 8', name="cst_user_name_length")
users.append_constraint(constraint)
```

So far, the effect is the same. However, if we create DDL elements corresponding to the creation and removal of this constraint, and associate them with the `Table` as events, these new events will take over the job of issuing DDL for the constraint. Additionally, the constraint will be added via ALTER:

```
from sqlalchemy import event

event.listen(
    users,
    "after_create",
    AddConstraint(constraint)
)
event.listen(
    users,
    "before_drop",
    DropConstraint(constraint)
)

users.create(engine)
CREATE TABLE users (
    user_id SERIAL NOT NULL,
    user_name VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (user_id)
)

ALTER TABLE users ADD CONSTRAINT cst_user_name_length CHECK (length(user_name) >= 8)
users.drop(engine)
ALTER TABLE users DROP CONSTRAINT cst_user_name_length
```

```
DROP TABLE user
```

The real usefulness of the above becomes clearer once we illustrate the `DDLEvent.execute_if()` method. This method returns a modified form of the DDL callable which will filter on criteria before responding to a received event. It accepts a parameter `dialect`, which is the string name of a dialect or a tuple of such, which will limit the execution of the item to just those dialects. It also accepts a `callable_` parameter which may reference a Python callable which will be invoked upon event reception, returning `True` or `False` indicating if the event should proceed.

If our `CheckConstraint` was only supported by Postgresql and not other databases, we could limit its usage to just that dialect:

```
event.listen(
    users,
    'after_create',
    AddConstraint(constraint).execute_if(dialect='postgresql')
)
event.listen(
    users,
    'before_drop',
    DropConstraint(constraint).execute_if(dialect='postgresql')
)
```

Or to any set of dialects:

```
event.listen(
    users,
    "after_create",
    AddConstraint(constraint).execute_if(dialect=('postgresql', 'mysql'))
)
event.listen(
    users,
    "before_drop",
    DropConstraint(constraint).execute_if(dialect=('postgresql', 'mysql'))
)
```

When using a callable, the callable is passed the `ddl` element, the `Table` or `MetaData` object whose “create” or “drop” event is in progress, and the `Connection` object being used for the operation, as well as additional information as keyword arguments. The callable can perform checks, such as whether or not a given item already exists. Below we define `should_create()` and `should_drop()` callables that check for the presence of our named constraint:

```
def should_create(ddl, target, connection, **kw):
    row = connection.execute("select conname from pg_constraint where conname='%s'" % ddl.name)
    return not bool(row)
```

```
def should_drop(ddl, target, connection, **kw):
    return not should_create(ddl, target, connection, **kw)
```

```
event.listen(
    users,
    "after_create",
    AddConstraint(constraint).execute_if(callable_=should_create)
)
event.listen(
    users,
    "before_drop",
    DropConstraint(constraint).execute_if(callable_=should_drop)
)
```

```

)

users.create(engine)
CREATE TABLE users (
    user_id SERIAL NOT NULL,
    user_name VARCHAR(40) NOT NULL,
    PRIMARY KEY (user_id)
)

select conname from pg_constraint where conname='cst_user_name_length'
ALTER TABLE users ADD CONSTRAINT cst_user_name_length CHECK (length(user_name) >= 8)
users.drop(engine)
select conname from pg_constraint where conname='cst_user_name_length'
ALTER TABLE users DROP CONSTRAINT cst_user_name_length
DROP TABLE user

```

Custom DDL

Custom DDL phrases are most easily achieved using the [DDL](#) construct. This construct works like all the other DDL elements except it accepts a string which is the text to be emitted:

```

event.listen(
    metadata,
    "after_create",
    DDL("ALTER TABLE users ADD CONSTRAINT "
        "cst_user_name_length "
        "CHECK (length(user_name) >= 8)")
)

```

A more comprehensive method of creating libraries of DDL constructs is to use custom compilation - see [Custom SQL Constructs and Compilation Extension](#) for details.

DDL Expression Constructs API

class sqlalchemy.schema.DDLElement

Bases: sqlalchemy.sql.expression.Executable, sqlalchemy.sql.expression.ClauseElement

Base class for DDL expression constructs.

This class is the base for the general purpose [DDL](#) class, as well as the various create/drop clause constructs such as [CreateTable](#), [DropTable](#), [AddConstraint](#), etc.

[DDLElement](#) integrates closely with SQLAlchemy events, introduced in [Events](#). An instance of one is itself an event receiving callable:

```

event.listen(
    users,
    'after_create',
    AddConstraint(constraint).execute_if(dialect='postgresql')
)

```

See also:

[DDL](#)

[DDLEvents](#)

*Events**Controlling DDL Sequences***against** (*target*)

Return a copy of this DDL against a specific schema item.

bind**execute** (*bind=None, target=None*)

Execute this DDL immediately.

Executes the DDL statement in isolation using the supplied `Connectable` or `Connectable` assigned to the `.bind` property, if not supplied. If the DDL has a conditional `on` criteria, it will be invoked with `None` as the event.

Parameters

- **bind** – Optional, an `Engine` or `Connection`. If not supplied, a valid `Connectable` must be present in the `.bind` property.
- **target** – Optional, defaults to `None`. The target `SchemaItem` for the execute call. Will be passed to the `on` callable if any, and may also provide string expansion data for the statement. See `execute_at` for more information.

execute_at (*event_name, target*)

Link execution of this DDL to the DDL lifecycle of a `SchemaItem`. Deprecated since version 0.7: See `DDLEvents`, as well as `DDLElement.execute_if()`. Links this `DDLElement` to a `Table` or `MetaData` instance, executing it when that schema item is created or dropped. The DDL statement will be executed using the same `Connection` and transactional context as the `Table` create/drop itself. The `.bind` property of this statement is ignored.

Parameters

- **event** – One of the events defined in the schema item's `.ddl_events`; e.g. 'before-create', 'after-create', 'before-drop' or 'after-drop'
- **target** – The `Table` or `MetaData` instance for which this `DDLElement` will be associated with.

A `DDLElement` instance can be linked to any number of schema items.

`execute_at` builds on the `append_ddl_listener` interface of `MetaData` and `Table` objects.

Caveat: Creating or dropping a `Table` in isolation will also trigger any DDL set to `execute_at` that `Table`'s `MetaData`. This may change in a future release.

execute_if (*dialect=None, callable_=None, state=None*)

Return a callable that will execute this `DDLElement` conditionally.

Used to provide a wrapper for event listening:

```
event.listen(  
    metadata,  
    'before_create',  
    DDL("my_ddl").execute_if(dialect='postgresql')  
)
```

Parameters

- **dialect** – May be a string, tuple or a callable predicate. If a string, it will be compared to the name of the executing database dialect:


```
DDL('something').execute_if(dialect='postgresql')
```

If a tuple, specifies multiple dialect names:

```
DDL('something').execute_if(dialect=('postgresql', 'mysql'))
```

- **callable** – A callable, which will be invoked with four positional arguments as well as optional keyword arguments:

ddl This DDL element.

target The [Table](#) or [MetaData](#) object which is the target of this event. May be None if the DDL is executed explicitly.

bind The [Connection](#) being used for DDL execution

tables Optional keyword argument - a list of Table objects which are to be created/ dropped within a [MetaData.create_all\(\)](#) or [drop_all\(\)](#) method call.

state Optional keyword argument - will be the `state` argument passed to this function.

checkfirst Keyword argument, will be True if the 'checkfirst' flag was set during the call to `create()`, `create_all()`, `drop()`, `drop_all()`.

If the callable returns a true value, the DDL statement will be executed.

- **state** – any value which will be passed to the **callable** as the `state` keyword argument.

See also:

[DDLEvents](#)

[Events](#)

class `sqlalchemy.schema.DDL(statement, on=None, context=None, bind=None)`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.schema.DDLElement`

A literal DDL statement.

Specifies literal SQL DDL to be executed by the database. DDL objects function as DDL event listeners, and can be subscribed to those events listed in [DDLEvents](#), using either [Table](#) or [MetaData](#) objects as targets. Basic templating support allows a single DDL instance to handle repetitive tasks for multiple tables.

Examples:

```
from sqlalchemy import event, DDL
```

```
tbl = Table('users', metadata, Column('uid', Integer))
event.listen(tbl, 'before_create', DDL('DROP TRIGGER users_trigger'))
```

```
spow = DDL('ALTER TABLE %(table)s SET secretpowers TRUE')
event.listen(tbl, 'after_create', spow.execute_if(dialect='somedb'))
```

```
drop_spow = DDL('ALTER TABLE users SET secretpowers FALSE')
connection.execute(drop_spow)
```

When operating on Table events, the following statement string substitutions are available:

```
%(table)s - the Table name, with any required quoting applied
%(schema)s - the schema name, with any required quoting applied
%(fullname)s - the Table name including schema, quoted if needed
```

The DDL's "context", if any, will be combined with the standard substitutions noted above. Keys present in the context will override the standard substitutions.

`__init__(statement, on=None, context=None, bind=None)`

Create a DDL statement.

Parameters

- **statement** – A string or unicode string to be executed. Statements will be processed with Python's string formatting operator. See the `context` argument and the `execute_at` method.

A literal '%' in a statement must be escaped as '%%'.

SQL bind parameters are not available in DDL statements.

- **on** – Deprecated. See `DDLElement.execute_if()`.

Optional filtering criteria. May be a string, tuple or a callable predicate. If a string, it will be compared to the name of the executing database dialect:

```
DDL('something', on='postgresql')
```

If a tuple, specifies multiple dialect names:

```
DDL('something', on=('postgresql', 'mysql'))
```

If a callable, it will be invoked with four positional arguments as well as optional keyword arguments:

ddl This DDL element.

event The name of the event that has triggered this DDL, such as 'after-create' Will be None if the DDL is executed explicitly.

target The `Table` or `MetaData` object which is the target of this event. May be None if the DDL is executed explicitly.

connection The `Connection` being used for DDL execution

tables Optional keyword argument - a list of `Table` objects which are to be created/ dropped within a `MetaData.create_all()` or `drop_all()` method call.

If the callable returns a true value, the DDL statement will be executed.

- **context** – Optional dictionary, defaults to None. These values will be available for use in string substitutions on the DDL statement.
- **bind** – Optional. A `Connectable`, used by default when `execute()` is invoked without a bind argument.

See also:

`DDLEvents` `sqlalchemy.event`

class `sqlalchemy.schema.CreateTable` (*element*, *on=None*, *bind=None*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.schema._CreateDropBase`

Represent a CREATE TABLE statement.

class `sqlalchemy.schema.DropTable` (*element*, *on=None*, *bind=None*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.schema._CreateDropBase`

Represent a DROP TABLE statement.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.CreateSequence (element, on=None, bind=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema._CreateDropBase
```

Represent a CREATE SEQUENCE statement.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.DropSequence (element, on=None, bind=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema._CreateDropBase
```

Represent a DROP SEQUENCE statement.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.CreateIndex (element, on=None, bind=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema._CreateDropBase
```

Represent a CREATE INDEX statement.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.DropIndex (element, on=None, bind=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema._CreateDropBase
```

Represent a DROP INDEX statement.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.AddConstraint (element, *args, **kw)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema._CreateDropBase
```

Represent an ALTER TABLE ADD CONSTRAINT statement.

```
class sqlalchemy.schema.DropConstraint (element, cascade=False, **kw)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.schema._CreateDropBase
```

Represent an ALTER TABLE DROP CONSTRAINT statement.

3.7 Column and Data Types

SQLAlchemy provides abstractions for most common database data types, and a mechanism for specifying your own custom data types.

The methods and attributes of type objects are rarely used directly. Type objects are supplied to `Table` definitions and can be supplied as type hints to *functions* for occasions where the database driver returns an incorrect type.

```
>>> users = Table('users', metadata,
...               Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True)
...               Column('login', String(32))
...               )
```

SQLAlchemy will use the `Integer` and `String(32)` type information when issuing a `CREATE TABLE` statement and will use it again when reading back rows `SELECTed` from the database. Functions that accept a type (such as `Column()`) will typically accept a type class or instance; `Integer` is equivalent to `Integer()` with no construction arguments in this case.

3.7.1 Generic Types

Generic types specify a column that can read, write and store a particular type of Python data. SQLAlchemy will choose the best database column type available on the target database when issuing a `CREATE TABLE` statement. For complete control over which column type is emitted in `CREATE TABLE`, such as `VARCHAR` see [SQL Standard Types](#) and the other sections of this chapter.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.BigInteger (*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Integer
```

A type for bigger `int` integers.

Typically generates a `BIGINT` in DDL, and otherwise acts like a normal `Integer` on the Python side.

class `sqlalchemy.types.Boolean` (*create_constraint=True, name=None*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine`, `sqlalchemy.types.SchemaType`

A bool datatype.

Boolean typically uses `BOOLEAN` or `SMALLINT` on the DDL side, and on the Python side deals in `True` or `False`.

__init__ (*create_constraint=True, name=None*)

Construct a Boolean.

Parameters

- **create_constraint** – defaults to `True`. If the boolean is generated as an `int`/`smallint`, also create a `CHECK` constraint on the table that ensures 1 or 0 as a value.
- **name** – if a `CHECK` constraint is generated, specify the name of the constraint.

class `sqlalchemy.types.Date` (**args, **kwargs*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types._DateAffinity`, `sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine`

A type for `datetime.date()` objects.

class `sqlalchemy.types.DateTime` (*timezone=False*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types._DateAffinity`, `sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine`

A type for `datetime.datetime()` objects.

Date and time types return objects from the Python `datetime` module. Most DBAPIs have built in support for the `datetime` module, with the noted exception of `SQLite`. In the case of `SQLite`, date and time types are stored as strings which are then converted back to `datetime` objects when rows are returned.

class `sqlalchemy.types.Enum` (**enums, **kw*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.String`, `sqlalchemy.types.SchemaType`

Generic Enum Type.

The Enum type provides a set of possible string values which the column is constrained towards.

By default, uses the backend's native `ENUM` type if available, else uses `VARCHAR` + a `CHECK` constraint.

__init__ (**enums, **kw*)

Construct an enum.

Keyword arguments which don't apply to a specific backend are ignored by that backend.

Parameters

- ***enums** – string or unicode enumeration labels. If unicode labels are present, the `convert_unicode` flag is auto-enabled.
- **convert_unicode** – Enable unicode-aware bind parameter and result-set processing for this Enum's data. This is set automatically based on the presence of unicode label strings.
- **metadata** – Associate this type directly with a `MetaData` object. For types that exist on the target database as an independent schema construct (`Postgresql`), this type will be created and dropped within `create_all()` and `drop_all()` operations. If the type is not associated with any `MetaData` object, it will associate itself with each `Table` in which it is used, and will be created when any of those individual tables are created, after a check is performed for its existence. The type

is only dropped when `drop_all()` is called for that `Table` object's metadata, however.

- **name** – The name of this type. This is required for Postgresql and any future supported database which requires an explicitly named type, or an explicitly named constraint in order to generate the type and/or a table that uses it.
- **native_enum** – Use the database's native ENUM type when available. Defaults to `True`. When `False`, uses `VARCHAR` + check constraint for all backends.
- **schema** – Schemaname of this type. For types that exist on the target database as an independent schema construct (Postgresql), this parameter specifies the named schema in which the type is present.
- **quote** – Force quoting to be on or off on the type's name. If left as the default of `None`, the usual schema-level “case sensitive”/“reserved name” rules are used to determine if this type's name should be quoted.

class sqlalchemy.types.**Float** (*precision=None, asdecimal=False, **kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Numeric

A type for float numbers.

Returns Python `float` objects by default, applying conversion as needed.

__init__ (*precision=None, asdecimal=False, **kwargs*)

Construct a Float.

Parameters

- **precision** – the numeric precision for use in DDL `CREATE TABLE`.
- **asdecimal** – the same flag as that of `Numeric`, but defaults to `False`. Note that setting this flag to `True` results in floating point conversion.

class sqlalchemy.types.**Integer** (**args, **kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types._DateAffinity, sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine

A type for int integers.

class sqlalchemy.types.**Interval** (*native=True, second_precision=None, day_precision=None*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types._DateAffinity, sqlalchemy.types.TypeDecorator

A type for `datetime.timedelta()` objects.

The Interval type deals with `datetime.timedelta` objects. In PostgreSQL, the native `INTERVAL` type is used; for others, the value is stored as a date which is relative to the “epoch” (Jan. 1, 1970).

Note that the `Interval` type does not currently provide date arithmetic operations on platforms which do not support interval types natively. Such operations usually require transformation of both sides of the expression (such as, conversion of both sides into integer epoch values first) which currently is a manual procedure (such as via `func`).

__init__ (*native=True, second_precision=None, day_precision=None*)

Construct an Interval object.

Parameters

- **native** – when `True`, use the actual `INTERVAL` type provided by the database, if supported (currently Postgresql, Oracle). Otherwise, represent the interval data as an epoch value regardless.
- **second_precision** – For native interval types which support a “fractional seconds precision” parameter, i.e. Oracle and Postgresql

- **day_precision** – for native interval types which support a “day precision” parameter, i.e. Oracle.

```
impl
    alias of DateTime
```

```
class sqlalchemy.types.LargeBinary (length=None)
```

```
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types._Binary
```

A type for large binary byte data.

The Binary type generates BLOB or BYTEA when tables are created, and also converts incoming values using the Binary callable provided by each DB-API.

```
__init__ (length=None)
    Construct a LargeBinary type.
```

Parameters **length** – optional, a length for the column for use in DDL statements, for those BLOB types that accept a length (i.e. MySQL). It does *not* produce a small BINARY/VARBINARY type - use the BINARY/VARBINARY types specifically for those. May be safely omitted if no CREATE TABLE will be issued. Certain databases may require a *length* for use in DDL, and will raise an exception when the CREATE TABLE DDL is issued.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.Numeric (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True)
```

```
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types._DateAffinity, sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

A type for fixed precision numbers.

Typically generates DECIMAL or NUMERIC. Returns decimal.Decimal objects by default, applying conversion as needed.

Note: The `cdecimal` library is a high performing alternative to Python’s built-in `decimal.Decimal` type, which performs very poorly in high volume situations. SQLAlchemy 0.7 is tested against `cdecimal` and supports it fully. The type is not necessarily supported by DBAPI implementations however, most of which contain an import for plain `decimal` in their source code, even though some such as `psycopg2` provide hooks for alternate adapters. SQLAlchemy imports `decimal` globally as well. While the alternate `Decimal` class can be patched into SQLA’s `decimal` module, overall the most straightforward and foolproof way to use “`cdecimal`” given current DBAPI and Python support is to patch it directly into `sys.modules` before anything else is imported:

```
import sys
import cdecimal
sys.modules["decimal"] = cdecimal
```

While the global patch is a little ugly, it’s particularly important to use just one decimal library at a time since Python `Decimal` and `cdecimal` `Decimal` objects are not currently compatible *with each other*:

```
>>> import cdecimal
>>> import decimal
>>> decimal.Decimal("10") == cdecimal.Decimal("10")
False
```

SQLAlchemy will provide more natural support of `cdecimal` if and when it becomes a standard part of Python installations and is supported by all DBAPIs.

```
__init__ (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True)
    Construct a Numeric.
```

Parameters

- **precision** – the numeric precision for use in DDL CREATE TABLE.

- **scale** – the numeric scale for use in DDL `CREATE TABLE`.
- **asdecimal** – default `True`. Return whether or not values should be sent as Python `Decimal` objects, or as floats. Different DBAPIs send one or the other based on datatypes - the `Numeric` type will ensure that return values are one or the other across DBAPIs consistently.

When using the `Numeric` type, care should be taken to ensure that the `asdecimal` setting is appropriate for the DBAPI in use - when `Numeric` applies a conversion from `Decimal`->`float` or `float`-> `Decimal`, this conversion incurs an additional performance overhead for all result columns received.

DBAPIs that return `Decimal` natively (e.g. `psycopg2`) will have better accuracy and higher performance with a setting of `True`, as the native translation to `Decimal` reduces the amount of floating-point issues at play, and the `Numeric` type itself doesn't need to apply any further conversions. However, another DBAPI which returns floats natively *will* incur an additional conversion overhead, and is still subject to floating point data loss - in which case `asdecimal=False` will at least remove the extra conversion overhead.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.PickleType(protocol=2, pickler=None, mutable=False, comparator=None)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.MutableType`, `sqlalchemy.types.TypeDecorator`

Holds Python objects, which are serialized using pickle.

`PickleType` builds upon the `Binary` type to apply Python's `pickle.dumps()` to incoming objects, and `pickle.loads()` on the way out, allowing any pickleable Python object to be stored as a serialized binary field.

```
__init__(protocol=2, pickler=None, mutable=False, comparator=None)
```

Construct a `PickleType`.

Parameters

- **protocol** – defaults to `pickle.HIGHEST_PROTOCOL`.
- **pickler** – defaults to `cPickle.pickle` or `pickle.pickle` if `cPickle` is not available. May be any object with pickle-compatible `dumps` and `loads` methods.
- **mutable** – defaults to `False`; implements `AbstractType.is_mutable()`. When `True`, incoming objects will be compared against copies of themselves using the Python “equals” operator, unless the `comparator` argument is present. See `MutableType` for details on “mutable” type behavior. (default changed from `True` in 0.7.0).

Note: This functionality is now superseded by the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension described in [Mutation Tracking](#).

- **comparator** – a 2-arg callable predicate used to compare values of this type. If left as `None`, the Python “equals” operator is used to compare values.

```
impl
```

alias of `LargeBinary`

```
is_mutable()
```

Return `True` if the target Python type is ‘mutable’.

When this method is overridden, `copy_value()` should also be supplied. The `MutableType` mixin is recommended as a helper.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.SchemaType(**kw)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.events.SchemaEventTarget`

Mark a type as possibly requiring schema-level DDL for usage.

Supports types that must be explicitly created/dropped (i.e. PG ENUM type) as well as types that are complimented by table or schema level constraints, triggers, and other rules.

`SchemaType` classes can also be targets for the `DDLEvents.before_parent_attach()` and `DDLEvents.after_parent_attach()` events, where the events fire off surrounding the association of the type object with a parent `Column`.

bind

create (*bind=None, checkfirst=False*)

Issue CREATE ddl for this type, if applicable.

drop (*bind=None, checkfirst=False*)

Issue DROP ddl for this type, if applicable.

class `sqlalchemy.types.SmallInteger` (**args, **kwargs*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.Integer`

A type for smaller int integers.

Typically generates a SMALLINT in DDL, and otherwise acts like a normal `Integer` on the Python side.

class `sqlalchemy.types.String` (*length=None, convert_unicode=False, assert_unicode=None, unicode_error=None, _warn_on_bytestring=False*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.Concatenable`, `sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine`

The base for all string and character types.

In SQL, corresponds to VARCHAR. Can also take Python unicode objects and encode to the database's encoding in bind params (and the reverse for result sets.)

The *length* field is usually required when the *String* type is used within a CREATE TABLE statement, as VARCHAR requires a length on most databases.

__init__ (*length=None, convert_unicode=False, assert_unicode=None, unicode_error=None, _warn_on_bytestring=False*)

Create a string-holding type.

Parameters

- **length** – optional, a length for the column for use in DDL statements. May be safely omitted if no CREATE TABLE will be issued. Certain databases may require a *length* for use in DDL, and will raise an exception when the CREATE TABLE DDL is issued. Whether the value is interpreted as bytes or characters is database specific.
- **convert_unicode** – defaults to False. If True, the type will do what is necessary in order to accept Python Unicode objects as bind parameters, and to return Python Unicode objects in result rows. This may require SQLAlchemy to explicitly coerce incoming Python unicodes into an encoding, and from an encoding back to Unicode, or it may not require any interaction from SQLAlchemy at all, depending on the DBAPI in use.

When SQLAlchemy performs the encoding/decoding, the encoding used is configured via *encoding*, which defaults to *utf-8*.

The “convert_unicode” behavior can also be turned on for all String types by setting `sqlalchemy.engine.base.Dialect.convert_unicode` on `create_engine()`.

To instruct SQLAlchemy to perform Unicode encoding/decoding even on a platform that already handles Unicode natively, set `convert_unicode='force'`. This will incur significant performance overhead when fetching unicode result columns.

- **assert_unicode** – Deprecated. A warning is raised in all cases when a non-Unicode object is passed when SQLAlchemy would coerce into an encoding (note: but **not** when the DBAPI handles unicode objects natively). To suppress or raise this warning to an error, use the Python warnings filter documented at: <http://docs.python.org/library/warnings.html>
- **unicode_error** – Optional, a method to use to handle Unicode conversion errors. Behaves like the ‘errors’ keyword argument to the standard library’s `string.decode()` functions. This flag requires that `convert_unicode` is set to “force” - otherwise, SQLAlchemy is not guaranteed to handle the task of unicode conversion. Note that this flag adds significant performance overhead to row-fetching operations for backends that already return unicode objects natively (which most DBAPIs do). This flag should only be used as an absolute last resort for reading strings from a column with varied or corrupted encodings, which only applies to databases that accept invalid encodings in the first place (i.e. MySQL. *not* PG, Sqlite, etc.)

```
class sqlalchemy.types.Text (length=None, convert_unicode=False, assert_unicode=None, uni-
                             code_error=None, _warn_on_bytestring=False)
Bases: sqlalchemy.types.String
```

A variably sized string type.

In SQL, usually corresponds to CLOB or TEXT. Can also take Python unicode objects and encode to the database’s encoding in bind params (and the reverse for result sets.)

```
class sqlalchemy.types.Time (timezone=False)
Bases: sqlalchemy.types._DateAffinity, sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

A type for `datetime.time()` objects.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.Unicode (length=None, **kwargs)
Bases: sqlalchemy.types.String
```

A variable length Unicode string.

The Unicode type is a `String` which converts Python unicode objects (i.e., strings that are defined as `u’somevalue’`) into encoded bytestrings when passing the value to the database driver, and similarly decodes values from the database back into Python unicode objects.

It’s roughly equivalent to using a `String` object with `convert_unicode=True`, however the type has other significances in that it implies the usage of a unicode-capable type being used on the backend, such as `NVARCHAR`. This may affect what type is emitted when issuing `CREATE TABLE` and also may effect some DBAPI-specific details, such as type information passed along to `setinputsizes()`.

When using the `Unicode` type, it is only appropriate to pass Python unicode objects, and not plain `str`. If a bytestring (`str`) is passed, a runtime warning is issued. If you notice your application raising these warnings but you’re not sure where, the Python warnings filter can be used to turn these warnings into exceptions which will illustrate a stack trace:

```
import warnings
warnings.simplefilter('error')
```

Bytestrings sent to and received from the database are encoded using the dialect’s `encoding`, which defaults to `utf-8`.

```
__init__ (length=None, **kwargs)
Create a Unicode-converting String type.
```

Parameters

- **length** – optional, a length for the column for use in DDL statements. May be safely omitted if no `CREATE TABLE` will be issued. Certain databases may require a *length* for use in DDL, and will raise an exception when the `CREATE TABLE` DDL is issued. Whether the value is interpreted as bytes or characters is database specific.
- ****kwargs** – passed through to the underlying `String` type.

class sqlalchemy.types.**UnicodeText** (*length=None, **kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Text

An unbounded-length Unicode string.

See `Unicode` for details on the unicode behavior of this object.

Like `Unicode`, usage the `UnicodeText` type implies a unicode-capable type being used on the backend, such as `NCLOB`.

___**init**___ (*length=None, **kwargs*)

Create a Unicode-converting Text type.

Parameters **length** – optional, a length for the column for use in DDL statements. May be safely omitted if no `CREATE TABLE` will be issued. Certain databases may require a *length* for use in DDL, and will raise an exception when the `CREATE TABLE` DDL is issued. Whether the value is interpreted as bytes or characters is database specific.

3.7.2 SQL Standard Types

The SQL standard types always create database column types of the same name when `CREATE TABLE` is issued. Some types may not be supported on all databases.

class sqlalchemy.types.**BIGINT** (**args, **kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.BigInteger

The SQL BIGINT type.

class sqlalchemy.types.**BINARY** (*length=None*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types._Binary

The SQL BINARY type.

class sqlalchemy.types.**BLOB** (*length=None*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.LargeBinary

The SQL BLOB type.

class sqlalchemy.types.**BOOLEAN** (*create_constraint=True, name=None*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Boolean

The SQL BOOLEAN type.

class sqlalchemy.types.**CHAR** (*length=None, convert_unicode=False, assert_unicode=None, unicode_error=None, warn_on_bytestring=False*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.String

The SQL CHAR type.

class sqlalchemy.types.**CLOB** (*length=None, convert_unicode=False, assert_unicode=None, unicode_error=None, warn_on_bytestring=False*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Text

The CLOB type.

This type is found in Oracle and Informix.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.DATE (*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Date
```

The SQL DATE type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.DATETIME (timezone=False)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.DateTime
```

The SQL DATETIME type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.DECIMAL (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Numeric
```

The SQL DECIMAL type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.FLOAT (precision=None, asdecimal=False, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Float
```

The SQL FLOAT type.

```
sqlalchemy.types.INT
    alias of INTEGER
```

```
class sqlalchemy.types.INTEGER (*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Integer
```

The SQL INT or INTEGER type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.NCHAR (length=None, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Unicode
```

The SQL NCHAR type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.NVARCHAR (length=None, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Unicode
```

The SQL NVARCHAR type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.NUMERIC (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Numeric
```

The SQL NUMERIC type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.REAL (precision=None, asdecimal=False, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Float
```

The SQL REAL type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.SMALLINT (*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.SmallInteger
```

The SQL SMALLINT type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.TEXT (length=None, convert_unicode=False, assert_unicode=None, uni-
    code_error=None, _warn_on_bytestring=False)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Text
```

The SQL TEXT type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.TIME (timezone=False)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Time
```

The SQL TIME type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.TIMESTAMP (timezone=False)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.DateTime
```

The SQL TIMESTAMP type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.VARBINARY (length=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types._Binary
```

The SQL VARBINARY type.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.VARCHAR (length=None, convert_unicode=False, assert_unicode=None, uni-
                                code_error=None, _warn_on_bytestring=False)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.String
```

The SQL VARCHAR type.

3.7.3 Vendor-Specific Types

Database-specific types are also available for import from each database's dialect module. See the *sqlalchemy.dialects_toplevel* reference for the database you're interested in.

For example, MySQL has a BIGINTEGER type and PostgreSQL has an INET type. To use these, import them from the module explicitly:

```
from sqlalchemy.dialects import mysql

table = Table('foo', meta,
    Column('id', mysql.BIGINTEGER),
    Column('enumerates', mysql.ENUM('a', 'b', 'c'))
)
```

Or some PostgreSQL types:

```
from sqlalchemy.dialects import postgresql

table = Table('foo', meta,
    Column('ipaddress', postgresql.INET),
    Column('elements', postgresql.ARRAY(str))
)
```

Each dialect provides the full set of typenames supported by that backend within its *__all__* collection, so that a simple *import ** or similar will import all supported types as implemented for that backend:

```
from sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql import *

t = Table('mytable', metadata,
    Column('id', INTEGER, primary_key=True),
    Column('name', VARCHAR(300)),
    Column('inetaddr', INET)
)
```

Where above, the INTEGER and VARCHAR types are ultimately from sqlalchemy.types, and INET is specific to the PostgreSQL dialect.

Some dialect level types have the same name as the SQL standard type, but also provide additional arguments. For example, MySQL implements the full range of character and string types including additional arguments such as *collation* and *charset*:

```
from sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql import VARCHAR, TEXT
```

```
table = Table('foo', meta,
              Column('col1', VARCHAR(200, collation='binary')),
              Column('col2', TEXT(charset='latin1'))
)
```

3.7.4 Custom Types

A variety of methods exist to redefine the behavior of existing types as well as to provide new ones.

Overriding Type Compilation

A frequent need is to force the “string” version of a type, that is the one rendered in a CREATE TABLE statement or other SQL function like CAST, to be changed. For example, an application may want to force the rendering of BINARY for all platforms except for one, in which it wants BLOB to be rendered. Usage of an existing generic type, in this case `LargeBinary`, is preferred for most use cases. But to control types more accurately, a compilation directive that is per-dialect can be associated with any type:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.compiler import compiles
from sqlalchemy.types import BINARY

@compiles(BINARY, "sqlite")
def compile_binary_sqlite(type_, compiler, **kw):
    return "BLOB"
```

The above code allows the usage of `types.BINARY`, which will produce the string BINARY against all backends except SQLite, in which case it will produce BLOB.

See the section *Changing Compilation of Types*, a subsection of *Custom SQL Constructs and Compilation Extension*, for additional examples.

Augmenting Existing Types

The `TypeDecorator` allows the creation of custom types which add bind-parameter and result-processing behavior to an existing type object. It is used when additional in-Python marshalling of data to and from the database is required.

```
class sqlalchemy.types.TypeDecorator(*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

Allows the creation of types which add additional functionality to an existing type.

This method is preferred to direct subclassing of SQLAlchemy’s built-in types as it ensures that all required functionality of the underlying type is kept in place.

Typical usage:

```
import sqlalchemy.types as types

class MyType(types.TypeDecorator):
    """Prefixes Unicode values with "PREFIX:" on the way in and
    strips it off on the way out.
    """

    impl = types.Unicode

    def process_bind_param(self, value, dialect):
        return "PREFIX:" + value
```

```
def process_result_value(self, value, dialect):
    return value[7:]

def copy(self):
    return MyType(self.impl.length)
```

The class-level “impl” variable is required, and can reference any `TypeEngine` class. Alternatively, the `load_dialect_impl()` method can be used to provide different type classes based on the dialect given; in this case, the “impl” variable can reference `TypeEngine` as a placeholder.

Types that receive a Python type that isn’t similar to the ultimate type used may want to define the `TypeDecorator.coerce_compared_value()` method. This is used to give the expression system a hint when coercing Python objects into bind parameters within expressions. Consider this expression:

```
mytable.c.somecol + datetime.date(2009, 5, 15)
```

Above, if “somecol” is an `Integer` variant, it makes sense that we’re doing date arithmetic, where above is usually interpreted by databases as adding a number of days to the given date. The expression system does the right thing by not attempting to coerce the “date()” value into an integer-oriented bind parameter.

However, in the case of `TypeDecorator`, we are usually changing an incoming Python type to something new - `TypeDecorator` by default will “coerce” the non-typed side to be the same type as itself. Such as below, we define an “epoch” type that stores a date value as an integer:

```
class MyEpochType(types.TypeDecorator):
    impl = types.Integer

    epoch = datetime.date(1970, 1, 1)

    def process_bind_param(self, value, dialect):
        return (value - self.epoch).days

    def process_result_value(self, value, dialect):
        return self.epoch + timedelta(days=value)
```

Our expression of `somecol + date` with the above type will coerce the “date” on the right side to also be treated as `MyEpochType`.

This behavior can be overridden via the `coerce_compared_value()` method, which returns a type that should be used for the value of the expression. Below we set it such that an integer value will be treated as an `Integer`, and any other value is assumed to be a date and will be treated as a `MyEpochType`:

```
def coerce_compared_value(self, op, value):
    if isinstance(value, int):
        return Integer()
    else:
        return self
```

```
__init__(*args, **kwargs)
    Construct a TypeDecorator.
```

Arguments sent here are passed to the constructor of the class assigned to the `impl` class level attribute, where the `self.impl` attribute is assigned an instance of the implementation type. If `impl` at the class level is already an instance, then it’s assigned to `self.impl` as is.

Subclasses can override this to customize the generation of `self.impl`.

```
adapt(cls, **kw)
    Produce an “adapted” form of this type, given an “impl” class to work with.
```

This method is used internally to associate generic types with “implementation” types that are specific to a particular dialect.

bind_processor (*dialect*)

Provide a bound value processing function for the given *Dialect*.

This is the method that fulfills the *TypeEngine* contract for bound value conversion. *TypeDecorator* will wrap a user-defined implementation of `process_bind_param()` here.

User-defined code can override this method directly, though its likely best to use `process_bind_param()` so that the processing provided by `self.impl` is maintained.

coerce_compared_value (*op*, *value*)

Suggest a type for a ‘coerced’ Python value in an expression.

By default, returns self. This method is called by the expression system when an object using this type is on the left or right side of an expression against a plain Python object which does not yet have a SQLAlchemy type assigned:

```
expr = table.c.somecolumn + 35
```

Where above, if `somecolumn` uses this type, this method will be called with the value `operator.add` and 35. The return value is whatever SQLAlchemy type should be used for 35 for this particular operation.

compare_values (*x*, *y*)

Given two values, compare them for equality.

By default this calls upon `TypeEngine.compare_values()` of the underlying “impl”, which in turn usually uses the Python equals operator `==`.

This function is used by the ORM to compare an original-loaded value with an intercepted “changed” value, to determine if a net change has occurred.

compile (*dialect=None*)

Produce a string-compiled form of this *TypeEngine*.

When called with no arguments, uses a “default” dialect to produce a string result.

Parameters *dialect* – a *Dialect* instance.

copy ()

Produce a copy of this *TypeDecorator* instance.

This is a shallow copy and is provided to fulfill part of the *TypeEngine* contract. It usually does not need to be overridden unless the user-defined *TypeDecorator* has local state that should be deep-copied.

copy_value (*value*)

Given a value, produce a copy of it.

By default this calls upon `TypeEngine.copy_value()` of the underlying “impl”.

`copy_value()` will return the object itself, assuming “mutability” is not enabled. Only the *MutableType* mixin provides a copy function that actually produces a new object. The copying function is used by the ORM when “mutable” types are used, to memoize the original version of an object as loaded from the database, which is then compared to the possibly mutated version to check for changes.

Modern implementations should use the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension described in *Mutation Tracking* for intercepting in-place changes to values.

dialect_impl (*dialect*)

Return a dialect-specific implementation for this *TypeEngine*.

get_dbapi_type (*dbapi*)

Return the DBAPI type object represented by this `TypeDecorator`.

By default this calls upon `TypeEngine.get_dbapi_type()` of the underlying “impl”.

is_mutable ()

Return True if the target Python type is ‘mutable’.

This allows systems like the ORM to know if a column value can be considered ‘not changed’ by comparing the identity of objects alone. Values such as dicts, lists which are serialized into strings are examples of “mutable” column structures.

Note: This functionality is now superseded by the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension described in [Mutation Tracking](#).

load_dialect_impl (*dialect*)

Return a `TypeEngine` object corresponding to a dialect.

This is an end-user override hook that can be used to provide differing types depending on the given dialect. It is used by the `TypeDecorator` implementation of `type_engine()` to help determine what type should ultimately be returned for a given `TypeDecorator`.

By default returns `self.impl`.

process_bind_param (*value, dialect*)

Receive a bound parameter value to be converted.

Subclasses override this method to return the value that should be passed along to the underlying `TypeEngine` object, and from there to the DBAPI `execute()` method.

Parameters

- **value** – the value. Can be None.
- **dialect** – the `Dialect` in use.

process_result_value (*value, dialect*)

Receive a result-row column value to be converted.

Subclasses override this method to return the value that should be passed back to the application, given a value that is already processed by the underlying `TypeEngine` object, originally from the DBAPI cursor method `fetchone()` or similar.

Parameters

- **value** – the value. Can be None.
- **dialect** – the `Dialect` in use.

result_processor (*dialect, coltype*)

Provide a result value processing function for the given `Dialect`.

This is the method that fulfills the `TypeEngine` contract for result value conversion. `TypeDecorator` will wrap a user-defined implementation of `process_result_value()` here.

User-defined code can override this method directly, though its likely best to use `process_result_value()` so that the processing provided by `self.impl` is maintained.

type_engine (*dialect*)

Return a dialect-specific `TypeEngine` instance for this `TypeDecorator`.

In most cases this returns a dialect-adapted form of the `TypeEngine` type represented by `self.impl`. Makes usage of `load_dialect_impl()` but also traverses into wrapped `TypeDecorator` instances. Behavior can be customized here by overriding `load_dialect_impl()`.

TypeDecorator Recipes

A few key `TypeDecorator` recipes follow.

Rounding Numerics

Some database connectors like those of SQL Server choke if a `Decimal` is passed with too many decimal places. Here's a recipe that rounds them down:

```
from sqlalchemy.types import TypeDecorator, Numeric
from decimal import Decimal

class SafeNumeric(TypeDecorator):
    """Adds quantization to Numeric."""

    impl = Numeric

    def __init__(self, *arg, **kw):
        TypeDecorator.__init__(self, *arg, **kw)
        self.quantize_int = -(self.impl.precision - self.impl.scale)
        self.quantize = Decimal(10) ** self.quantize_int

    def process_bind_param(self, value, dialect):
        if isinstance(value, Decimal) and \
            value.as_tuple()[2] < self.quantize_int:
            value = value.quantize(self.quantize)
        return value
```

Backend-agnostic GUID Type

Receives and returns Python `uuid()` objects. Uses the PG `UUID` type when using `Postgresql`, `CHAR(32)` on other backends, storing them in stringified hex format. Can be modified to store binary in `CHAR(16)` if desired:

```
from sqlalchemy.types import TypeDecorator, CHAR
from sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql import UUID
import uuid

class GUID(TypeDecorator):
    """Platform-independent GUID type.

    Uses Postgresql's UUID type, otherwise uses
    CHAR(32), storing as stringified hex values.

    """
    impl = CHAR

    def load_dialect_impl(self, dialect):
        if dialect.name == 'postgresql':
            return dialect.type_descriptor(UUID())
        else:
            return dialect.type_descriptor(CHAR(32))

    def process_bind_param(self, value, dialect):
```

```
if value is None:
    return value
elif dialect.name == 'postgresql':
    return str(value)
else:
    if not isinstance(value, uuid.UUID):
        return "%.32x" % uuid.UUID(value)
    else:
        # hexstring
        return "%.32x" % value

def process_result_value(self, value, dialect):
    if value is None:
        return value
    else:
        return uuid.UUID(value)
```

Marshal JSON Strings

This type uses `simplejson` to marshal Python data structures to/from JSON. Can be modified to use Python's builtin `json` encoder:

```
from sqlalchemy.types import TypeDecorator, VARCHAR
import json

class JSONEncodedDict(TypeDecorator):
    """Represents an immutable structure as a json-encoded string.

    Usage::

        JSONEncodedDict(255)

    """
    impl = VARCHAR

    def process_bind_param(self, value, dialect):
        if value is not None:
            value = json.dumps(value)

        return value

    def process_result_value(self, value, dialect):
        if value is not None:
            value = json.loads(value)
        return value
```

Note that the ORM by default will not detect “mutability” on such a type - meaning, in-place changes to values will not be detected and will not be flushed. Without further steps, you instead would need to replace the existing value with a new one on each parent object to detect changes. Note that there’s nothing wrong with this, as many applications may not require that the values are ever mutated once created. For those which do have this requirement, support for mutability is best applied using the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension - see the example in [Mutation Tracking](#).

Creating New Types

The `UserDefinedType` class is provided as a simple base class for defining entirely new database types:

```
class sqlalchemy.types.UserDefinedType(*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

Base for user defined types.

This should be the base of new types. Note that for most cases, `TypeDecorator` is probably more appropriate:

```
import sqlalchemy.types as types

class MyType(types.UserDefinedType):
    def __init__(self, precision = 8):
        self.precision = precision

    def get_col_spec(self):
        return "MYTYPE(%s)" % self.precision

    def bind_processor(self, dialect):
        def process(value):
            return value
        return process

    def result_processor(self, dialect, coltype):
        def process(value):
            return value
        return process
```

Once the type is made, it's immediately usable:

```
table = Table('foo', meta,
    Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column('data', MyType(16))
)
```

```
__init__(*args, **kwargs)
    Support implementations that were passing arguments
```

```
adapt(cls, **kw)
    Produce an “adapted” form of this type, given an “impl” class to work with.
```

This method is used internally to associate generic types with “implementation” types that are specific to a particular dialect.

```
adapt_operator(op)
    A hook which allows the given operator to be adapted to something new.
```

See also `UserDefinedType._adapt_expression()`, an as-yet- semi-public method with greater capability in this regard.

```
bind_processor(dialect)
    Return a conversion function for processing bind values.
```

Returns a callable which will receive a bind parameter value as the sole positional argument and will return a value to send to the DB-API.

If processing is not necessary, the method should return `None`.

Parameters `dialect` – Dialect instance in use.

compare_values (*x*, *y*)

Compare two values for equality.

compile (*dialect=None*)

Produce a string-compiled form of this [TypeEngine](#).

When called with no arguments, uses a “default” dialect to produce a string result.

Parameters *dialect* – a [Dialect](#) instance.

copy_value (*value*)

dialect_impl (*dialect*)

Return a dialect-specific implementation for this [TypeEngine](#).

get_dbapi_type (*dbapi*)

Return the corresponding type object from the underlying DB-API, if any.

This can be useful for calling `setinputsizes()`, for example.

is_mutable ()

Return True if the target Python type is ‘mutable’.

This allows systems like the ORM to know if a column value can be considered ‘not changed’ by comparing the identity of objects alone. Values such as dicts, lists which are serialized into strings are examples of “mutable” column structures.

Note: This functionality is now superseded by the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension described in [Mutation Tracking](#).

When this method is overridden, `copy_value()` should also be supplied. The [MutableType](#) mixin is recommended as a helper.

result_processor (*dialect, coltype*)

Return a conversion function for processing result row values.

Returns a callable which will receive a result row column value as the sole positional argument and will return a value to return to the user.

If processing is not necessary, the method should return `None`.

Parameters

- **dialect** – Dialect instance in use.
- **coltype** – DBAPI coltype argument received in `cursor.description`.

3.7.5 Base Type API

class `sqlalchemy.types.AbstractType`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.sql.visitors.Visitable`

Base for all types - not needed except for backwards compatibility.

__init__

`x.__init__(...)` initializes `x`; see `x.__class__.__doc__` for signature

class `sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine` (**args, **kwargs*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.AbstractType`

Base for built-in types.

__init__ (**args, **kwargs*)

Support implementations that were passing arguments

adapt (*cls*, ***kw*)

Produce an “adapted” form of this type, given an “impl” class to work with.

This method is used internally to associate generic types with “implementation” types that are specific to a particular dialect.

bind_processor (*dialect*)

Return a conversion function for processing bind values.

Returns a callable which will receive a bind parameter value as the sole positional argument and will return a value to send to the DB-API.

If processing is not necessary, the method should return `None`.

Parameters *dialect* – Dialect instance in use.

compare_values (*x*, *y*)

Compare two values for equality.

compile (*dialect=None*)

Produce a string-compiled form of this `TypeEngine`.

When called with no arguments, uses a “default” dialect to produce a string result.

Parameters *dialect* – a `Dialect` instance.

copy_value (*value*)

dialect_impl (*dialect*)

Return a dialect-specific implementation for this `TypeEngine`.

get_dbapi_type (*dbapi*)

Return the corresponding type object from the underlying DB-API, if any.

This can be useful for calling `setinputsizes()`, for example.

is_mutable ()

Return True if the target Python type is ‘mutable’.

This allows systems like the ORM to know if a column value can be considered ‘not changed’ by comparing the identity of objects alone. Values such as dicts, lists which are serialized into strings are examples of “mutable” column structures.

Note: This functionality is now superseded by the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension described in [Mutation Tracking](#).

When this method is overridden, `copy_value()` should also be supplied. The `MutableType` mixin is recommended as a helper.

result_processor (*dialect*, *coltype*)

Return a conversion function for processing result row values.

Returns a callable which will receive a result row column value as the sole positional argument and will return a value to return to the user.

If processing is not necessary, the method should return `None`.

Parameters

- **dialect** – Dialect instance in use.
- **coltype** – DBAPI coltype argument received in `cursor.description`.

class `sqlalchemy.types.MutableType`

Bases: `object`

A mixin that marks a `TypeEngine` as representing a mutable Python object type. This functionality is used only by the ORM.

Note: `MutableType` is superseded as of SQLAlchemy 0.7 by the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension described in [Mutation Tracking](#). This extension provides an event driven approach to in-place mutation detection that does not incur the severe performance penalty of the `MutableType` approach.

“mutable” means that changes can occur in place to a value of this type. Examples includes Python lists, dictionaries, and sets, as well as user-defined objects. The primary need for identification of “mutable” types is by the ORM, which applies special rules to such values in order to guarantee that changes are detected. These rules may have a significant performance impact, described below.

A `MutableType` usually allows a flag called `mutable=False` to enable/disable the “mutability” flag, represented on this class by `is_mutable()`. Examples include `PickleType` and `ARRAY`. Setting this flag to `True` enables mutability-specific behavior by the ORM.

The `copy_value()` and `compare_values()` functions represent a copy and compare function for values of this type - implementing subclasses should override these appropriately.

Warning: The usage of mutable types has significant performance implications when using the ORM. In order to detect changes, the ORM must create a copy of the value when it is first accessed, so that changes to the current value can be compared against the “clean” database-loaded value. Additionally, when the ORM checks to see if any data requires flushing, it must scan through all instances in the session which are known to have “mutable” attributes and compare the current value of each one to its “clean” value. So for example, if the Session contains 6000 objects (a fairly large amount) and autoflush is enabled, every individual execution of `Query` will require a full scan of that subset of the 6000 objects that have mutable attributes, possibly resulting in tens of thousands of additional method calls for every query. As of SQLAlchemy 0.7, the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` is provided which allows an event driven approach to in-place mutation detection. This approach should now be favored over the usage of `MutableType` with `mutable=True`. `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` is described in [Mutation Tracking](#).

__init__
x.__init__(...) initializes x; see x.__class__.__doc__ for signature

compare_values (x, y)
Compare x == y.

copy_value (value)
Unimplemented.

is_mutable ()
Return True if the target Python type is ‘mutable’.
For `MutableType`, this method is set to return True.

class sqlalchemy.types.**Concatenable**
Bases: object

A mixin that marks a type as supporting ‘concatenation’, typically strings.

__init__
x.__init__(...) initializes x; see x.__class__.__doc__ for signature

class sqlalchemy.types.**NullType** (*args, **kwargs)
Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine

An unknown type.

`NullTypes` will stand in if `Table` reflection encounters a column data type unknown to SQLAlchemy. The resulting columns are nearly fully usable: the DB-API adapter will handle all translation to and from the database data type.

`NullType` does not have sufficient information to participate in a `CREATE TABLE` statement and will raise an exception if encountered during a `create()` operation.

3.8 Events

SQLAlchemy includes an event API which publishes a wide variety of hooks into the internals of both SQLAlchemy Core and ORM. The system is all new as of version 0.7 and supercedes the previous system of “extension”, “proxy”, and “listener” classes.

3.8.1 Event Registration

Subscribing to an event occurs through a single API point, the `listen()` function. This function accepts a user-defined listening function, a string identifier which identifies the event to be intercepted, and a target. Additional positional and keyword arguments may be supported by specific types of events, which may specify alternate interfaces for the given event function, or provide instructions regarding secondary event targets based on the given target.

The name of an event and the argument signature of a corresponding listener function is derived from a class bound specification method, which exists bound to a marker class that’s described in the documentation. For example, the documentation for `PoolEvents.connect()` indicates that the event name is “connect” and that a user-defined listener function should receive two positional arguments:

```
from sqlalchemy.event import listen
from sqlalchemy.pool import Pool

def my_on_connect(dbapi_con, connection_record):
    print "New DBAPI connection:", dbapi_con

listen(Pool, 'connect', my_on_connect)
```

3.8.2 Targets

The `listen()` function is very flexible regarding targets. It generally accepts classes, instances of those classes, and related classes or objects from which the appropriate target can be derived. For example, the above mentioned “connect” event accepts `Engine` classes and objects as well as `Pool` classes and objects:

```
from sqlalchemy.event import listen
from sqlalchemy.pool import Pool, QueuePool
from sqlalchemy import create_engine
from sqlalchemy.engine import Engine
import psycopg2

def connect():
    return psycopg2.connect(username='ed', host='127.0.0.1', dbname='test')

my_pool = QueuePool(connect)
my_engine = create_engine('postgresql://ed@localhost/test')

# associate listener with all instances of Pool
listen(Pool, 'connect', my_on_connect)
```

```
# associate listener with all instances of Pool
# via the Engine class
listen(Engine, 'connect', my_on_connect)

# associate listener with my_pool
listen(my_pool, 'connect', my_on_connect)

# associate listener with my_engine.pool
listen(my_engine, 'connect', my_on_connect)
```

3.8.3 Modifiers

Some listeners allow modifiers to be passed to `listen()`. These modifiers sometimes provide alternate calling signatures for listeners. Such as with ORM events, some event listeners can have a return value which modifies the subsequent handling. By default, no listener ever requires a return value, but by passing `retval=True` this value can be supported:

```
def validate_phone(target, value, oldvalue, initiator):
    """Strip non-numeric characters from a phone number"""

    return re.sub(r'(?![0-9])', '', value)

# setup listener on UserContact.phone attribute, instructing
# it to use the return value
listen(UserContact.phone, 'set', validate_phone, retval=True)
```

3.8.4 Event Reference

Both SQLAlchemy Core and SQLAlchemy ORM feature a wide variety of event hooks:

- **Core Events** - these are described in [Core Events](#) and include event hooks specific to connection pool lifecycle, SQL statement execution, transaction lifecycle, and schema creation and teardown.
- **ORM Events** - these are described in [ORM Events](#), and include event hooks specific to class and attribute instrumentation, object initialization hooks, attribute on-change hooks, session state, flush, and commit hooks, mapper initialization, object/result population, and per-instance persistence hooks.

3.8.5 API Reference

`sqlalchemy.event.listen(target, identifier, fn, *args, **kw)`

Register a listener function for the given target.

e.g.:

```
from sqlalchemy import event
from sqlalchemy.schema import UniqueConstraint

def unique_constraint_name(const, table):
    const.name = "uq_%s_%s" % (
        table.name,
        list(const.columns)[0].name
    )
event.listen(
```



```

        UniqueConstraint,
        "after_parent_attach",
        unique_constraint_name)

sqlalchemy.event.listens_for(target, identifier, *args, **kw)
    Decorate a function as a listener for the given target + identifier.

```

e.g.:

```

from sqlalchemy import event
from sqlalchemy.schema import UniqueConstraint

@event.listens_for(UniqueConstraint, "after_parent_attach")
def unique_constraint_name(const, table):
    const.name = "uq_%s_%s" % (
        table.name,
        list(const.columns)[0].name
    )

```

3.9 Core Events

This section describes the event interfaces provided in SQLAlchemy Core. The event system in 0.7 is all new and supercedes the previous system of “extension”, “listener”, and “proxy” classes. For an introduction to the event listening API, see [Events](#). ORM events are described in [ORM Events](#).

3.9.1 Connection Pool Events

class sqlalchemy.events.PoolEvents

Available events for `Pool`.

The methods here define the name of an event as well as the names of members that are passed to listener functions.

e.g.:

```

from sqlalchemy import event

def my_on_checkout(dbapi_conn, connection_rec, connection_proxy):
    "handle an on checkout event"

```

```

events.listen(Pool, 'checkout', my_on_checkout)

```

In addition to accepting the `Pool` class and `Pool` instances, `PoolEvents` also accepts `Engine` objects and the `Engine` class as targets, which will be resolved to the `.pool` attribute of the given engine or the `Pool` class:

```

engine = create_engine("postgresql://scott:tiger@localhost/test")

```

```

# will associate with engine.pool
events.listen(engine, 'checkout', my_on_checkout)

```

checkin (*dbapi_connection, connection_record*)

Called when a connection returns to the pool.

Note that the connection may be closed, and may be `None` if the connection has been invalidated. `checkin` will not be called for detached connections. (They do not return to the pool.)

Parameters

- **dbapi_con** – A raw DB-API connection
- **con_record** – The `_ConnectionRecord` that persistently manages the connection

checkout (*dbapi_connection, connection_record, connection_proxy*)

Called when a connection is retrieved from the Pool.

Parameters

- **dbapi_con** – A raw DB-API connection
- **con_record** – The `_ConnectionRecord` that persistently manages the connection
- **con_proxy** – The `_ConnectionFairy` which manages the connection for the span of the current checkout.

If you raise an `exc.DisconnectionError`, the current connection will be disposed and a fresh connection retrieved. Processing of all checkout listeners will abort and restart using the new connection.

connect (*dbapi_connection, connection_record*)

Called once for each new DB-API connection or Pool's `creator()`.

Parameters

- **dbapi_con** – A newly connected raw DB-API connection (not a SQLAlchemy Connection wrapper).
- **con_record** – The `_ConnectionRecord` that persistently manages the connection

first_connect (*dbapi_connection, connection_record*)

Called exactly once for the first DB-API connection.

Parameters

- **dbapi_con** – A newly connected raw DB-API connection (not a SQLAlchemy Connection wrapper).
- **con_record** – The `_ConnectionRecord` that persistently manages the connection

3.9.2 Connection Events

class sqlalchemy.events.ConnectionEvents

Available events for `Connection`.

The methods here define the name of an event as well as the names of members that are passed to listener functions.

e.g.:

```
from sqlalchemy import event, create_engine

def before_execute(conn, clauseelement, multiparams, params):
    log.info("Received statement: %s" % clauseelement)

engine = create_engine('postgresql://scott:tiger@localhost/test')
event.listen(engine, "before_execute", before_execute)
```

Some events allow modifiers to the `listen()` function.

Parameters `retval=False` – Applies to the `before_execute()` and `before_cursor_execute()` events only. When `True`, the user-defined event function must have a return value, which is a tuple of parameters that replace the given statement and parameters. See those methods for a description of specific return arguments.

after_cursor_execute (*conn, cursor, statement, parameters, context, executemany*)

Intercept low-level cursor execute() events.

after_execute (*conn, clauseelement, multiparams, params, result*)

Intercept high level execute() events.

before_cursor_execute (*conn, cursor, statement, parameters, context, executemany*)

Intercept low-level cursor execute() events.

before_execute (*conn, clauseelement, multiparams, params*)

Intercept high level execute() events.

begin (*conn*)

Intercept begin() events.

begin_twophase (*conn, xid*)

Intercept begin_twophase() events.

commit (*conn*)

Intercept commit() events.

commit_twophase (*conn, xid, is_prepared*)

Intercept commit_twophase() events.

prepare_twophase (*conn, xid*)

Intercept prepare_twophase() events.

release_savepoint (*conn, name, context*)

Intercept release_savepoint() events.

rollback (*conn*)

Intercept rollback() events.

rollback_savepoint (*conn, name, context*)

Intercept rollback_savepoint() events.

rollback_twophase (*conn, xid, is_prepared*)

Intercept rollback_twophase() events.

savepoint (*conn, name=None*)

Intercept savepoint() events.

3.9.3 Schema Events

class `sqlalchemy.events.DDLEvents`

Define event listeners for schema objects, that is, `SchemaItem` and `SchemaEvent` subclasses, including `MetaData`, `Table`, `Column`.

`MetaData` and `Table` support events specifically regarding when CREATE and DROP DDL is emitted to the database.

Attachment events are also provided to customize behavior whenever a child schema element is associated with a parent, such as, when a `Column` is associated with its `Table`, when a `ForeignKeyConstraint` is associated with a `Table`, etc.

Example using the `after_create` event:

```
from sqlalchemy import event
from sqlalchemy import Table, Column, Metadata, Integer

m = Metadata()
some_table = Table('some_table', m, Column('data', Integer))

def after_create(target, connection, **kw):
    connection.execute("ALTER TABLE %s SET name=foo_%s" %
                        (target.name, target.name))

event.listen(some_table, "after_create", after_create)
```

DDL events integrate closely with the `DDL` class and the `DDLElement` hierarchy of DDL clause constructs, which are themselves appropriate as listener callables:

```
from sqlalchemy import DDL
event.listen(
    some_table,
    "after_create",
    DDL("ALTER TABLE %(table)s SET name=foo_%(table)s")
)
```

The methods here define the name of an event as well as the names of members that are passed to listener functions.

See also:

Events

`DDLElement`

`DDL`

Controlling DDL Sequences

after_create (*target*, *connection*, ***kw*)

Called after CREATE statements are emitted.

Parameters

- **target** – the `MetaData` or `Table` object which is the target of the event.
- **connection** – the `Connection` where the CREATE statement or statements have been emitted.
- ****kw** – additional keyword arguments relevant to the event. Currently this includes the `tables` argument in the case of a `MetaData` object, which is the list of `Table` objects for which CREATE has been emitted.

after_drop (*target*, *connection*, ***kw*)

Called after DROP statements are emitted.

Parameters

- **target** – the `MetaData` or `Table` object which is the target of the event.
- **connection** – the `Connection` where the DROP statement or statements have been emitted.
- ****kw** – additional keyword arguments relevant to the event. Currently this includes the `tables` argument in the case of a `MetaData` object, which is the list of `Table` objects for which DROP has been emitted.

after_parent_attach (*target, parent*)

Called after a `SchemaItem` is associated with a parent `SchemaItem`.

Parameters

- **target** – the target object
- **parent** – the parent to which the target is being attached.

`event.listen()` also accepts a modifier for this event:

Parameters propagate=False – When True, the listener function will be established for any copies made of the target object, i.e. those copies that are generated when `Table.to_metadata()` is used.

before_create (*target, connection, **kw*)

Called before CREATE statements are emitted.

Parameters

- **target** – the `MetaData` or `Table` object which is the target of the event.
- **connection** – the `Connection` where the CREATE statement or statements will be emitted.
- ****kw** – additional keyword arguments relevant to the event. Currently this includes the `tables` argument in the case of a `MetaData` object, which is the list of `Table` objects for which CREATE will be emitted.

before_drop (*target, connection, **kw*)

Called before DROP statements are emitted.

Parameters

- **target** – the `MetaData` or `Table` object which is the target of the event.
- **connection** – the `Connection` where the DROP statement or statements will be emitted.
- ****kw** – additional keyword arguments relevant to the event. Currently this includes the `tables` argument in the case of a `MetaData` object, which is the list of `Table` objects for which DROP will be emitted.

before_parent_attach (*target, parent*)

Called before a `SchemaItem` is associated with a parent `SchemaItem`.

Parameters

- **target** – the target object
- **parent** – the parent to which the target is being attached.

`event.listen()` also accepts a modifier for this event:

Parameters propagate=False – When True, the listener function will be established for any copies made of the target object, i.e. those copies that are generated when `Table.to_metadata()` is used.

column_reflect (*table, column_info*)

Called for each unit of ‘column info’ retrieved when a `Table` is being reflected.

The dictionary of column information as returned by the dialect is passed, and can be modified. The dictionary is that returned in each element of the list returned by `reflection.Inspector.get_columns()`.

The event is called before any action is taken against this dictionary, and the contents can be modified. The `Column` specific arguments `info`, `key`, and `quote` can also be added to the dictionary and will be passed to the constructor of `Column`.

Note that this event is only meaningful if either associated with the `Table` class across the board, e.g.:

```
from sqlalchemy.schema import Table
from sqlalchemy import event

def listen_for_reflect(table, column_info):
    "receive a column_reflect event"
    # ...

event.listen(
    Table,
    'column_reflect',
    listen_for_reflect)
```

...or with a specific `Table` instance using the `listeners` argument:

```
def listen_for_reflect(table, column_info):
    "receive a column_reflect event"
    # ...

t = Table(
    'sometable',
    autoload=True,
    listeners=[
        ('column_reflect', listen_for_reflect)
    ])
```

This because the reflection process initiated by `autoload=True` completes within the scope of the constructor for `Table`.

class `sqlalchemy.events.SchemaEventTarget`

Base class for elements that are the targets of `DDLEvents` events.

This includes `SchemaItem` as well as `SchemaType`.

3.10 Custom SQL Constructs and Compilation Extension

Provides an API for creation of custom `ClauseElements` and compilers.

3.10.1 Synopsis

Usage involves the creation of one or more `ClauseElement` subclasses and one or more callables defining its compilation:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.compiler import compiles
from sqlalchemy.sql.expression import ColumnClause

class MyColumn(ColumnClause):
    pass
```

```
@compiles(MyColumn)
def compile_mycolumn(element, compiler, **kw):
    return "[%s]" % element.name
```

Above, `MyColumn` extends `ColumnClause`, the base expression element for named column objects. The `compiles` decorator registers itself with the `MyColumn` class so that it is invoked when the object is compiled to a string:

```
from sqlalchemy import select

s = select([MyColumn('x'), MyColumn('y')])
print str(s)
```

Produces:

```
SELECT [x], [y]
```

3.10.2 Dialect-specific compilation rules

Compilers can also be made dialect-specific. The appropriate compiler will be invoked for the dialect in use:

```
from sqlalchemy.schema import DDLElement

class AlterColumn(DDLElement):

    def __init__(self, column, cmd):
        self.column = column
        self.cmd = cmd

@compiles(AlterColumn)
def visit_alter_column(element, compiler, **kw):
    return "ALTER COLUMN %s ..." % element.column.name

@compiles(AlterColumn, 'postgresql')
def visit_alter_column(element, compiler, **kw):
    return "ALTER TABLE %s ALTER COLUMN %s ..." % (element.table.name, element.column.name)
```

The second `visit_alter_table` will be invoked when any `postgresql` dialect is used.

3.10.3 Compiling sub-elements of a custom expression construct

The compiler argument is the `Compiled` object in use. This object can be inspected for any information about the in-progress compilation, including `compiler.dialect`, `compiler.statement` etc. The `SQLCompiler` and `DDLCompiler` both include a `process()` method which can be used for compilation of embedded attributes:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql.expression import Executable, ClauseElement

class InsertFromSelect(Executable, ClauseElement):
    def __init__(self, table, select):
        self.table = table
        self.select = select

@compiles(InsertFromSelect)
def visit_insert_from_select(element, compiler, **kw):
    return "INSERT INTO %s (%s)" % (
```

```
        compiler.process(element.table, asfrom=True),
        compiler.process(element.select)
    )

insert = InsertFromSelect(t1, select([t1]).where(t1.c.x>5))
print insert
```

Produces:

```
"INSERT INTO mytable (SELECT mytable.x, mytable.y, mytable.z FROM mytable WHERE mytable.x > 5)"
```

Cross Compiling between SQL and DDL compilers

SQL and DDL constructs are each compiled using different base compilers - `SQLCompiler` and `DDLCompiler`. A common need is to access the compilation rules of SQL expressions from within a DDL expression. The `DDLCompiler` includes an accessor `sql_compiler` for this reason, such as below where we generate a `CHECK` constraint that embeds a SQL expression:

```
@compiles(MyConstraint)
def compile_my_constraint(constraint, ddlcompiler, **kw):
    return "CONSTRAINT %s CHECK (%s)" % (
        constraint.name,
        ddlcompiler.sql_compiler.process(constraint.expression)
    )
```

3.10.4 Changing the default compilation of existing constructs

The compiler extension applies just as well to the existing constructs. When overriding the compilation of a built in SQL construct, the `@compiles` decorator is invoked upon the appropriate class (be sure to use the class, i.e. `Insert` or `Select`, instead of the creation function such as `insert()` or `select()`).

Within the new compilation function, to get at the “original” compilation routine, use the appropriate `visit_XXX` method - this because `compiler.process()` will call upon the overriding routine and cause an endless loop. Such as, to add “prefix” to all insert statements:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql.expression import Insert

@compiles(Insert)
def prefix_inserts(insert, compiler, **kw):
    return compiler.visit_insert(insert.prefix_with("some prefix"), **kw)
```

The above compiler will prefix all `INSERT` statements with “some prefix” when compiled.

3.10.5 Changing Compilation of Types

compiler works for types, too, such as below where we implement the MS-SQL specific ‘max’ keyword for `String/VARCHAR`:

```
@compiles(String, 'mssql')
@compiles(VARCHAR, 'mssql')
def compile_varchar(element, compiler, **kw):
    if element.length == 'max':
        return "VARCHAR('max')"
    else:
        return compiler.visit_VARCHAR(element, **kw)
```



```
foo = Table('foo', metadata,
            Column('data', VARCHAR('max'))
            )
```

3.10.6 Subclassing Guidelines

A big part of using the compiler extension is subclassing SQLAlchemy expression constructs. To make this easier, the expression and schema packages feature a set of “bases” intended for common tasks. A synopsis is as follows:

- `ClauseElement` - This is the root expression class. Any SQL expression can be derived from this base, and is probably the best choice for longer constructs such as specialized INSERT statements.
- `ColumnElement` - The root of all “column-like” elements. Anything that you’d place in the “columns” clause of a SELECT statement (as well as order by and group by) can derive from this - the object will automatically have Python “comparison” behavior.

`ColumnElement` classes want to have a `type` member which is expression’s return type. This can be established at the instance level in the constructor, or at the class level if its generally constant:

```
class timestamp(ColumnElement):
    type = TIMESTAMP()
```

- `FunctionElement` - This is a hybrid of a `ColumnElement` and a “from clause” like object, and represents a SQL function or stored procedure type of call. Since most databases support statements along the line of “SELECT FROM <some function>” `FunctionElement` adds in the ability to be used in the FROM clause of a `select()` construct:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql.expression import FunctionElement

class coalesce(FunctionElement):
    name = 'coalesce'

@compiles(coalesce)
def compile(element, compiler, **kw):
    return "coalesce(%s)" % compiler.process(element.clauses)

@compiles(coalesce, 'oracle')
def compile(element, compiler, **kw):
    if len(element.clauses) > 2:
        raise TypeError("coalesce only supports two arguments on Oracle")
    return "nvl(%s)" % compiler.process(element.clauses)
```

- `DDLElement` - The root of all DDL expressions, like CREATE TABLE, ALTER TABLE, etc. Compilation of `DDLElement` subclasses is issued by a `DDLCompiler` instead of a `SQLCompiler`. `DDLElement` also features `Table` and `MetaData` event hooks via the `execute_at()` method, allowing the construct to be invoked during CREATE TABLE and DROP TABLE sequences.
- `Executable` - This is a mixin which should be used with any expression class that represents a “standalone” SQL statement that can be passed directly to an `execute()` method. It is already implicit within `DDLElement` and `FunctionElement`.

3.10.7 Further Examples

“UTC timestamp” function

A function that works like “CURRENT_TIMESTAMP” except applies the appropriate conversions so that the time is in UTC time. Timestamps are best stored in relational databases as UTC, without time zones. UTC so that your database doesn’t think time has gone backwards in the hour when daylight savings ends, without timezones because timezones are like character encodings - they’re best applied only at the endpoints of an application (i.e. convert to UTC upon user input, re-apply desired timezone upon display).

For Postgresql and Microsoft SQL Server:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import expression
from sqlalchemy.ext.compiler import compiles
from sqlalchemy.types import DateTime

class utcnow(expression.FunctionElement):
    type = DateTime()

@compiles(utcnow, 'postgresql')
def pg_utcnow(element, compiler, **kw):
    return "TIMEZONE('utc', CURRENT_TIMESTAMP) "

@compiles(utcnow, 'mssql')
def ms_utcnow(element, compiler, **kw):
    return "GETUTCDATE() "
```

Example usage:

```
from sqlalchemy import (
    Table, Column, Integer, String, DateTime, MetaData
)
metadata = MetaData()
event = Table("event", metadata,
    Column("id", Integer, primary_key=True),
    Column("description", String(50), nullable=False),
    Column("timestamp", DateTime, server_default=utcnow())
)
```

“GREATEST” function

The “GREATEST” function is given any number of arguments and returns the one that is of the highest value - it’s equivalent to Python’s max function. A SQL standard version versus a CASE based version which only accommodates two arguments:

```
from sqlalchemy.sql import expression
from sqlalchemy.ext.compiler import compiles
from sqlalchemy.types import Numeric

class greatest(expression.FunctionElement):
    type = Numeric()
    name = 'greatest'

@compiles(greatest)
def default_greatest(element, compiler, **kw):
```

```

        return compiler.visit_function(element)

@compiles(greatest, 'sqlite')
@compiles(greatest, 'mssql')
@compiles(greatest, 'oracle')
def case_greatest(element, compiler, **kw):
    arg1, arg2 = list(element.clauses)
    return "CASE WHEN %s > %s THEN %s ELSE %s END" % (
        compiler.process(arg1),
        compiler.process(arg2),
        compiler.process(arg1),
        compiler.process(arg2),
    )

```

Example usage:

```

Session.query(Account).\
    filter(
        greatest(
            Account.checking_balance,
            Account.savings_balance) > 10000
    )

```

“false” expression

Render a “false” constant expression, rendering as “0” on platforms that don’t have a “false” constant:

```

from sqlalchemy.sql import expression
from sqlalchemy.ext.compiler import compiles

class sql_false(expression.ColumnElement):
    pass

@compiles(sql_false)
def default_false(element, compiler, **kw):
    return "false"

@compiles(sql_false, 'mssql')
@compiles(sql_false, 'mysql')
@compiles(sql_false, 'oracle')
def int_false(element, compiler, **kw):
    return "0"

```

Example usage:

```

from sqlalchemy import select, union_all

exp = union_all(
    select([users.c.name, sql_false().label("enrolled")]),
    select([customers.c.name, customers.c.enrolled])
)

```

3.11 Expression Serializer Extension

Serializer/Deserializer objects for usage with SQLAlchemy query structures, allowing “contextual” deserialization.

Any SQLAlchemy query structure, either based on `sqlalchemy.sql.*` or `sqlalchemy.orm.*` can be used. The mappers, Tables, Columns, Session etc. which are referenced by the structure are not persisted in serialized form, but are instead re-associated with the query structure when it is deserialized.

Usage is nearly the same as that of the standard Python pickle module:

```
from sqlalchemy.ext.serializer import loads, dumps
metadata = MetaData(bind=some_engine)
Session = scoped_session(sessionmaker())

# ... define mappers

query = Session.query(MyClass).filter(MyClass.somedata=='foo').order_by(MyClass.sortkey)

# pickle the query
serialized = dumps(query)

# unpickle. Pass in metadata + scoped_session
query2 = loads(serialized, metadata, Session)

print query2.all()
```

Similar restrictions as when using raw pickle apply; mapped classes must be themselves be pickleable, meaning they are importable from a module-level namespace.

The serializer module is only appropriate for query structures. It is not needed for:

- instances of user-defined classes. These contain no references to engines, sessions or expression constructs in the typical case and can be serialized directly.
- Table metadata that is to be loaded entirely from the serialized structure (i.e. is not already declared in the application). Regular `pickle.loads()/dumps()` can be used to fully dump any `MetaData` object, typically one which was reflected from an existing database at some previous point in time. The serializer module is specifically for the opposite case, where the Table metadata is already present in memory.

```
sqlalchemy.ext.serializer.Serializer(*args, **kw)
sqlalchemy.ext.serializer.Deserializer(file, metadata=None, scoped_session=None, engine=None)
sqlalchemy.ext.serializer.dumps(obj, protocol=0)
sqlalchemy.ext.serializer.loads(data, metadata=None, scoped_session=None, engine=None)
```

3.12 Deprecated Event Interfaces

This section describes the class-based core event interface introduced in SQLAlchemy 0.5. The ORM analogue is described at [Deprecated ORM Event Interfaces](#).

As of SQLAlchemy 0.7, the new event system described in [Events](#) replaces the extension/proxy/listener system, providing a consistent interface to all events without the need for subclassing.

3.12.1 Execution, Connection and Cursor Events

class sqlalchemy.interfaces.**ConnectionProxy**

Allows interception of statement execution by Connections.

Note: `ConnectionProxy` is deprecated. Please refer to `ConnectionEvents`.

Either or both of the `execute()` and `cursor_execute()` may be implemented to intercept compiled statement and cursor level executions, e.g.:

```
class MyProxy(ConnectionProxy):
    def execute(self, conn, execute, clauseelement, *multiparams, **params):
        print "compiled statement:", clauseelement
        return execute(clauseelement, *multiparams, **params)

    def cursor_execute(self, execute, cursor, statement, parameters, context, executemany):
        print "raw statement:", statement
        return execute(cursor, statement, parameters, context)
```

The `execute` argument is a function that will fulfill the default execution behavior for the operation. The signature illustrated in the example should be used.

The proxy is installed into an Engine via the `proxy` argument:

```
e = create_engine('someurl://', proxy=MyProxy())
```

begin (*conn, begin*)
Intercept `begin()` events.

begin_twophase (*conn, begin_twophase, xid*)
Intercept `begin_twophase()` events.

commit (*conn, commit*)
Intercept `commit()` events.

commit_twophase (*conn, commit_twophase, xid, is_prepared*)
Intercept `commit_twophase()` events.

cursor_execute (*execute, cursor, statement, parameters, context, executemany*)
Intercept low-level cursor `execute()` events.

execute (*conn, execute, clauseelement, *multiparams, **params*)
Intercept high level `execute()` events.

prepare_twophase (*conn, prepare_twophase, xid*)
Intercept `prepare_twophase()` events.

release_savepoint (*conn, release_savepoint, name, context*)
Intercept `release_savepoint()` events.

rollback (*conn, rollback*)
Intercept `rollback()` events.

rollback_savepoint (*conn, rollback_savepoint, name, context*)
Intercept `rollback_savepoint()` events.

rollback_twophase (*conn, rollback_twophase, xid, is_prepared*)
Intercept `rollback_twophase()` events.

savepoint (*conn, savepoint, name=None*)
Intercept `savepoint()` events.

3.12.2 Connection Pool Events

class sqlalchemy.interfaces.**PoolListener**

Hooks into the lifecycle of connections in a `Pool`.

Note: `PoolListener` is deprecated. Please refer to `PoolEvents`.

Usage:

```
class MyListener(PoolListener):
    def connect(self, dbapi_con, con_record):
        '''perform connect operations'''
        # etc.

# create a new pool with a listener
p = QueuePool(..., listeners=[MyListener()])

# add a listener after the fact
p.add_listener(MyListener())

# usage with create_engine()
e = create_engine("url://", listeners=[MyListener()])
```

All of the standard connection `Pool` types can accept event listeners for key connection lifecycle events: creation, pool check-out and check-in. There are no events fired when a connection closes.

For any given DB-API connection, there will be one `connect` event, *n* number of `checkout` events, and either *n* or *n - 1* `checkin` events. (If a `Connection` is detached from its pool via the `detach()` method, it won't be checked back in.)

These are low-level events for low-level objects: raw Python DB-API connections, without the conveniences of the SQLAlchemy Connection wrapper, Dialect services or `ClauseElement` execution. If you execute SQL through the connection, explicitly closing all cursors and other resources is recommended.

Events also receive a `_ConnectionRecord`, a long-lived internal `Pool` object that basically represents a “slot” in the connection pool. `_ConnectionRecord` objects have one public attribute of note: `info`, a dictionary whose contents are scoped to the lifetime of the DB-API connection managed by the record. You can use this shared storage area however you like.

There is no need to subclass `PoolListener` to handle events. Any class that implements one or more of these methods can be used as a pool listener. The `Pool` will inspect the methods provided by a listener object and add the listener to one or more internal event queues based on its capabilities. In terms of efficiency and function call overhead, you're much better off only providing implementations for the hooks you'll be using.

checkin (*dbapi_con*, *con_record*)

Called when a connection returns to the pool.

Note that the connection may be closed, and may be `None` if the connection has been invalidated. `checkin` will not be called for detached connections. (They do not return to the pool.)

dbapi_con A raw DB-API connection

con_record The `_ConnectionRecord` that persistently manages the connection

checkout (*dbapi_con*, *con_record*, *con_proxy*)

Called when a connection is retrieved from the Pool.

dbapi_con A raw DB-API connection

con_record The `_ConnectionRecord` that persistently manages the connection

con_proxy The `_ConnectionFairy` which manages the connection for the span of the current check-out.

If you raise an `exc.DisconnectionError`, the current connection will be disposed and a fresh connection retrieved. Processing of all checkout listeners will abort and restart using the new connection.

connect (*dbapi_con, con_record*)

Called once for each new DB-API connection or Pool's `creator()`.

dbapi_con A newly connected raw DB-API connection (not a SQLAlchemy `Connection` wrapper).

con_record The `_ConnectionRecord` that persistently manages the connection

first_connect (*dbapi_con, con_record*)

Called exactly once for the first DB-API connection.

dbapi_con A newly connected raw DB-API connection (not a SQLAlchemy `Connection` wrapper).

con_record The `_ConnectionRecord` that persistently manages the connection

3.13 Core Exceptions

Exceptions used with SQLAlchemy.

The base exception class is `SQLAlchemyError`. Exceptions which are raised as a result of DBAPI exceptions are all subclasses of `DBAPIError`.

exception `sqlalchemy.exc.ArgumentError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError`

Raised when an invalid or conflicting function argument is supplied.

This error generally corresponds to construction time state errors.

exception `sqlalchemy.exc.CircularDependencyError` (*message, cycles, edges*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError`

Raised by topological sorts when a circular dependency is detected

exception `sqlalchemy.exc.CompileError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError`

Raised when an error occurs during SQL compilation

exception `sqlalchemy.exc.DBAPIError` (*statement, params, orig, connection_invalidated=False*)

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.StatementError`

Raised when the execution of a database operation fails.

`DBAPIError` wraps exceptions raised by the DB-API underlying the database operation. Driver-specific implementations of the standard DB-API exception types are wrapped by matching sub-types of SQLAlchemy's `DBAPIError` when possible. DB-API's `Error` type maps to `DBAPIError` in SQLAlchemy, otherwise the names are identical. Note that there is no guarantee that different DB-API implementations will raise the same exception type for any given error condition.

`DBAPIError` features `statement` and `params` attributes which supply context regarding the specifics of the statement which had an issue, for the typical case when the error was raised within the context of emitting a SQL statement.

The wrapped exception object is available in the `orig` attribute. Its type and properties are DB-API implementation specific.

exception sqlalchemy.exc.**DataError** (*statement, params, orig, connection_invalidated=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.exc.DatabaseError

Wraps a DB-API DataError.

exception sqlalchemy.exc.**DatabaseError** (*statement, params, orig, connection_invalidated=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.exc.DBAPIError

Wraps a DB-API DatabaseError.

exception sqlalchemy.exc.**DisconnectionError**
Bases: sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError

A disconnect is detected on a raw DB-API connection.

This error is raised and consumed internally by a connection pool. It can be raised by a PoolListener so that the host pool forces a disconnect.

class sqlalchemy.exc.**DontWrapMixin**
Bases: object

A mixin class which, when applied to a user-defined Exception class, will not be wrapped inside of StatementError if the error is emitted within the process of executing a statement.

E.g.:: from sqlalchemy.exc import DontWrapMixin

```
class MyCustomException(Exception, DontWrapMixin): pass

class MySpecialType(TypeDecorator): impl = String

    def process_bind_param(self, value, dialect):
        if value == 'invalid': raise MyCustomException("invalid!")
```

exception sqlalchemy.exc.**IdentifierError**
Bases: sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError

Raised when a schema name is beyond the max character limit

exception sqlalchemy.exc.**IntegrityError** (*statement, params, orig, connection_invalidated=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.exc.DatabaseError

Wraps a DB-API IntegrityError.

exception sqlalchemy.exc.**InterfaceError** (*statement, params, orig, connection_invalidated=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.exc.DBAPIError

Wraps a DB-API InterfaceError.

exception sqlalchemy.exc.**InternalError** (*statement, params, orig, connection_invalidated=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.exc.DatabaseError

Wraps a DB-API InternalError.

exception sqlalchemy.exc.**InvalidRequestError**
Bases: sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError

SQLAlchemy was asked to do something it can't do.

This error generally corresponds to runtime state errors.

exception sqlalchemy.exc.**NoReferenceError**
Bases: sqlalchemy.exc.InvalidRequestError

Raised by ForeignKey to indicate a reference cannot be resolved.

- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.NoReferencedColumnError` (*message, tname, cname*)
 Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.NoReferenceError`
 Raised by `ForeignKey` when the referred Column cannot be located.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.NoReferencedTableError` (*message, tname*)
 Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.NoReferenceError`
 Raised by `ForeignKey` when the referred Table cannot be located.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.NoSuchColumnError`
 Bases: `exceptions.KeyError`, `sqlalchemy.exc.InvalidRequestError`
 A nonexistent column is requested from a `RowProxy`.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.NoSuchTableError`
 Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.InvalidRequestError`
 Table does not exist or is not visible to a connection.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.NotSupportedError` (*statement, params, orig, connection_invalidated=False*)
 Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.DatabaseError`
 Wraps a DB-API `NotSupportedError`.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.OperationalError` (*statement, params, orig, connection_invalidated=False*)
 Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.DatabaseError`
 Wraps a DB-API `OperationalError`.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.ProgrammingError` (*statement, params, orig, connection_invalidated=False*)
 Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.DatabaseError`
 Wraps a DB-API `ProgrammingError`.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.ResourceClosedError`
 Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.InvalidRequestError`
 An operation was requested from a connection, cursor, or other object that's in a closed state.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.SADeprecationWarning`
 Bases: `exceptions.DeprecationWarning`
 Issued once per usage of a deprecated API.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.SAPendingDeprecationWarning`
 Bases: `exceptions.PendingDeprecationWarning`
 Issued once per usage of a deprecated API.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.SAWarning`
 Bases: `exceptions.RuntimeWarning`
 Issued at runtime.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError`
 Bases: `exceptions.Exception`
 Generic error class.
- exception** `sqlalchemy.exc.StatementError` (*message, statement, params, orig*)
 Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError`
 An error occurred during execution of a SQL statement.

`StatementError` wraps the exception raised during execution, and features `statement` and `params` attributes which supply context regarding the specifics of the statement which had an issue.

The wrapped exception object is available in the `orig` attribute.

exception `sqlalchemy.exc.TimeoutError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.SQLAlchemyError`

Raised when a connection pool times out on getting a connection.

exception `sqlalchemy.exc.UnboundExecutionError`

Bases: `sqlalchemy.exc.InvalidRequestError`

SQL was attempted without a database connection to execute it on.

3.14 Core Internals

Some key internal constructs are listed here.

class `sqlalchemy.engine.base.Compiled` (*dialect, statement, bind=None*)

Bases: `object`

Represent a compiled SQL or DDL expression.

The `__str__` method of the `Compiled` object should produce the actual text of the statement. `Compiled` objects are specific to their underlying database dialect, and also may or may not be specific to the columns referenced within a particular set of bind parameters. In no case should the `Compiled` object be dependent on the actual values of those bind parameters, even though it may reference those values as defaults.

__init__ (*dialect, statement, bind=None*)

Construct a new `Compiled` object.

Parameters

- **dialect** – Dialect to compile against.
- **statement** – `ClauseElement` to be compiled.
- **bind** – Optional Engine or Connection to compile this statement against.

compile ()

Produce the internal string representation of this element. Deprecated since version 0.7: `Compiled` objects now compile within the constructor.

construct_params (*params=None*)

Return the bind params for this compiled object.

Parameters **params** – a dict of string/object pairs whos values will override bind values compiled in to the statement.

execute (**multiparams, **params*)

Execute this compiled object.

params

Return the bind params for this compiled object.

process (*obj, **kwargs*)

scalar (**multiparams, **params*)

Execute this compiled object and return the result's scalar value.

sql_compiler

Return a Compiled that is capable of processing SQL expressions.

If this compiler is one, it would likely just return 'self'.

class sqlalchemy.sql.compiler.DDLCompiler (*dialect, statement, bind=None*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.engine.base.Compiled

define_constraint_remote_table (*constraint, table, preparer*)

Format the remote table clause of a CREATE CONSTRAINT clause.

class sqlalchemy.engine.default.DefaultDialect (*convert_unicode=False, as-
sert_unicode=False, encoding='utf-8',
paramstyle=None, dbapi=None, im-
plicit_returning=None, label_length=None,
**kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.engine.base.Dialect

Default implementation of Dialect

connect (**cargs, **cparams*)

create_connect_args (*url*)

create_xid ()

Create a random two-phase transaction ID.

This id will be passed to do_begin_twophase(), do_rollback_twophase(), do_commit_twophase(). Its format is unspecified.

ddl_compiler

alias of DDLCompiler

dialect_description

do_begin (*connection*)

Implementations might want to put logic here for turning autocommit on/off, etc.

do_commit (*connection*)

Implementations might want to put logic here for turning autocommit on/off, etc.

do_execute (*cursor, statement, parameters, context=None*)

do_executemany (*cursor, statement, parameters, context=None*)

do_release_savepoint (*connection, name*)

do_rollback (*connection*)

Implementations might want to put logic here for turning autocommit on/off, etc.

do_rollback_to_savepoint (*connection, name*)

do_savepoint (*connection, name*)

execute_sequence_format

alias of tuple

execution_ctx_cls

alias of DefaultExecutionContext

get_pk_constraint (*conn, table_name, schema=None, **kw*)

Compatibility method, adapts the result of get_primary_keys() for those dialects which don't implement get_pk_constraint().

classmethod get_pool_class (*url*)

initialize (*connection*)

is_disconnect (*e, connection, cursor*)

on_connect ()

return a callable which sets up a newly created DBAPI connection.

This is used to set dialect-wide per-connection options such as isolation modes, unicode modes, etc.

If a callable is returned, it will be assembled into a pool listener that receives the direct DBAPI connection, with all wrappers removed.

If None is returned, no listener will be generated.

preparer

alias of `IdentifierPreparer`

reflecttable (*connection, table, include_columns*)

reset_isolation_level (*dbapi_conn*)

statement_compiler

alias of `SQLCompiler`

type_compiler

alias of `GenericTypeCompiler`

type_descriptor (*typeobj*)

Provide a database-specific `TypeEngine` object, given the generic object which comes from the types module.

This method looks for a dictionary called `colspecs` as a class or instance-level variable, and passes on to `types.adapt_type()`.

validate_identifier (*ident*)

class `sqlalchemy.engine.base.Dialect`

Bases: `object`

Define the behavior of a specific database and DB-API combination.

Any aspect of metadata definition, SQL query generation, execution, result-set handling, or anything else which varies between databases is defined under the general category of the `Dialect`. The `Dialect` acts as a factory for other database-specific object implementations including `ExecutionContext`, `Compiled`, `DefaultGenerator`, and `TypeEngine`.

All Dialects implement the following attributes:

name identifying name for the dialect from a DBAPI-neutral point of view (i.e. 'sqlite')

driver identifying name for the dialect's DBAPI

positional True if the paramstyle for this `Dialect` is positional.

paramstyle the paramstyle to be used (some DB-APIs support multiple paramstyles).

convert_unicode True if Unicode conversion should be applied to all `str` types.

encoding type of encoding to use for unicode, usually defaults to 'utf-8'.

statement_compiler a `Compiled` class used to compile SQL statements

ddl_compiler a `Compiled` class used to compile DDL statements

server_version_info a tuple containing a version number for the DB backend in use. This value is only available for supporting dialects, and is typically populated during the initial connection to the database.

default_schema_name the name of the default schema. This value is only available for supporting dialects, and is typically populated during the initial connection to the database.

execution_ctx_cls a `ExecutionContext` class used to handle statement execution

execute_sequence_format either the 'tuple' or 'list' type, depending on what `cursor.execute()` accepts for the second argument (they vary).

preparer a `IdentifierPreparer` class used to quote identifiers.

supports_alter True if the database supports ALTER TABLE.

max_identifier_length The maximum length of identifier names.

supports_unicode_statements Indicate whether the DB-API can receive SQL statements as Python unicode strings

supports_unicode_binds Indicate whether the DB-API can receive string bind parameters as Python unicode strings

supports_sane_rowcount Indicate whether the dialect properly implements rowcount for UPDATE and DELETE statements.

supports_sane_multi_rowcount Indicate whether the dialect properly implements rowcount for UPDATE and DELETE statements when executed via executemany.

preexecute_autoincrement_sequences True if 'implicit' primary key functions must be executed separately in order to get their value. This is currently oriented towards PostgreSQL.

implicit_returning use RETURNING or equivalent during INSERT execution in order to load newly generated primary keys and other column defaults in one execution, which are then available via `inserted_primary_key`. If an insert statement has `returning()` specified explicitly, the "implicit" functionality is not used and `inserted_primary_key` will not be available.

dbapi_type_map A mapping of DB-API type objects present in this Dialect's DB-API implementation mapped to TypeEngine implementations used by the dialect.

This is used to apply types to result sets based on the DB-API types present in `cursor.description`; it only takes effect for result sets against textual statements where no explicit `typemap` was present.

colspecs A dictionary of TypeEngine classes from `sqlalchemy.types` mapped to subclasses that are specific to the dialect class. This dictionary is class-level only and is not accessed from the dialect instance itself.

supports_default_values Indicates if the construct `INSERT INTO tablename DEFAULT VALUES` is supported

supports_sequences Indicates if the dialect supports CREATE SEQUENCE or similar.

sequences_optional If True, indicates if the "optional" flag on the `Sequence()` construct should signal to not generate a CREATE SEQUENCE. Applies only to dialects that support sequences. Currently used only to allow PostgreSQL SERIAL to be used on a column that specifies `Sequence()` for usage on other backends.

supports_native_enum Indicates if the dialect supports a native ENUM construct. This will prevent `types.Enum` from generating a CHECK constraint when that type is used.

supports_native_boolean Indicates if the dialect supports a native boolean construct. This will prevent `types.Boolean` from generating a CHECK constraint when that type is used.

connect()

return a callable which sets up a newly created DBAPI connection.

The callable accepts a single argument "conn" which is the DBAPI connection itself. It has no return value.

This is used to set dialect-wide per-connection options such as isolation modes, unicode modes, etc.

If a callable is returned, it will be assembled into a pool listener that receives the direct DBAPI connection, with all wrappers removed.

If None is returned, no listener will be generated.

create_connect_args(url)

Build DB-API compatible connection arguments.

Given a `URL` object, returns a tuple consisting of a `*args/**kwargs` suitable to send directly to the `dbapi's` connect function.

create_xid()

Create a two-phase transaction ID.

This id will be passed to `do_begin_twophase()`, `do_rollback_twophase()`, `do_commit_twophase()`. Its format is unspecified.

denormalize_name (*name*)

convert the given name to a case insensitive identifier for the backend if it is an all-lowercase name.

this method is only used if the dialect defines `requires_name_normalize=True`.

do_begin (*connection*)

Provide an implementation of `connection.begin()`, given a DB-API connection.

do_begin_twophase (*connection, xid*)

Begin a two phase transaction on the given connection.

do_commit (*connection*)

Provide an implementation of `connection.commit()`, given a DB-API connection.

do_commit_twophase (*connection, xid, is_prepared=True, recover=False*)

Commit a two phase transaction on the given connection.

do_execute (*cursor, statement, parameters, context=None*)

Provide an implementation of `cursor.execute(statement, parameters)`.

do_executemany (*cursor, statement, parameters, context=None*)

Provide an implementation of `cursor.executemany(statement, parameters)`.

do_prepare_twophase (*connection, xid*)

Prepare a two phase transaction on the given connection.

do_recover_twophase (*connection*)

Recover list of uncommitted prepared two phase transaction identifiers on the given connection.

do_release_savepoint (*connection, name*)

Release the named savepoint on a SQL Alchemy connection.

do_rollback (*connection*)

Provide an implementation of `connection.rollback()`, given a DB-API connection.

do_rollback_to_savepoint (*connection, name*)

Rollback a SQL Alchemy connection to the named savepoint.

do_rollback_twophase (*connection, xid, is_prepared=True, recover=False*)

Rollback a two phase transaction on the given connection.

do_savepoint (*connection, name*)

Create a savepoint with the given name on a SQLAlchemy connection.

get_columns (*connection, table_name, schema=None, **kw*)

Return information about columns in *table_name*.

Given a `Connection`, a string *table_name*, and an optional string *schema*, return column information as a list of dictionaries with these keys:

name the column's name

type [sqlalchemy.types#TypeEngine]

nullable boolean

default the column's default value

autoincrement boolean

sequence

a dictionary of the form {'name': str, 'start': int, 'increment': int}

Additional column attributes may be present.

get_foreign_keys (*connection*, *table_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return information about foreign_keys in *table_name*.

Given a [Connection](#), a string *table_name*, and an optional string *schema*, return foreign key information as a list of dicts with these keys:

name the constraint's name

constrained_columns a list of column names that make up the foreign key

referred_schema the name of the referred schema

referred_table the name of the referred table

referred_columns a list of column names in the referred table that correspond to constrained_columns

get_indexes (*connection*, *table_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return information about indexes in *table_name*.

Given a [Connection](#), a string *table_name* and an optional string *schema*, return index information as a list of dictionaries with these keys:

name the index's name

column_names list of column names in order

unique boolean

get_isolation_level (*dbapi_conn*)

Given a DBAPI connection, return its isolation level.

get_pk_constraint (*table_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return information about the primary key constraint on *table_name*.

Given a string *table_name*, and an optional string *schema*, return primary key information as a dictionary with these keys:

constrained_columns a list of column names that make up the primary key

name optional name of the primary key constraint.

get_primary_keys (*connection*, *table_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return information about primary keys in *table_name*.

Given a [Connection](#), a string *table_name*, and an optional string *schema*, return primary key information as a list of column names.

get_table_names (*connection*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return a list of table names for *schema*.

get_view_definition (*connection*, *view_name*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return view definition.

Given a [Connection](#), a string *view_name*, and an optional string *schema*, return the view definition.

get_view_names (*connection*, *schema=None*, ***kw*)

Return a list of all view names available in the database.

schema: Optional, retrieve names from a non-default schema.

has_sequence (*connection*, *sequence_name*, *schema=None*)

Check the existence of a particular sequence in the database.

Given a [Connection](#) object and a string *sequence_name*, return True if the given sequence exists in the database, False otherwise.

has_table (*connection*, *table_name*, *schema=None*)

Check the existence of a particular table in the database.

Given a [Connection](#) object and a string *table_name*, return True if the given table (possibly within the specified *schema*) exists in the database, False otherwise.

initialize (*connection*)

Called during strategized creation of the dialect with a connection.

Allows dialects to configure options based on server version info or other properties.

The connection passed here is a SQLAlchemy Connection object, with full capabilities.

The initialize() method of the base dialect should be called via super().

is_disconnect (*e*, *connection*, *cursor*)

Return True if the given DB-API error indicates an invalid connection

normalize_name (*name*)

convert the given name to lowercase if it is detected as case insensitive.

this method is only used if the dialect defines `requires_name_normalize=True`.

reflecttable (*connection*, *table*, *include_columns=None*)

Load table description from the database.

Given a [Connection](#) and a [Table](#) object, reflect its columns and properties from the database. If *include_columns* (a list or set) is specified, limit the autoload to the given column names.

The default implementation uses the [Inspector](#) interface to provide the output, building upon the granular table/column/ constraint etc. methods of [Dialect](#).

reset_isolation_level (*dbapi_conn*)

Given a DBAPI connection, revert its isolation to the default.

set_isolation_level (*dbapi_conn*, *level*)

Given a DBAPI connection, set its isolation level.

classmethod type_descriptor (*typeobj*)

Transform a generic type to a dialect-specific type.

Dialect classes will usually use the `adapt_type()` function in the `types` module to make this job easy.

The returned result is cached *per dialect class* so can contain no dialect-instance state.

class sqlalchemy.engine.default.**DefaultExecutionContext**

Bases: [sqlalchemy.engine.base.ExecutionContext](#)

connection

create_cursor ()

get_insert_default (*column*)

get_lastrowid ()

return self.cursor.lastrowid, or equivalent, after an INSERT.

This may involve calling special cursor functions, issuing a new SELECT on the cursor (or a new one), or returning a stored value that was calculated within `post_exec()`.

This function will only be called for dialects which support “implicit” primary key generation, keep `pre-execute_autoincrement_sequences` set to False, and when no explicit id value was bound to the statement.

The function is called once, directly after `post_exec()` and before the transaction is committed or Result-Proxy is generated. If the `post_exec()` method assigns a value to `self._lastrowid`, the value is used in place of calling `get_lastrowid()`.

Note that this method is *not* equivalent to the `lastrowid` method on `ResultProxy`, which is a direct proxy to the DBAPI `lastrowid` accessor in all cases.

`get_result_proxy()`

`get_update_default(column)`

`handle_dbapi_exception(e)`

`is_crud`

`lastrow_has_defaults()`

`post_exec()`

`post_insert()`

`pre_exec()`

`rowcount`

`set_input_sizes(translate=None, exclude_types=None)`

Given a cursor and `ClauseParameters`, call the appropriate style of `setinputsizes()` on the cursor, using DB-API types from the bind parameter's `TypeEngine` objects.

This method only called by those dialects which require it, currently `cx_oracle`.

`should_autocommit`

`should_autocommit_text(statement)`

`supports_sane_multi_rowcount()`

`supports_sane_rowcount()`

class `sqlalchemy.engine.base.ExecutionContext`

Bases: `object`

A messenger object for a `Dialect` that corresponds to a single execution.

`ExecutionContext` should have these data members:

connection Connection object which can be freely used by default value generators to execute SQL. This

Connection should reference the same underlying connection/transactional resources of `root_connection`.

root_connection Connection object which is the source of this `ExecutionContext`. This Connection may have `close_with_result=True` set, in which case it can only be used once.

dialect dialect which created this `ExecutionContext`.

cursor DB-API cursor procured from the connection,

compiled if passed to constructor, `sqlalchemy.engine.base.Compiled` object being executed,

statement string version of the statement to be executed. Is either passed to the constructor, or must be created from the `sql.Compiled` object by the time `pre_exec()` has completed.

parameters bind parameters passed to the `execute()` method. For compiled statements, this is a dictionary or list of dictionaries. For textual statements, it should be in a format suitable for the dialect's `paramstyle` (i.e. dict or list of dicts for non positional, list or list of lists/tuples for positional).

isinsert True if the statement is an INSERT.

isupdate True if the statement is an UPDATE.

should_autocommit True if the statement is a "committable" statement.

postfetch_cols a list of `Column` objects for which a server-side default or inline SQL expression value was fired off. Applies to inserts and updates.

create_cursor()

Return a new cursor generated from this `ExecutionContext`'s connection.

Some dialects may wish to change the behavior of `connection.cursor()`, such as `postgresql` which may return a PG "server side" cursor.

get_rowcount()

Return the number of rows produced (by a SELECT query) or affected (by an INSERT/UPDATE/DELETE statement).

Note that this row count may not be properly implemented in some dialects; this is indicated by the `supports_sane_rowcount` and `supports_sane_multi_rowcount` dialect attributes.

handle_dbapi_exception(e)

Receive a DBAPI exception which occurred upon execute, result fetch, etc.

lastrow_has_defaults()

Return True if the last INSERT or UPDATE row contained inlined or database-side defaults.

post_exec()

Called after the execution of a compiled statement.

If a compiled statement was passed to this ExecutionContext, the `last_insert_ids`, `last_inserted_params`, etc. datamembers should be available after this method completes.

pre_exec()

Called before an execution of a compiled statement.

If a compiled statement was passed to this ExecutionContext, the `statement` and `parameters` datamembers must be initialized after this statement is complete.

result()

Return a result object corresponding to this ExecutionContext.

Returns a ResultProxy.

should_autocommit_text(statement)

Parse the given textual statement and return True if it refers to a “committable” statement

```
class sqlalchemy.sql.compiler.IdentifierPreparer(dialect, initial_quote="", fi-  
                                                nal_quote=None, escape_quote="",  
                                                omit_schema=False)
```

Bases: object

Handle quoting and case-folding of identifiers based on options.

__init__(*dialect*, *initial_quote*="", *final_quote*=None, *escape_quote*="", *omit_schema*=False)

Construct a new IdentifierPreparer object.

initial_quote Character that begins a delimited identifier.

final_quote Character that ends a delimited identifier. Defaults to *initial_quote*.

omit_schema Prevent prepending schema name. Useful for databases that do not support schemae.

format_column(*column*, *use_table*=False, *name*=None, *table_name*=None)

Prepare a quoted column name.

format_table(*table*, *use_schema*=True, *name*=None)

Prepare a quoted table and schema name.

format_table_seq(*table*, *use_schema*=True)

Format table name and schema as a tuple.

quote_identifier(*value*)

Quote an identifier.

Subclasses should override this to provide database-dependent quoting behavior.

quote_schema(*schema*, *force*)

Quote a schema.

Subclasses should override this to provide database-dependent quoting behavior.

unformat_identifiers (*identifiers*)

Unpack 'schema.table.column'-like strings into components.

class sqlalchemy.sql.compiler.**SQLCompiler** (*dialect, statement, column_keys=None, inline=False, **kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.engine.base.Compiled

Default implementation of Compiled.

Compiles ClauseElements into SQL strings. Uses a similar visit paradigm as visitors.ClauseVisitor but implements its own traversal.

__init__ (*dialect, statement, column_keys=None, inline=False, **kwargs*)

Construct a new DefaultCompiler object.

dialect Dialect to be used

statement ClauseElement to be compiled

column_keys a list of column names to be compiled into an INSERT or UPDATE statement.

construct_params (*params=None, _group_number=None*)

return a dictionary of bind parameter keys and values

default_from ()

Called when a SELECT statement has no froms, and no FROM clause is to be appended.

Gives Oracle a chance to tack on a FROM DUAL to the string output.

escape_literal_column (*text*)

provide escaping for the literal_column() construct.

get_select_precolumns (*select*)

Called when building a SELECT statement, position is just before column list.

label_select_column (*select, column, asfrom*)

label columns present in a select().

params

Return the bind params for this compiled object.

render_literal_value (*value, type_*)

Render the value of a bind parameter as a quoted literal.

This is used for statement sections that do not accept bind paramters on the target driver/database.

This should be implemented by subclasses using the quoting services of the DBAPI.

DIALECTS

The **dialect** is the system SQLAlchemy uses to communicate with various types of DBAPIs and databases. A compatibility chart of supported backends can be found at [Supported Databases](#). The sections that follow contain reference documentation and notes specific to the usage of each backend, as well as notes for the various DBAPIs.

Note that not all backends are fully ported and tested with current versions of SQLAlchemy. The compatibility chart should be consulted to check for current support level.

4.1 Drizzle

Support for the Drizzle database.

4.1.1 Supported Versions and Features

SQLAlchemy supports the Drizzle database starting with 2010.08. with capabilities increasing with more modern servers.

Most available DBAPI drivers are supported; see below.

Feature	Minimum Version
sqlalchemy.orm	2010.08
Table Reflection	2010.08
DDL Generation	2010.08
utf8/Full Unicode Connections	2010.08
Transactions	2010.08
Two-Phase Transactions	2010.08
Nested Transactions	2010.08

See the official Drizzle documentation for detailed information about features supported in any given server release.

4.1.2 Connecting

See the API documentation on individual drivers for details on connecting.

4.1.3 Connection Timeouts

Drizzle features an automatic connection close behavior, for connections that have been idle for eight hours or more. To circumvent having this issue, use the `pool_recycle` option which controls the maximum age of any connection:

```
engine = create_engine('drizzle:mysql://...', pool_recycle=3600)
```

4.1.4 Storage Engines

Drizzle defaults to the InnoDB storage engine, which is transactional.

Storage engines can be elected when creating tables in SQLAlchemy by supplying a `drizzle_engine='whatever'` to the Table constructor. Any Drizzle table creation option can be specified in this syntax:

```
Table('mytable', metadata,
      Column('data', String(32)),
      drizzle_engine='InnoDB',
)
```

4.1.5 Keys

Not all Drizzle storage engines support foreign keys. For BlitzDB and similar engines, the information loaded by table reflection will not include foreign keys. For these tables, you may supply a `ForeignKeyConstraint` at reflection time:

```
Table('mytable', metadata,
      ForeignKeyConstraint(['other_id'], ['othertable.other_id']),
      autoload=True
)
```

When creating tables, SQLAlchemy will automatically set `AUTO_INCREMENT` on an integer primary key column:

```
>>> t = Table('mytable', metadata,
...     Column('mytable_id', Integer, primary_key=True)
... )
>>> t.create()
CREATE TABLE mytable (
    id INTEGER NOT NULL AUTO_INCREMENT,
    PRIMARY KEY (id)
)
```

You can disable this behavior by supplying `autoincrement=False` to the `Column`. This flag can also be used to enable auto-increment on a secondary column in a multi-column key for some storage engines:

```
Table('mytable', metadata,
      Column('gid', Integer, primary_key=True, autoincrement=False),
      Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True)
)
```

4.1.6 Drizzle SQL Extensions

Many of the Drizzle SQL extensions are handled through SQLAlchemy's generic function and operator support:

```
table.select(table.c.password==func.md5('plaintext'))
table.select(table.c.username.op('regexp') ('^[a-d]'))
```

And of course any valid Drizzle statement can be executed as a string as well.

Some limited direct support for Drizzle extensions to SQL is currently available.

- `SELECT pragma`:

```
select(..., prefixes=['HIGH_PRIORITY', 'SQL_SMALL_RESULT'])
```

- UPDATE with LIMIT:

```
update(..., drizzle_limit=10)
```

4.1.7 Drizzle Data Types

As with all SQLAlchemy dialects, all UPPERCASE types that are known to be valid with Drizzle are importable from the top level dialect:

```
from sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle import \
    BIGINT, BINARY, BLOB, BOOLEAN, CHAR, DATE, DATETIME,
    DECIMAL, DOUBLE, ENUM, FLOAT, INT, INTEGER,
    NUMERIC, TEXT, TIME, TIMESTAMP, VARBINARY, VARCHAR
```

Types which are specific to Drizzle, or have Drizzle-specific construction arguments, are as follows:

class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.**BIGINT** (**kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.BIGINT

Drizzle BIGINTEGER type.

__init__ (**kw)

Construct a BIGINTEGER.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.**CHAR** (length=None, **kwargs)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.CHAR

Drizzle CHAR type, for fixed-length character data.

__init__ (length=None, **kwargs)

Construct a CHAR.

Parameters

- **length** – Maximum data length, in characters.
- **binary** – Optional, use the default binary collation for the national character set. This does not affect the type of data stored, use a BINARY type for binary data.
- **collation** – Optional, request a particular collation. Must be compatible with the national character set.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.**DECIMAL** (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.base._NumericType, sqlalchemy.types.DECIMAL

Drizzle DECIMAL type.

__init__ (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw)

Construct a DECIMAL.

Parameters

- **precision** – Total digits in this number. If scale and precision are both None, values are stored to limits allowed by the server.
- **scale** – The number of digits after the decimal point.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.**DOUBLE** (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.base._FloatType

Drizzle DOUBLE type.

`__init__` (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw*)
Construct a DOUBLE.

Parameters

- **precision** – Total digits in this number. If scale and precision are both None, values are stored to limits allowed by the server.
- **scale** – The number of digits after the decimal point.

`class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.ENUM(*enums, **kw)`
Bases: `sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base.ENUM`

Drizzle ENUM type.

`__init__` (**enums, **kw*)
Construct an ENUM.

Example:

`Column('myenum', ENUM("foo", "bar", "baz"))`

Parameters

- **enums** – The range of valid values for this ENUM. Values will be quoted when generating the schema according to the quoting flag (see below).
- **strict** – Defaults to False: ensure that a given value is in this ENUM's range of permissible values when inserting or updating rows. Note that Drizzle will not raise a fatal error if you attempt to store an out of range value- an alternate value will be stored instead. (See Drizzle ENUM documentation.)
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Takes precedence to 'binary' short-hand.
- **binary** – Defaults to False: short-hand, pick the binary collation type that matches the column's character set. Generates BINARY in schema. This does not affect the type of data stored, only the collation of character data.
- **quoting** – Defaults to 'auto': automatically determine enum value quoting. If all enum values are surrounded by the same quoting character, then use 'quoted' mode. Otherwise, use 'unquoted' mode.

'quoted': values in enums are already quoted, they will be used directly when generating the schema - this usage is deprecated.

'unquoted': values in enums are not quoted, they will be escaped and surrounded by single quotes when generating the schema.

Previous versions of this type always required manually quoted values to be supplied; future versions will always quote the string literals for you. This is a transitional option.

`class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.FLOAT(precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=False, **kw)`
Bases: `sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.base._FloatType, sqlalchemy.types.FLOAT`

Drizzle FLOAT type.

`__init__` (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=False, **kw*)
Construct a FLOAT.

Parameters

- **precision** – Total digits in this number. If scale and precision are both None, values are stored to limits allowed by the server.
- **scale** – The number of digits after the decimal point.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.**INTEGER** (**kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.INTEGER

Drizzle INTEGER type.

__init__ (**kw)

Construct an INTEGER.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.**NUMERIC** (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.base._NumericType, sqlalchemy.types.NUMERIC

Drizzle NUMERIC type.

__init__ (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw)

Construct a NUMERIC.

Parameters

- **precision** – Total digits in this number. If scale and precision are both None, values are stored to limits allowed by the server.
- **scale** – The number of digits after the decimal point.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.**REAL** (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.base._FloatType, sqlalchemy.types.REAL

Drizzle REAL type.

__init__ (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw)

Construct a REAL.

Parameters

- **precision** – Total digits in this number. If scale and precision are both None, values are stored to limits allowed by the server.
- **scale** – The number of digits after the decimal point.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.**TEXT** (length=None, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.TEXT

Drizzle TEXT type, for text up to 2¹⁶ characters.

__init__ (length=None, **kw)

Construct a TEXT.

Parameters

- **length** – Optional, if provided the server may optimize storage by substituting the smallest TEXT type sufficient to store length characters.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘binary’ short-hand.
- **binary** – Defaults to False: short-hand, pick the binary collation type that matches the column’s character set. Generates BINARY in schema. This does not affect the type of data stored, only the collation of character data.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.**TIMESTAMP** (*timezone=False*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TIMESTAMP

Drizzle TIMESTAMP type.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.**VARCHAR** (*length=None, **kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.drizzle.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.VARCHAR

Drizzle VARCHAR type, for variable-length character data.

__init__ (*length=None, **kwargs*)

Construct a VARCHAR.

Parameters

- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘binary’ short-hand.
- **binary** – Defaults to False: short-hand, pick the binary collation type that matches the column’s character set. Generates BINARY in schema. This does not affect the type of data stored, only the collation of character data.

4.1.8 MySQL-Python Notes

Support for the Drizzle database via the Drizzle-python adapter.

Drizzle-Python is available at:

<http://sourceforge.net/projects/mysql-python>

At least version 1.2.1 or 1.2.2 should be used.

Connecting

Connect string format:

drizzle+mysqldb://<user>:<password>@<host>[:<port>]/<dbname>

Character Sets

Drizzle is all utf8 all the time.

Known Issues

Drizzle-python at least as of version 1.2.2 has a serious memory leak related to unicode conversion, a feature which is disabled via `use_unicode=0`. The recommended connection form with SQLAlchemy is:

```
engine = create_engine('mysql://scott:tiger@localhost/test?charset=utf8&use_unicode=0', pool=...
```

4.2 Firebird

Support for the Firebird database.

Connectivity is usually supplied via the [kinterbasdb](#) DBAPI module.

4.2.1 Dialects

Firebird offers two distinct [dialects](#) (not to be confused with a SQLAlchemy [Dialect](#)):

dialect 1 This is the old syntax and behaviour, inherited from Interbase pre-6.0.

dialect 3 This is the newer and supported syntax, introduced in Interbase 6.0.

The SQLAlchemy Firebird dialect detects these versions and adjusts its representation of SQL accordingly. However, support for dialect 1 is not well tested and probably has incompatibilities.

4.2.2 Locking Behavior

Firebird locks tables aggressively. For this reason, a DROP TABLE may hang until other transactions are released. SQLAlchemy does its best to release transactions as quickly as possible. The most common cause of hanging transactions is a non-fully consumed result set, i.e.:

```
result = engine.execute("select * from table")
row = result.fetchone()
return
```

Where above, the `ResultProxy` has not been fully consumed. The connection will be returned to the pool and the transactional state rolled back once the Python garbage collector reclaims the objects which hold onto the connection, which often occurs asynchronously. The above use case can be alleviated by calling `first()` on the `ResultProxy` which will fetch the first row and immediately close all remaining cursor/connection resources.

4.2.3 RETURNING support

Firebird 2.0 supports returning a result set from inserts, and 2.1 extends that to deletes and updates. This is generically exposed by the SQLAlchemy `returning()` method, such as:

```
# INSERT..RETURNING
result = table.insert().returning(table.c.col1, table.c.col2).\
    values(name='foo')
print result.fetchall()

# UPDATE..RETURNING
raises = empl.update().returning(empl.c.id, empl.c.salary).\
    where(empl.c.sales>100).\
    values(dict(salary=empl.c.salary * 1.1))
print raises.fetchall()
```

4.2.4 kinterbasdb

The most common way to connect to a Firebird engine is implemented by [kinterbasdb](#), currently [maintained](#) directly by the Firebird people.

The connection URL is of the form `firebird[+kinterbasdb]://user:password@host:port/path/to/db[?key=value]`

Kinterbasdb backend specific keyword arguments are:

- `type_conv` - select the kind of mapping done on the types: by default SQLAlchemy uses 200 with Unicode, datetime and decimal support (see [details](#)).
- `concurrency_level` - set the backend policy with regards to threading issues: by default SQLAlchemy uses policy 1 (see [details](#)).

- `enable_rowcount` - True by default, setting this to False disables the usage of “`cursor.rowcount`” with the Kinterbasdb dialect, which SQLAlchemy ordinarily calls upon automatically after any UPDATE or DELETE statement. When disabled, SQLAlchemy’s ResultProxy will return -1 for `result.rowcount`. The rationale here is that Kinterbasdb requires a second round trip to the database when `.rowcount` is called - since SQLA’s resultproxy automatically closes the cursor after a non-result-returning statement, rowcount must be called, if at all, before the result object is returned. Additionally, `cursor.rowcount` may not return correct results with older versions of Firebird, and setting this flag to False will also cause the SQLAlchemy ORM to ignore its usage. The behavior can also be controlled on a per-execution basis using the `enable_rowcount` option with `execution_options()`:

```
conn = engine.connect().execution_options(enable_rowcount=True)
r = conn.execute(stmt)
print r.rowcount
```

4.3 Informix

Support for the Informix database.

This dialect is mostly functional as of SQLAlchemy 0.6.5.

4.3.1 informixdb Notes

Support for the informixdb DBAPI.

informixdb is available at:

<http://informixdb.sourceforge.net/>

Connecting

Sample informix connection:

```
engine = create_engine('informix+informixdb://user:password@host/dbname')
```

4.4 MaxDB

Support for the MaxDB database.

This dialect is *not* ported to SQLAlchemy 0.6 or 0.7.

This dialect is *not* tested on SQLAlchemy 0.6 or 0.7.

4.4.1 Overview

The `maxdb` dialect is **experimental** and has only been tested on 7.6.03.007 and 7.6.00.037. Of these, **only 7.6.03.007 will work** with SQLAlchemy’s ORM. The earlier version has severe `LEFT JOIN` limitations and will return incorrect results from even very simple ORM queries.

Only the native Python DB-API is currently supported. ODBC driver support is a future enhancement.

4.4.2 Connecting

The username is case-sensitive. If you usually connect to the database with `sqlcli` and other tools in lower case, you likely need to use upper case for DB-API.

4.4.3 Implementation Notes

With the 7.6.00.37 driver and Python 2.5, it seems that all DB-API generated exceptions are broken and can cause Python to crash.

For `'somecol.in_([...])'` to work, the IN operator's generation must be changed to cast 'NULL' to a numeric, i.e. `NUM(NULL)`. The DB-API doesn't accept a bind parameter there, so that particular generation must inline the NULL value, which depends on [ticket:807].

The DB-API is very picky about where bind params may be used in queries.

Bind params for some functions (e.g. MOD) need type information supplied. The dialect does not yet do this automatically.

Max will occasionally throw up 'bad sql, compile again' exceptions for perfectly valid SQL. The dialect does not currently handle these, more research is needed.

MaxDB 7.5 and Sap DB <= 7.4 reportedly do not support schemas. A very slightly different version of this dialect would be required to support those versions, and can easily be added if there is demand. Some other required components such as an Max-aware 'old oracle style' join compiler (thetas with (+) outer indicators) are already done and available for integration- email the devel list if you're interested in working on this.

Versions tested: 7.6.03.07 and 7.6.00.37, native Python DB-API

- MaxDB has severe limitations on OUTER JOINS, which are essential to ORM eager loading. And rather than raise an error if a SELECT can't be serviced, the database simply returns incorrect results.
- Version 7.6.03.07 seems to JOIN properly, however the docs do not show the OUTER restrictions being lifted (as of this writing), and no changelog is available to confirm either. If you are using a different server version and your tasks require the ORM or any semi-advanced SQL through the SQL layer, running the SQLAlchemy test suite against your database is HIGHLY recommended before you begin.
- Version 7.6.00.37 is LHS/RHS sensitive in *FROM lhs LEFT OUTER JOIN rhs ON lhs.col=rhs.col* vs *rhs.col=lhs.col*!
- Version 7.6.00.37 is confused by *SELECT DISTINCT col as alias FROM t ORDER BY col* - these aliased, DISTINCT, ordered queries need to be re-written to order by the alias name.
- Version 7.6.x supports creating a SAVEPOINT but not its RELEASE.
- MaxDB supports autoincrement-style columns (DEFAULT SERIAL) and independent sequences. When including a DEFAULT SERIAL column in an insert, 0 needs to be inserted rather than NULL to generate a value.
- MaxDB supports ANSI and "old Oracle style" theta joins with (+) outer join indicators.
- The SQLAlchemy dialect is schema-aware and probably won't function correctly on server versions (pre-7.6?). Support for schema-less server versions could be added if there's call.
- ORDER BY is not supported in subqueries. LIMIT is not supported in subqueries. In 7.6.00.37, TOP does work in subqueries, but without limit not so useful. OFFSET does not work in 7.6 despite being in the docs. Row number tricks in WHERE via ROWNO may be possible but it only seems to allow less-than comparison!
- Version 7.6.03.07 can't LIMIT if a derived table is in FROM: *SELECT * FROM (SELECT * FROM a) LIMIT 2*
- MaxDB does not support sql's CAST and can only usefully cast two types. There isn't much implicit type conversion, so be precise when creating *PassiveDefaults* in DDL generation: '3' and 3 aren't the same.

sapdb.dbapi

- As of 2007-10-22 the Python 2.4 and 2.5 compatible versions of the DB-API are no longer available. A forum posting at SAP states that the Python driver will be available again “in the future”. The last release from MySQL AB works if you can find it.
- `sequence.NEXTVAL` skips every other value!
- No rowcount for `executemany()`
- If an `INSERT` into a table with a `DEFAULT SERIAL` column inserts the results of a function *INSERT INTO t VALUES (LENGTH('foo'))*, the cursor won't have the serial id. It needs to be manually yanked from `table-name.CURRVAL`.
- Super-duper picky about where bind params can be placed. Not smart about converting Python types for some functions, such as *MOD(5, ?)*.
- `LONG` (text, binary) values in result sets are read-once. The dialect uses a caching `RowProxy` when these types are present.
- Connection objects seem like they want to be either `'close()'`d or garbage collected, but not both. There's a warning issued but it seems harmless.

4.5 Microsoft Access

Support for the Microsoft Access database.

This dialect is *not* ported to SQLAlchemy 0.6 or 0.7.

This dialect is *not* tested on SQLAlchemy 0.6 or 0.7.

4.6 Microsoft SQL Server

Support for the Microsoft SQL Server database.

4.6.1 Connecting

See the individual driver sections below for details on connecting.

4.6.2 Auto Increment Behavior

`IDENTITY` columns are supported by using SQLAlchemy `schema.Sequence()` objects. In other words:

```
from sqlalchemy import Table, Integer, Sequence, Column

Table('test', metadata,
      Column('id', Integer,
             Sequence('blah', 100, 10), primary_key=True),
      Column('name', String(20))
      ).create(some_engine)
```

would yield:

```
CREATE TABLE test (
    id INTEGER NOT NULL IDENTITY(100,10) PRIMARY KEY,
    name VARCHAR(20) NULL,
)
```

Note that the start and increment values for sequences are optional and will default to 1,1.

Implicit autoincrement behavior works the same in MSSQL as it does in other dialects and results in an IDENTITY column.

- Support for SET IDENTITY_INSERT ON mode (automagic on / off for INSERT s)
- Support for auto-fetching of @@IDENTITY/@@SCOPE_IDENTITY() on INSERT

4.6.3 Collation Support

MSSQL specific string types support a collation parameter that creates a column-level specific collation for the column. The collation parameter accepts a Windows Collation Name or a SQL Collation Name. Supported types are MSChar, MSNChar, MSString, MSNVarchar, MSText, and MSNText. For example:

```
from sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql import VARCHAR
Column('login', VARCHAR(32, collation='Latin1_General_CI_AS'))
```

When such a column is associated with a Table, the CREATE TABLE statement for this column will yield:

```
login VARCHAR(32) COLLATE Latin1_General_CI_AS NULL
```

4.6.4 LIMIT/OFFSET Support

MSSQL has no support for the LIMIT or OFFSET keywords. LIMIT is supported directly through the TOP Transact SQL keyword:

```
select.limit
```

will yield:

```
SELECT TOP n
```

If using SQL Server 2005 or above, LIMIT with OFFSET support is available through the ROW_NUMBER OVER construct. For versions below 2005, LIMIT with OFFSET usage will fail.

4.6.5 Nullability

MSSQL has support for three levels of column nullability. The default nullability allows nulls and is explicit in the CREATE TABLE construct:

```
name VARCHAR(20) NULL
```

If nullable=None is specified then no specification is made. In other words the database's configured default is used. This will render:

```
name VARCHAR(20)
```

If nullable is True or False then the column will be NULL or NOT NULL respectively.

4.6.6 Date / Time Handling

DATE and TIME are supported. Bind parameters are converted to `datetime.datetime()` objects as required by most MSSQL drivers, and results are processed from strings if needed. The DATE and TIME types are not available for MSSQL 2005 and previous - if a server version below 2008 is detected, DDL for these types will be issued as DATETIME.

4.6.7 Compatibility Levels

MSSQL supports the notion of setting compatibility levels at the database level. This allows, for instance, to run a database that is compatible with SQL2000 while running on a SQL2005 database server. `server_version_info` will always return the database server version information (in this case SQL2005) and not the compatibility level information. Because of this, if running under a backwards compatibility mode SQLAlchemy may attempt to use T-SQL statements that are unable to be parsed by the database server.

4.6.8 Triggers

SQLAlchemy by default uses OUTPUT INSERTED to get at newly generated primary key values via IDENTITY columns or other server side defaults. MS-SQL does not allow the usage of OUTPUT INSERTED on tables that have triggers. To disable the usage of OUTPUT INSERTED on a per-table basis, specify `implicit_returning=False` for each `Table` which has triggers:

```
Table('mytable', metadata,
      Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
      # ...,
      implicit_returning=False
)
```

Declarative form:

```
class MyClass(Base):
    # ...
    __table_args__ = {'implicit_returning': False}
```

This option can also be specified engine-wide using the `implicit_returning=False` argument on `create_engine()`.

4.6.9 Enabling Snapshot Isolation

Not necessarily specific to SQLAlchemy, SQL Server has a default transaction isolation mode that locks entire tables, and causes even mildly concurrent applications to have long held locks and frequent deadlocks. Enabling snapshot isolation for the database as a whole is recommended for modern levels of concurrency support. This is accomplished via the following ALTER DATABASE commands executed at the SQL prompt:

```
ALTER DATABASE MyDatabase SET ALLOW_SNAPSHOT_ISOLATION ON
```

```
ALTER DATABASE MyDatabase SET READ_COMMITTED_SNAPSHOT ON
```

Background on SQL Server snapshot isolation is available at <http://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/ms175095.aspx>.

4.6.10 Known Issues

- No support for more than one IDENTITY column per table

- reflection of indexes does not work with versions older than SQL Server 2005

4.6.11 SQL Server Data Types

As with all SQLAlchemy dialects, all UPPERCASE types that are known to be valid with SQL server are importable from the top level dialect, whether they originate from `sqlalchemy.types` or from the local dialect:

```
from sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql import \
    BIGINT, BINARY, BIT, CHAR, DATE, DATETIME, DATETIME2, \
    DATETIMEOFFSET, DECIMAL, FLOAT, IMAGE, INTEGER, MONEY, \
    NCHAR, NTEXT, NUMERIC, NVARCHAR, REAL, SMALLDATETIME, \
    SMALLINT, SMALLMONEY, SQL_VARIANT, TEXT, TIME, \
    TIMESTAMP, TINYINT, UNIQUEIDENTIFIER, VARBINARY, VARCHAR
```

Types which are specific to SQL Server, or have SQL Server-specific construction arguments, are as follows:

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.BIT(*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
    __init__(*args, **kwargs)
        Support implementations that were passing arguments

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.CHAR(length=None, collation=None, **kw)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.CHAR
    MSSQL CHAR type, for fixed-length non-Unicode data with a maximum of 8,000 characters.
    __init__(length=None, collation=None, **kw)
        Construct a CHAR.
```

Parameters

- **length** – Optional, maximum data length, in characters.
- **convert_unicode** – defaults to False. If True, convert unicode data sent to the database to a `str` bytestring, and convert bytestrings coming back from the database into unicode.

Bytestrings are encoded using the dialect's encoding, which defaults to `utf-8`.
If False, may be overridden by `sqlalchemy.engine.base.Dialect.convert_unicode`.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Accepts a Windows Collation Name or a SQL Collation Name.

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.DATETIME2(precision=None, **kw)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.base._DateTimeBase, sqlalchemy.types.DateTime

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.DATETIMEOFFSET(precision=None, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.IMAGE(length=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.LargeBinary
    __init__(length=None)
        Construct a LargeBinary type.
```

Parameters length – optional, a length for the column for use in DDL statements, for those BLOB types that accept a length (i.e. MySQL). It does *not* produce a small BINARY/VARBINARY type - use the BINARY/VARBINARY types specifically for those. May be safely omitted if no `CREATE TABLE` will be issued. Certain databases

may require a *length* for use in DDL, and will raise an exception when the CREATE TABLE DDL is issued.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.**MONEY** (*args, **kwargs)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine

__init__ (*args, **kwargs)

Support implementations that were passing arguments

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.**NCHAR** (length=None, collation=None, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.NCHAR

MSSQL NCHAR type.

For fixed-length unicode character data up to 4,000 characters.

__init__ (length=None, collation=None, **kw)

Construct an NCHAR.

Parameters

- **length** – Optional, Maximum data length, in characters.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Accepts a Windows Collation Name or a SQL Collation Name.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.**NTEXT** (length=None, collation=None, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.UnicodeText

MSSQL NTEXT type, for variable-length unicode text up to 2³⁰ characters.

__init__ (length=None, collation=None, **kw)

Construct a NTEXT.

Parameters **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Accepts a Windows Collation Name or a SQL Collation Name.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.**NVARCHAR** (length=None, collation=None, **kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.NVARCHAR

MSSQL NVARCHAR type.

For variable-length unicode character data up to 4,000 characters.

__init__ (length=None, collation=None, **kw)

Construct a NVARCHAR.

Parameters

- **length** – Optional, Maximum data length, in characters.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Accepts a Windows Collation Name or a SQL Collation Name.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.**REAL** (**kw)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.REAL

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.**SMALLDATETIME** (timezone=False)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.base._DateTimeBase, sqlalchemy.types.DateTime

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.**SMALLMONEY** (*args, **kwargs)

Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine

__init__ (*args, **kwargs)

Support implementations that were passing arguments

```

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.SQL_VARIANT (*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine

    __init__ (*args, **kwargs)
        Support implementations that were passing arguments

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.TEXT (length=None, collation=None, **kw)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.TEXT

    MSSQL TEXT type, for variable-length text up to 2^31 characters.

    __init__ (length=None, collation=None, **kw)
        Construct a TEXT.

        Parameters
        collation – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Accepts a
            Windows Collation Name or a SQL Collation Name.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.TIME (precision=None, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TIME

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.TINYINT (*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Integer

    __init__ (*args, **kwargs)
        Support implementations that were passing arguments

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.UNIQUEIDENTIFIER (*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine

    __init__ (*args, **kwargs)
        Support implementations that were passing arguments

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.VARCHAR (length=None, collation=None, **kw)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mssql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.VARCHAR

    MSSQL VARCHAR type, for variable-length non-Unicode data with a maximum of 8,000 characters.

    __init__ (length=None, collation=None, **kw)
        Construct a VARCHAR.

```

Parameters

- **length** – Optinal, maximum data length, in characters.
- **convert_unicode** – defaults to False. If True, convert unicode data sent to the database to a `str` bytestring, and convert bytestrings coming back from the database into unicode.

Bytestrings are encoded using the dialect's encoding, which defaults to `utf-8`.
If False, may be overridden by `sqlalchemy.engine.base.Dialect.convert_unicode`.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Accepts a Windows Collation Name or a SQL Collation Name.

4.6.12 PyODBC

Support for MS-SQL via pyodbc.

pyodbc is available at:

<http://pypi.python.org/pypi/pyodbc/>

Connecting

Examples of pyodbc connection string URLs:

- `mssql+pyodbc://mydsn` - connects using the specified DSN named `mydsn`. The connection string that is created will appear like:

```
dsn=mydsn;Trusted_Connection=Yes
```

- `mssql+pyodbc://user:pass@mydsn` - connects using the DSN named `mydsn` passing in the UID and PWD information. The connection string that is created will appear like:

```
dsn=mydsn;UID=user;PWD=pass
```

- `mssql+pyodbc://user:pass@mydsn/?LANGUAGE=us_english` - connects using the DSN named `mydsn` passing in the UID and PWD information, plus the additional connection configuration option `LANGUAGE`. The connection string that is created will appear like:

```
dsn=mydsn;UID=user;PWD=pass;LANGUAGE=us_english
```

- `mssql+pyodbc://user:pass@host/db` - connects using a connection string dynamically created that would appear like:

```
DRIVER={SQL Server};Server=host;Database=db;UID=user;PWD=pass
```

- `mssql+pyodbc://user:pass@host:123/db` - connects using a connection string that is dynamically created, which also includes the port information using the comma syntax. If your connection string requires the port information to be passed as a port keyword see the next example. This will create the following connection string:

```
DRIVER={SQL Server};Server=host,123;Database=db;UID=user;PWD=pass
```

- `mssql+pyodbc://user:pass@host/db?port=123` - connects using a connection string that is dynamically created that includes the port information as a separate `port` keyword. This will create the following connection string:

```
DRIVER={SQL Server};Server=host;Database=db;UID=user;PWD=pass;port=123
```

If you require a connection string that is outside the options presented above, use the `odbc_connect` keyword to pass in a urlencoded connection string. What gets passed in will be urldecoded and passed directly.

For example:

```
mssql+pyodbc:///?odbc_connect=dsn%3Dmydsn%3DDatabase%3Ddb
```

would create the following connection string:

```
dsn=mydsn;Database=db
```

Encoding your connection string can be easily accomplished through the python shell. For example:

```
>>> import urllib
>>> urllib.quote_plus('dsn=mydsn;Database=db')
'dsn%3Dmydsn%3DDatabase%3Ddb'
```

4.6.13 mxODBC

Support for MS-SQL via mxODBC.

mxODBC is available at:

<http://www.egenix.com/>

This was tested with mxODBC 3.1.2 and the SQL Server Native Client connected to MSSQL 2005 and 2008 Express Editions.

Connecting

Connection is via DSN:

```
mssql+mxodbc://<username>:<password>@<dsnname>
```

Execution Modes

mxODBC features two styles of statement execution, using the `cursor.execute()` and `cursor.executedirect()` methods (the second being an extension to the DBAPI specification). The former makes use of a particular API call specific to the SQL Server Native Client ODBC driver known `SQLDescribeParam`, while the latter does not.

mxODBC apparently only makes repeated use of a single prepared statement when `SQLDescribeParam` is used. The advantage to prepared statement reuse is one of performance. The disadvantage is that `SQLDescribeParam` has a limited set of scenarios in which bind parameters are understood, including that they cannot be placed within the argument lists of function calls, anywhere outside the `FROM`, or even within subqueries within the `FROM` clause - making the usage of bind parameters within `SELECT` statements impossible for all but the most simplistic statements.

For this reason, the mxODBC dialect uses the “native” mode by default only for `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` statements, and uses the escaped string mode for all other statements.

This behavior can be controlled via `execution_options()` using the `native_odbc_execute` flag with a value of `True` or `False`, where a value of `True` will unconditionally use native bind parameters and a value of `False` will unconditionally use string-escaped parameters.

4.6.14 pymssql

Support for the pymssql dialect.

This dialect supports pymssql 1.0 and greater.

pymssql is available at:

<http://pymssql.sourceforge.net/>

Connecting

Sample connect string:

```
mssql+pymssql://<username>:<password>@<freets_name>
```

Adding `”?charset=utf8”` or similar will cause pymssql to return strings as Python unicode objects. This can potentially improve performance in some scenarios as decoding of strings is handled natively.

Limitations

pymssql inherits a lot of limitations from FreeTDS, including:

- no support for multibyte schema identifiers
- poor support for large decimals

- poor support for binary fields
- poor support for VARCHAR/CHAR fields over 255 characters

Please consult the pymssql documentation for further information.

4.6.15 zxjdbc Notes

Support for the Microsoft SQL Server database via the zxjdbc JDBC connector.

JDBC Driver

Requires the jTDS driver, available from: <http://jtds.sourceforge.net/>

Connecting

URLs are of the standard form of `mssql+zxjdbc://user:pass@host:port/dbname[?key=value&key=value...]`.

Additional arguments which may be specified either as query string arguments on the URL, or as keyword arguments to `create_engine()` will be passed as Connection properties to the underlying JDBC driver.

4.6.16 AdoDBAPI

The adodbapi dialect is not implemented for 0.6 at this time.

4.7 MySQL

Support for the MySQL database.

4.7.1 Supported Versions and Features

SQLAlchemy supports 6 major MySQL versions: 3.23, 4.0, 4.1, 5.0, 5.1 and 6.0, with capabilities increasing with more modern servers.

Versions 4.1 and higher support the basic SQL functionality that SQLAlchemy uses in the ORM and SQL expressions. These versions pass the applicable tests in the suite 100%. No heroic measures are taken to work around major missing SQL features- if your server version does not support sub-selects, for example, they won't work in SQLAlchemy either.

Most available DBAPI drivers are supported; see below.

Feature	Minimum Version
sqlalchemy.orm	4.1.1
Table Reflection	3.23.x
DDL Generation	4.1.1
utf8/Full Unicode Connections	4.1.1
Transactions	3.23.15
Two-Phase Transactions	5.0.3
Nested Transactions	5.0.3

See the official MySQL documentation for detailed information about features supported in any given server release.

4.7.2 Connecting

See the API documentation on individual drivers for details on connecting.

4.7.3 Connection Timeouts

MySQL features an automatic connection close behavior, for connections that have been idle for eight hours or more. To circumvent having this issue, use the `pool_recycle` option which controls the maximum age of any connection:

```
engine = create_engine('mysql+mysqldb://...', pool_recycle=3600)
```

4.7.4 Storage Engines

Most MySQL server installations have a default table type of `MyISAM`, a non-transactional table type. During a transaction, non-transactional storage engines do not participate and continue to store table changes in autocommit mode. For fully atomic transactions, all participating tables must use a transactional engine such as `InnoDB`, `Falcon`, `SolidDB`, `PBXT`, etc.

Storage engines can be elected when creating tables in SQLAlchemy by supplying a `mysql_engine='whatever'` to the `Table` constructor. Any MySQL table creation option can be specified in this syntax:

```
Table('mytable', metadata,
      Column('data', String(32)),
      mysql_engine='InnoDB',
      mysql_charset='utf8'
)
```

4.7.5 Case Sensitivity and Table Reflection

MySQL has inconsistent support for case-sensitive identifier names, basing support on specific details of the underlying operating system. However, it has been observed that no matter what case sensitivity behavior is present, the names of tables in foreign key declarations are *always* received from the database as all-lower case, making it impossible to accurately reflect a schema where inter-related tables use mixed-case identifier names.

Therefore it is strongly advised that table names be declared as all lower case both within SQLAlchemy as well as on the MySQL database itself, especially if database reflection features are to be used.

4.7.6 Keys

Not all MySQL storage engines support foreign keys. For `MyISAM` and similar engines, the information loaded by table reflection will not include foreign keys. For these tables, you may supply a `ForeignKeyConstraint` at reflection time:

```
Table('mytable', metadata,
      ForeignKeyConstraint(['other_id'], ['othertable.other_id']),
      autoload=True
)
```

When creating tables, SQLAlchemy will automatically set `AUTO_INCREMENT` on an integer primary key column:

```
>>> t = Table('mytable', metadata,
...   Column('mytable_id', Integer, primary_key=True)
... )
```

```
>>> t.create()
CREATE TABLE mytable (
    id INTEGER NOT NULL AUTO_INCREMENT,
    PRIMARY KEY (id)
)
```

You can disable this behavior by supplying `autoincrement=False` to the `Column`. This flag can also be used to enable auto-increment on a secondary column in a multi-column key for some storage engines:

```
Table('mytable', metadata,
      Column('gid', Integer, primary_key=True, autoincrement=False),
      Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True)
)
```

4.7.7 SQL Mode

MySQL SQL modes are supported. Modes that enable `ANSI_QUOTES` (such as `ANSI`) require an engine option to modify SQLAlchemy's quoting style. When using an ANSI-quoting mode, supply `use_ansiquotes=True` when creating your Engine:

```
create_engine('mysql://localhost/test', use_ansiquotes=True)
```

This is an engine-wide option and is not toggleable on a per-connection basis. SQLAlchemy does not presume to `SET sql_mode` for you with this option. For the best performance, set the quoting style server-wide in `my.cnf` or by supplying `--sql-mode` to `mysqld`. You can also use a `sqlalchemy.pool.Pool` listener hook to issue a `SET SESSION sql_mode='...'` on connect to configure each connection.

If you do not specify `use_ansiquotes`, the regular MySQL quoting style is used by default.

If you do issue a `SET sql_mode` through SQLAlchemy, the dialect must be updated if the quoting style is changed. Again, this change will affect all connections:

```
connection.execute('SET sql_mode="ansi"')
connection.dialect.use_ansiquotes = True
```

4.7.8 MySQL SQL Extensions

Many of the MySQL SQL extensions are handled through SQLAlchemy's generic function and operator support:

```
table.select(table.c.password==func.md5('plaintext'))
table.select(table.c.username.op('regexp') ('^[a-d]'))
```

And of course any valid MySQL statement can be executed as a string as well.

Some limited direct support for MySQL extensions to SQL is currently available.

- `SELECT` pragma:

```
select(..., prefixes=['HIGH_PRIORITY', 'SQL_SMALL_RESULT'])
```

- `UPDATE` with `LIMIT`:

```
update(..., mysql_limit=10)
```

4.7.9 MySQL Data Types

As with all SQLAlchemy dialects, all UPPERCASE types that are known to be valid with MySQL are importable from the top level dialect:


```

from sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql import \
    BIGINT, BINARY, BIT, BLOB, BOOLEAN, CHAR, DATE, \
    DATETIME, DECIMAL, DECIMAL, DOUBLE, ENUM, FLOAT, INTEGER, \
    LONGBLOB, LONGTEXT, MEDIUMBLOB, MEDIUMINT, MEDIUMTEXT, NCHAR, \
    NUMERIC, NVARCHAR, REAL, SET, SMALLINT, TEXT, TIME, TIMESTAMP, \
    TINYBLOB, TINYINT, TINYTEXT, VARBINARY, VARCHAR, YEAR

```

Types which are specific to MySQL, or have MySQL-specific construction arguments, are as follows:

```

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.BIGINT (display_width=None, **kw)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._IntegerType, sqlalchemy.types.BIGINT

```

MySQL BIGINTEGER type.

```

__init__ (display_width=None, **kw)
    Construct a BIGINTEGER.

```

Parameters

- **display_width** – Optional, maximum display width for this number.
- **unsigned** – a boolean, optional.
- **zerofill** – Optional. If true, values will be stored as strings left-padded with zeros. Note that this does not effect the values returned by the underlying database API, which continue to be numeric.

```

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.BINARY (length=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types._Binary

```

The SQL BINARY type.

```

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.BIT (length=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine

```

MySQL BIT type.

This type is for MySQL 5.0.3 or greater for MyISAM, and 5.0.5 or greater for MyISAM, MEMORY, InnoDB and BDB. For older versions, use a `MSTinyInteger()` type.

```

__init__ (length=None)
    Construct a BIT.

```

Parameters **length** – Optional, number of bits.

```

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.BLOB (length=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.LargeBinary

```

The SQL BLOB type.

```

__init__ (length=None)
    Construct a LargeBinary type.

```

Parameters **length** – optional, a length for the column for use in DDL statements, for those BLOB types that accept a length (i.e. MySQL). It does *not* produce a small BINARY/VARBINARY type - use the BINARY/VARBINARY types specifically for those. May be safely omitted if no `CREATE TABLE` will be issued. Certain databases may require a *length* for use in DDL, and will raise an exception when the `CREATE TABLE` DDL is issued.

```

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.BOOLEAN (create_constraint=True, name=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Boolean

```

The SQL BOOLEAN type.

`__init__` (*create_constraint=True, name=None*)
Construct a Boolean.

Parameters

- **create_constraint** – defaults to True. If the boolean is generated as an int/smallint, also create a CHECK constraint on the table that ensures 1 or 0 as a value.
- **name** – if a CHECK constraint is generated, specify the name of the constraint.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**CHAR** (*length=None, **kwargs*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.CHAR
MySQL CHAR type, for fixed-length character data.

`__init__` (*length=None, **kwargs*)
Construct a CHAR.

Parameters

- **length** – Maximum data length, in characters.
- **binary** – Optional, use the default binary collation for the national character set. This does not affect the type of data stored, use a BINARY type for binary data.
- **collation** – Optional, request a particular collation. Must be compatible with the national character set.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**DATE** (**args, **kwargs*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Date
The SQL DATE type.

`__init__` (**args, **kwargs*)
Support implementations that were passing arguments

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**DATETIME** (*timezone=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.types.DateTime
The SQL DATETIME type.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**DECIMAL** (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._NumericType, sqlalchemy.types.DECIMAL
MySQL DECIMAL type.

`__init__` (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw*)
Construct a DECIMAL.

Parameters

- **precision** – Total digits in this number. If scale and precision are both None, values are stored to limits allowed by the server.
- **scale** – The number of digits after the decimal point.
- **unsigned** – a boolean, optional.
- **zerofill** – Optional. If true, values will be stored as strings left-padded with zeros. Note that this does not effect the values returned by the underlying database API, which continue to be numeric.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**DOUBLE** (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._FloatType
MySQL DOUBLE type.

`__init__` (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw*)
Construct a DOUBLE.

Parameters

- **precision** – Total digits in this number. If scale and precision are both None, values are stored to limits allowed by the server.
- **scale** – The number of digits after the decimal point.
- **unsigned** – a boolean, optional.
- **zerofill** – Optional. If true, values will be stored as strings left-padded with zeros. Note that this does not effect the values returned by the underlying database API, which continue to be numeric.

`class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.ENUM(*enums, **kw)`
Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.Enum`, `sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._StringType`
MySQL ENUM type.

`__init__` (**enums, **kw*)
Construct an ENUM.

Example:

```
Column('myenum', MEnum("foo", "bar", "baz"))
```

Parameters

- **enums** – The range of valid values for this ENUM. Values will be quoted when generating the schema according to the quoting flag (see below).
- **strict** – Defaults to False: ensure that a given value is in this ENUM's range of permissible values when inserting or updating rows. Note that MySQL will not raise a fatal error if you attempt to store an out of range value- an alternate value will be stored instead. (See MySQL ENUM documentation.)
- **charset** – Optional, a column-level character set for this string value. Takes precedence to 'ascii' or 'unicode' short-hand.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Takes precedence to 'binary' short-hand.
- **ascii** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the `latin1` character set, generates ASCII in schema.
- **unicode** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the `ucs2` character set, generates UNICODE in schema.
- **binary** – Defaults to False: short-hand, pick the binary collation type that matches the column's character set. Generates BINARY in schema. This does not affect the type of data stored, only the collation of character data.
- **quoting** – Defaults to 'auto': automatically determine enum value quoting. If all enum values are surrounded by the same quoting character, then use 'quoted' mode. Otherwise, use 'unquoted' mode.

'quoted': values in enums are already quoted, they will be used directly when generating the schema - this usage is deprecated.

'unquoted': values in enums are not quoted, they will be escaped and surrounded by single quotes when generating the schema.

Previous versions of this type always required manually quoted values to be supplied; future versions will always quote the string literals for you. This is a transitional option.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**FLOAT** (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=False, **kw*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._FloatType, sqlalchemy.types.FLOAT

MySQL FLOAT type.

__init__ (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=False, **kw*)
Construct a FLOAT.

Parameters

- **precision** – Total digits in this number. If scale and precision are both None, values are stored to limits allowed by the server.
- **scale** – The number of digits after the decimal point.
- **unsigned** – a boolean, optional.
- **zerofill** – Optional. If true, values will be stored as strings left-padded with zeros. Note that this does not effect the values returned by the underlying database API, which continue to be numeric.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**INTEGER** (*display_width=None, **kw*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._IntegerType, sqlalchemy.types.INTEGER

MySQL INTEGER type.

__init__ (*display_width=None, **kw*)
Construct an INTEGER.

Parameters

- **display_width** – Optional, maximum display width for this number.
- **unsigned** – a boolean, optional.
- **zerofill** – Optional. If true, values will be stored as strings left-padded with zeros. Note that this does not effect the values returned by the underlying database API, which continue to be numeric.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**LOBLOB** (*length=None*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.types._Binary

MySQL LOBBLOB type, for binary data up to 2³² bytes.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**LONGTEXT** (***kwargs*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._StringType

MySQL LONGTEXT type, for text up to 2³² characters.

__init__ (***kwargs*)
Construct a LONGTEXT.

Parameters

- **charset** – Optional, a column-level character set for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘ascii’ or ‘unicode’ short-hand.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘binary’ short-hand.

- **ascii** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the `latin1` character set, generates ASCII in schema.
- **unicode** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the `ucs2` character set, generates UNICODE in schema.
- **national** – Optional. If true, use the server’s configured national character set.
- **binary** – Defaults to False: short-hand, pick the binary collation type that matches the column’s character set. Generates BINARY in schema. This does not affect the type of data stored, only the collation of character data.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**MEDIUMBLOB** (*length=None*)
 Bases: sqlalchemy.types._Binary

MySQL MEDIUMBLOB type, for binary data up to 2²⁴ bytes.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**MEDIUMINT** (*display_width=None, **kw*)
 Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._IntegerType

MySQL MEDIUMINTEGER type.

__init__ (*display_width=None, **kw*)
 Construct a MEDIUMINTEGER

Parameters

- **display_width** – Optional, maximum display width for this number.
- **unsigned** – a boolean, optional.
- **zerofill** – Optional. If true, values will be stored as strings left-padded with zeros. Note that this does not effect the values returned by the underlying database API, which continue to be numeric.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**MEDIUMTEXT** (***kwargs*)
 Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._StringType

MySQL MEDIUMTEXT type, for text up to 2²⁴ characters.

__init__ (***kwargs*)
 Construct a MEDIUMTEXT.

Parameters

- **charset** – Optional, a column-level character set for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘ascii’ or ‘unicode’ short-hand.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘binary’ short-hand.
- **ascii** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the `latin1` character set, generates ASCII in schema.
- **unicode** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the `ucs2` character set, generates UNICODE in schema.
- **national** – Optional. If true, use the server’s configured national character set.
- **binary** – Defaults to False: short-hand, pick the binary collation type that matches the column’s character set. Generates BINARY in schema. This does not affect the type of data stored, only the collation of character data.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**NCHAR** (*length=None, **kwargs*)
 Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.NCHAR

MySQL NCHAR type.

For fixed-length character data in the server's configured national character set.

`__init__` (*length=None, **kwargs*)
Construct an NCHAR.

Parameters

- **length** – Maximum data length, in characters.
- **binary** – Optional, use the default binary collation for the national character set. This does not affect the type of data stored, use a BINARY type for binary data.
- **collation** – Optional, request a particular collation. Must be compatible with the national character set.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**NUMERIC** (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._NumericType, sqlalchemy.types.NUMERIC

MySQL NUMERIC type.

`__init__` (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw*)
Construct a NUMERIC.

Parameters

- **precision** – Total digits in this number. If scale and precision are both None, values are stored to limits allowed by the server.
- **scale** – The number of digits after the decimal point.
- **unsigned** – a boolean, optional.
- **zerofill** – Optional. If true, values will be stored as strings left-padded with zeros. Note that this does not effect the values returned by the underlying database API, which continue to be numeric.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**NVARCHAR** (*length=None, **kwargs*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.NVARCHAR

MySQL NVARCHAR type.

For variable-length character data in the server's configured national character set.

`__init__` (*length=None, **kwargs*)
Construct an NVARCHAR.

Parameters

- **length** – Maximum data length, in characters.
- **binary** – Optional, use the default binary collation for the national character set. This does not affect the type of data stored, use a BINARY type for binary data.
- **collation** – Optional, request a particular collation. Must be compatible with the national character set.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**REAL** (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw*)

Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._FloatType, sqlalchemy.types.REAL

MySQL REAL type.

`__init__` (*precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=True, **kw*)
Construct a REAL.

Parameters

- **precision** – Total digits in this number. If scale and precision are both None, values are stored to limits allowed by the server.
- **scale** – The number of digits after the decimal point.
- **unsigned** – a boolean, optional.
- **zerofill** – Optional. If true, values will be stored as strings left-padded with zeros. Note that this does not effect the values returned by the underlying database API, which continue to be numeric.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**SET** (*values, **kw)
 Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._StringType

MySQL SET type.

__init__ (*values, **kw)
 Construct a SET.

Example:

```
Column('myset', MSet("'foo'", "'bar'", "'baz'"))
```

Parameters

- **values** – The range of valid values for this SET. Values will be used exactly as they appear when generating schemas. Strings must be quoted, as in the example above. Single-quotes are suggested for ANSI compatibility and are required for portability to servers with ANSI_QUOTES enabled.
- **charset** – Optional, a column-level character set for this string value. Takes precedence to 'ascii' or 'unicode' short-hand.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Takes precedence to 'binary' short-hand.
- **ascii** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the latin1 character set, generates ASCII in schema.
- **unicode** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the ucs2 character set, generates UNICODE in schema.
- **binary** – Defaults to False: short-hand, pick the binary collation type that matches the column's character set. Generates BINARY in schema. This does not affect the type of data stored, only the collation of character data.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**SMALLINT** (display_width=None, **kw)
 Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._IntegerType, sqlalchemy.types.SMALLINT

MySQL SMALLINTEGER type.

__init__ (display_width=None, **kw)
 Construct a SMALLINTEGER.

Parameters

- **display_width** – Optional, maximum display width for this number.
- **unsigned** – a boolean, optional.

- **zerofill** – Optional. If true, values will be stored as strings left-padded with zeros. Note that this does not effect the values returned by the underlying database API, which continue to be numeric.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**TEXT** (*length=None, **kw*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.TEXT

MySQL TEXT type, for text up to 2¹⁶ characters.

__init__ (*length=None, **kw*)
Construct a TEXT.

Parameters

- **length** – Optional, if provided the server may optimize storage by substituting the smallest TEXT type sufficient to store `length` characters.
- **charset** – Optional, a column-level character set for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘ascii’ or ‘unicode’ short-hand.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘binary’ short-hand.
- **ascii** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the latin1 character set, generates ASCII in schema.
- **unicode** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the ucs2 character set, generates UNICODE in schema.
- **national** – Optional. If true, use the server’s configured national character set.
- **binary** – Defaults to False: short-hand, pick the binary collation type that matches the column’s character set. Generates BINARY in schema. This does not affect the type of data stored, only the collation of character data.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**TIME** (*timezone=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Time

The SQL TIME type.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**TIMESTAMP** (*timezone=False*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TIMESTAMP

MySQL TIMESTAMP type.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**TINYBLOB** (*length=None*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.types._Binary

MySQL TINYBLOB type, for binary data up to 2⁸ bytes.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**TINYINT** (*display_width=None, **kw*)
Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._IntegerType

MySQL TINYINT type.

__init__ (*display_width=None, **kw*)
Construct a TINYINT.

Note: following the usual MySQL conventions, TINYINT(1) columns reflected during Table(..., autoload=True) are treated as Boolean columns.

Parameters

- **display_width** – Optional, maximum display width for this number.
- **unsigned** – a boolean, optional.

- **zerofill** – Optional. If true, values will be stored as strings left-padded with zeros. Note that this does not effect the values returned by the underlying database API, which continue to be numeric.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**TINYTEXT** (**kwargs)
 Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._StringType

MySQL TINYTEXT type, for text up to 2⁸ characters.

__init__ (**kwargs)
 Construct a TINYTEXT.

Parameters

- **charset** – Optional, a column-level character set for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘ascii’ or ‘unicode’ short-hand.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘binary’ short-hand.
- **ascii** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the latin1 character set, generates ASCII in schema.
- **unicode** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the ucs2 character set, generates UNICODE in schema.
- **national** – Optional. If true, use the server’s configured national character set.
- **binary** – Defaults to False: short-hand, pick the binary collation type that matches the column’s character set. Generates BINARY in schema. This does not affect the type of data stored, only the collation of character data.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**VARBINARY** (length=None)
 Bases: sqlalchemy.types._Binary

The SQL VARBINARY type.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.**VARCHAR** (length=None, **kwargs)
 Bases: sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.base._StringType, sqlalchemy.types.VARCHAR

MySQL VARCHAR type, for variable-length character data.

__init__ (length=None, **kwargs)
 Construct a VARCHAR.

Parameters

- **charset** – Optional, a column-level character set for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘ascii’ or ‘unicode’ short-hand.
- **collation** – Optional, a column-level collation for this string value. Takes precedence to ‘binary’ short-hand.
- **ascii** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the latin1 character set, generates ASCII in schema.
- **unicode** – Defaults to False: short-hand for the ucs2 character set, generates UNICODE in schema.
- **national** – Optional. If true, use the server’s configured national character set.
- **binary** – Defaults to False: short-hand, pick the binary collation type that matches the column’s character set. Generates BINARY in schema. This does not affect the type of data stored, only the collation of character data.

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.mysql.YEAR(display_width=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine

    MySQL YEAR type, for single byte storage of years 1901-2155.
```

4.7.10 MySQL-Python Notes

Support for the MySQL database via the MySQL-python adapter.

MySQL-Python is available at:

<http://sourceforge.net/projects/mysql-python>

At least version 1.2.1 or 1.2.2 should be used.

Connecting

Connect string format:

```
mysql+mysqldb://<user>:<password>@<host>[:<port>]/<dbname>
```

Character Sets

Many MySQL server installations default to a `latin1` encoding for client connections. All data sent through the connection will be converted into `latin1`, even if you have `utf8` or another character set on your tables and columns. With versions 4.1 and higher, you can change the connection character set either through server configuration or by including the `charset` parameter in the URL used for `create_engine`. The `charset` option is passed through to MySQL-Python and has the side-effect of also enabling `use_unicode` in the driver by default. For regular encoded strings, also pass `use_unicode=0` in the connection arguments:

```
# set client encoding to utf8; all strings come back as unicode
create_engine('mysql+mysqldb:///mydb?charset=utf8')
```

```
# set client encoding to utf8; all strings come back as utf8 str
create_engine('mysql+mysqldb:///mydb?charset=utf8&use_unicode=0')
```

Known Issues

MySQL-python version 1.2.2 has a serious memory leak related to unicode conversion, a feature which is disabled via `use_unicode=0`. Using a more recent version of MySQL-python is recommended. The recommended connection form with SQLAlchemy is:

```
engine = create_engine('mysql://scott:tiger@localhost/test?charset=utf8&use_unicode=0', pool=pool)
```

4.7.11 OurSQL Notes

Support for the MySQL database via the oursql adapter.

OurSQL is available at:

<http://packages.python.org/oursql/>

Connecting

Connect string format:

```
mysql+oursql://<user>:<password>@<host>[:<port>]/<dbname>
```

Character Sets

oursql defaults to using `utf8` as the connection charset, but other encodings may be used instead. Like the MySQL-Python driver, unicode support can be completely disabled:

```
# oursql sets the connection charset to utf8 automatically; all strings come
# back as utf8 str
create_engine('mysql+oursql:///mydb?use_unicode=0')
```

To not automatically use `utf8` and instead use whatever the connection defaults to, there is a separate parameter:

```
# use the default connection charset; all strings come back as unicode
create_engine('mysql+oursql:///mydb?default_charset=1')

# use latin1 as the connection charset; all strings come back as unicode
create_engine('mysql+oursql:///mydb?charset=latin1')
```

4.7.12 pymysql Notes

Support for the MySQL database via the pymysql adapter.

pymysql is available at:

<http://code.google.com/p/pymysql/>

Connecting

Connect string:

```
mysql+pymysql://<username>:<password>@<host>/<dbname>[?<options>]
```

MySQL-Python Compatibility

The pymysql DBAPI is a pure Python port of the MySQL-python (MySQLdb) driver, and targets 100% compatibility. Most behavioral notes for MySQL-python apply to the pymysql driver as well.

4.7.13 MySQL-Connector Notes

Support for the MySQL database via the MySQL Connector/Python adapter.

MySQL Connector/Python is available at:

<https://launchpad.net/myconnpy>

Connecting

Connect string format:

```
mysql+mysqlconnector://<user>:<password>@<host>[:<port>]/<dbname>
```

4.7.14 pyodbc Notes

Support for the MySQL database via the pyodbc adapter.

pyodbc is available at:

<http://pypi.python.org/pypi/pyodbc/>

Connecting

Connect string:

`mysql+pyodbc://<username>:<password>@<dsnname>`

Limitations

The mysql-pyodbc dialect is subject to unresolved character encoding issues which exist within the current ODBC drivers available. (see <http://code.google.com/p/pyodbc/issues/detail?id=25>). Consider usage of OurSQL, MySQLdb, or MySQL-connector/Python.

4.7.15 zxjdbc Notes

Support for the MySQL database via Jython's zxjdbc JDBC connector.

JDBC Driver

The official MySQL JDBC driver is at <http://dev.mysql.com/downloads/connector/j/>.

Connecting

Connect string format:

`mysql+zxjdbc://<user>:<password>@<hostname>[:<port>]/<database>`

Character Sets

SQLAlchemy zxjdbc dialects pass unicode straight through to the zxjdbc/JDBC layer. To allow multiple character sets to be sent from the MySQL Connector/J JDBC driver, by default SQLAlchemy sets its `characterEncoding` connection property to `UTF-8`. It may be overridden via a `create_engine` URL parameter.

4.8 Oracle

Support for the Oracle database.

Oracle version 8 through current (11g at the time of this writing) are supported.

For information on connecting via specific drivers, see the documentation for that driver.

4.8.1 Connect Arguments

The dialect supports several `create_engine()` arguments which affect the behavior of the dialect regardless of driver in use.

- `use_ansi` - Use ANSI JOIN constructs (see the section on Oracle 8). Defaults to `True`. If `False`, Oracle-8 compatible constructs are used for joins.
- `optimize_limits` - defaults to `False`. see the section on LIMIT/OFFSET.
- `use_binds_for_limits` - defaults to `True`. see the section on LIMIT/OFFSET.

4.8.2 Auto Increment Behavior

SQLAlchemy Table objects which include integer primary keys are usually assumed to have “autoincrementing” behavior, meaning they can generate their own primary key values upon INSERT. Since Oracle has no “autoincrement” feature, SQLAlchemy relies upon sequences to produce these values. With the Oracle dialect, *a sequence must always be explicitly specified to enable autoincrement*. This is divergent with the majority of documentation examples which assume the usage of an autoincrement-capable database. To specify sequences, use the `sqlalchemy.schema.Sequence` object which is passed to a Column construct:

```
t = Table('mytable', metadata,
          Column('id', Integer, Sequence('id_seq'), primary_key=True),
          Column(...), ...)
)
```

This step is also required when using table reflection, i.e. `autoload=True`:

```
t = Table('mytable', metadata,
          Column('id', Integer, Sequence('id_seq'), primary_key=True),
          autoload=True)
)
```

4.8.3 Identifier Casing

In Oracle, the data dictionary represents all case insensitive identifier names using UPPERCASE text. SQLAlchemy on the other hand considers an all-lower case identifier name to be case insensitive. The Oracle dialect converts all case insensitive identifiers to and from those two formats during schema level communication, such as reflection of tables and indexes. Using an UPPERCASE name on the SQLAlchemy side indicates a case sensitive identifier, and SQLAlchemy will quote the name - this will cause mismatches against data dictionary data received from Oracle, so unless identifier names have been truly created as case sensitive (i.e. using quoted names), all lowercase names should be used on the SQLAlchemy side.

4.8.4 Unicode

SQLAlchemy 0.6 uses the “native unicode” mode provided as of `cx_oracle` 5. `cx_oracle` 5.0.2 or greater is recommended for support of NCLOB. If not using `cx_oracle` 5, the `NLS_LANG` environment variable needs to be set in order for the oracle client library to use proper encoding, such as “AMERICAN_AMERICA.UTF8”.

Also note that Oracle supports unicode data through the `NVARCHAR` and `NCLOB` data types. When using the SQLAlchemy `Unicode` and `UnicodeText` types, these DDL types will be used within `CREATE TABLE` statements. Usage of `VARCHAR2` and `CLOB` with unicode text still requires `NLS_LANG` to be set.

4.8.5 LIMIT/OFFSET Support

Oracle has no support for the LIMIT or OFFSET keywords. SQLAlchemy uses a wrapped subquery approach in conjunction with ROWNUM. The exact methodology is taken from <http://www.oracle.com/technology/oramag/oracle/06-sep/o56asktom.html>.

There are two options which affect its behavior:

- the “FIRST ROWS()” optimization keyword is not used by default. To enable the usage of this optimization directive, specify `optimize_limits=True` to `create_engine()`.
- the values passed for the limit/offset are sent as bound parameters. Some users have observed that Oracle produces a poor query plan when the values are sent as binds and not rendered literally. To render the limit/offset values literally within the SQL statement, specify `use_binds_for_limits=False` to `create_engine()`.

Some users have reported better performance when the entirely different approach of a window query is used, i.e. `ROW_NUMBER() OVER (ORDER BY)`, to provide LIMIT/OFFSET (note that the majority of users don’t observe this). To suit this case the method used for LIMIT/OFFSET can be replaced entirely. See the recipe at <http://www.sqlalchemy.org/trac/wiki/UsageRecipes/WindowFunctionsByDefault> which installs a select compiler that overrides the generation of limit/offset with a window function.

4.8.6 ON UPDATE CASCADE

Oracle doesn’t have native ON UPDATE CASCADE functionality. A trigger based solution is available at http://asktom.oracle.com/tkyte/update_cascade/index.html.

When using the SQLAlchemy ORM, the ORM has limited ability to manually issue cascading updates - specify ForeignKey objects using the “`deferrable=True`, `initially='deferred'`” keyword arguments, and specify “`passive_updates=False`” on each relationship().

4.8.7 Oracle 8 Compatibility

When Oracle 8 is detected, the dialect internally configures itself to the following behaviors:

- the `use_ansi` flag is set to False. This has the effect of converting all JOIN phrases into the WHERE clause, and in the case of LEFT OUTER JOIN makes use of Oracle’s (+) operator.
- the NVARCHAR2 and NCLOB datatypes are no longer generated as DDL when the `Unicode` is used - VARCHAR2 and CLOB are issued instead. This because these types don’t seem to work correctly on Oracle 8 even though they are available. The `NVARCHAR` and `NCLOB` types will always generate NVARCHAR2 and NCLOB.
- the “native unicode” mode is disabled when using `cx_oracle`, i.e. SQLAlchemy encodes all Python unicode objects to “string” before passing in as bind parameters.

4.8.8 Synonym/DBLINK Reflection

When using reflection with Table objects, the dialect can optionally search for tables indicated by synonyms that reference DBLINK-ed tables by passing the flag `oracle_resolve_synonyms=True` as a keyword argument to the Table construct. If DBLINK is not in use this flag should be left off.

4.8.9 Oracle Data Types

As with all SQLAlchemy dialects, all UPPERCASE types that are known to be valid with Oracle are importable from the top level dialect, whether they originate from `sqlalchemy.types` or from the local dialect:

```
from sqlalchemy.dialects.oracle import \
    BFILE, BLOB, CHAR, CLOB, DATE, DATETIME, \
    DOUBLE_PRECISION, FLOAT, INTERVAL, LONG, NCLOB, \
    NUMBER, NVARCHAR, NVARCHAR2, RAW, TIMESTAMP, VARCHAR, \
    VARCHAR2
```

Types which are specific to Oracle, or have Oracle-specific construction arguments, are as follows:

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.oracle.BFILE (length=None)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.LargeBinary`

```
__init__ (length=None)
```

Construct a LargeBinary type.

Parameters **length** – optional, a length for the column for use in DDL statements, for those BLOB types that accept a length (i.e. MySQL). It does *not* produce a small BINARY/VARBINARY type - use the BINARY/VARBINARY types specifically for those. May be safely omitted if no CREATE TABLE will be issued. Certain databases may require a *length* for use in DDL, and will raise an exception when the CREATE TABLE DDL is issued.

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.oracle.DOUBLE_PRECISION (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=None)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.Numeric`

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.oracle.INTERVAL (day_precision=None, second_precision=None)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine`

```
__init__ (day_precision=None, second_precision=None)
```

Construct an INTERVAL.

Note that only DAY TO SECOND intervals are currently supported. This is due to a lack of support for YEAR TO MONTH intervals within available DBAPIs (cx_oracle and zxjdbc).

Parameters

- **day_precision** – the day precision value. this is the number of digits to store for the day field. Defaults to “2”
- **second_precision** – the second precision value. this is the number of digits to store for the fractional seconds field. Defaults to “6”.

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.oracle.NCLOB (length=None, convert_unicode=False, assert_unicode=None, unicode_error=None, _warn_on_bytestring=False)
```

Bases: `sqlalchemy.types.Text`

```
__init__ (length=None, convert_unicode=False, assert_unicode=None, unicode_error=None, _warn_on_bytestring=False)
```

Create a string-holding type.

Parameters

- **length** – optional, a length for the column for use in DDL statements. May be safely omitted if no CREATE TABLE will be issued. Certain databases may require a *length* for use in DDL, and will raise an exception when the CREATE TABLE DDL is issued. Whether the value is interpreted as bytes or characters is database specific.
- **convert_unicode** – defaults to False. If True, the type will do what is necessary in order to accept Python Unicode objects as bind parameters, and to return Python Unicode objects in result rows. This may require SQLAlchemy to explicitly coerce

incoming Python unicones into an encoding, and from an encoding back to Unicode, or it may not require any interaction from SQLAlchemy at all, depending on the DBAPI in use.

When SQLAlchemy performs the encoding/decoding, the encoding used is configured via `encoding`, which defaults to `utf-8`.

The “`convert_unicode`” behavior can also be turned on for all String types by setting `sqlalchemy.engine.base.Dialect.convert_unicode` on `create_engine()`.

To instruct SQLAlchemy to perform Unicode encoding/decoding even on a platform that already handles Unicode natively, set `convert_unicode='force'`. This will incur significant performance overhead when fetching unicode result columns.

- **assert_unicode** – Deprecated. A warning is raised in all cases when a non-Unicode object is passed when SQLAlchemy would coerce into an encoding (note: but **not** when the DBAPI handles unicode objects natively). To suppress or raise this warning to an error, use the Python warnings filter documented at: <http://docs.python.org/library/warnings.html>
- **unicode_error** – Optional, a method to use to handle Unicode conversion errors. Behaves like the ‘errors’ keyword argument to the standard library’s `string.decode()` functions. This flag requires that `convert_unicode` is set to “force” - otherwise, SQLAlchemy is not guaranteed to handle the task of unicode conversion. Note that this flag adds significant performance overhead to row-fetching operations for backends that already return unicode objects natively (which most DBAPIs do). This flag should only be used as an absolute last resort for reading strings from a column with varied or corrupted encodings, which only applies to databases that accept invalid encodings in the first place (i.e. MySQL. *not* PG, Sqlite, etc.)

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.oracle.NUMBER (precision=None, scale=None, asdecimal=None)
```

```
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Numeric, sqlalchemy.types.Integer
```

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.oracle.LONG (length=None,          convert_unicode=False,          as-
                                         sert_unicode=None,          unicode_error=None,
                                         _warn_on_bytestring=False)
```

```
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Text
```

```
    __init__(length=None, convert_unicode=False, assert_unicode=None, unicode_error=None,
              _warn_on_bytestring=False)
    Create a string-holding type.
```

Parameters

- **length** – optional, a length for the column for use in DDL statements. May be safely omitted if no `CREATE TABLE` will be issued. Certain databases may require a `length` for use in DDL, and will raise an exception when the `CREATE TABLE` DDL is issued. Whether the value is interpreted as bytes or characters is database specific.
- **convert_unicode** – defaults to False. If True, the type will do what is necessary in order to accept Python Unicode objects as bind parameters, and to return Python Unicode objects in result rows. This may require SQLAlchemy to explicitly coerce incoming Python unicones into an encoding, and from an encoding back to Unicode, or it may not require any interaction from SQLAlchemy at all, depending on the DBAPI in use.

When SQLAlchemy performs the encoding/decoding, the encoding used is configured via `encoding`, which defaults to `utf-8`.

The “convert_unicode” behavior can also be turned on for all String types by setting `sqlalchemy.engine.base.Dialect.convert_unicode` on `create_engine()`.

To instruct SQLAlchemy to perform Unicode encoding/decoding even on a platform that already handles Unicode natively, set `convert_unicode='force'`. This will incur significant performance overhead when fetching unicode result columns.

- **assert_unicode** – Deprecated. A warning is raised in all cases when a non-Unicode object is passed when SQLAlchemy would coerce into an encoding (note: but **not** when the DBAPI handles unicode objects natively). To suppress or raise this warning to an error, use the Python warnings filter documented at: <http://docs.python.org/library/warnings.html>
- **unicode_error** – Optional, a method to use to handle Unicode conversion errors. Behaves like the ‘errors’ keyword argument to the standard library’s `string.decode()` functions. This flag requires that `convert_unicode` is set to “force” - otherwise, SQLAlchemy is not guaranteed to handle the task of unicode conversion. Note that this flag adds significant performance overhead to row-fetching operations for backends that already return unicode objects natively (which most DBAPIs do). This flag should only be used as an absolute last resort for reading strings from a column with varied or corrupted encodings, which only applies to databases that accept invalid encodings in the first place (i.e. MySQL. *not* PG, Sqlite, etc.)

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.oracle.RAW(length=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types._Binary
```

4.8.10 cx_Oracle Notes

Support for the Oracle database via the `cx_oracle` driver.

Driver

The Oracle dialect uses the `cx_oracle` driver, available at <http://cx-oracle.sourceforge.net/>. The dialect has several behaviors which are specifically tailored towards compatibility with this module. Version 5.0 or greater is **strongly** recommended, as SQLAlchemy makes extensive use of the `cx_oracle` output converters for numeric and string conversions.

Connecting

Connecting with `create_engine()` uses the standard URL approach of `oracle://user:pass@host:port/dbname[?key=value]`. If `dbname` is present, the host, port, and `dbname` tokens are converted to a TNS name using the `cx_oracle.makedsn()` function. Otherwise, the host token is taken directly as a TNS name.

Additional arguments which may be specified either as query string arguments on the URL, or as keyword arguments to `create_engine()` are:

- `allow_twophase` - enable two-phase transactions. Defaults to `True`.
- `arraysize` - set the `cx_oracle.arraysize` value on cursors, in SQLAlchemy it defaults to 50. See the section on “LOB Objects” below.

- *auto_convert_lobs* - defaults to `True`, see the section on LOB objects.
- *auto_setinputsizes* - the `cx_oracle.setinputsizes()` call is issued for all bind parameters. This is required for LOB datatypes but can be disabled to reduce overhead. Defaults to `True`.
- *mode* - This is given the string value of `SYSDBA` or `SYSOPER`, or alternatively an integer value. This value is only available as a URL query string argument.
- *threaded* - enable multithreaded access to `cx_oracle` connections. Defaults to `True`. Note that this is the opposite default of `cx_oracle` itself.

Unicode

`cx_oracle` 5 fully supports Python unicode objects. SQLAlchemy will pass all unicode strings directly to `cx_oracle`, and additionally uses an output handler so that all string based result values are returned as unicode as well.

Note that this behavior is disabled when Oracle 8 is detected, as it has been observed that issues remain when passing Python unicodes to `cx_oracle` with Oracle 8.

LOB Objects

`cx_oracle` returns oracle LOBs using the `cx_oracle.LOB` object. SQLAlchemy converts these to strings so that the interface of the `Binary` type is consistent with that of other backends, and so that the linkage to a live cursor is not needed in scenarios like `result.fetchmany()` and `result.fetchall()`. This means that by default, LOB objects are fully fetched unconditionally by SQLAlchemy, and the linkage to a live cursor is broken.

To disable this processing, pass `auto_convert_lobs=False` to `create_engine()`.

Two Phase Transaction Support

Two Phase transactions are implemented using XA transactions. Success has been reported with this feature but it should be regarded as experimental.

Precision Numerics

The SQLAlchemy dialect goes through a lot of steps to ensure that decimal numbers are sent and received with full accuracy. An “outputtypehandler” callable is associated with each `cx_oracle` connection object which detects numeric types and receives them as string values, instead of receiving a Python `float` directly, which is then passed to the Python `Decimal` constructor. The `Numeric` and `Float` types under the `cx_oracle` dialect are aware of this behavior, and will coerce the `Decimal` to `float` if the `asdecimal` flag is `False` (default on `Float`, optional on `Numeric`).

The handler attempts to use the “precision” and “scale” attributes of the result set column to best determine if subsequent incoming values should be received as `Decimal` as opposed to `int` (in which case no processing is added). There are several scenarios where `OCI` does not provide unambiguous data as to the numeric type, including some situations where individual rows may return a combination of floating point and integer values. Certain values for “precision” and “scale” have been observed to determine this scenario. When it occurs, the outputtypehandler receives as string and then passes off to a processing function which detects, for each returned value, if a decimal point is present, and if so converts to `Decimal`, otherwise to `int`. The intention is that simple `int`-based statements like “SELECT my_seq.nextval() FROM DUAL” continue to return `ints` and not `Decimal` objects, and that any kind of floating point value is received as a string so that there is no floating point loss of precision.

The “decimal point is present” logic itself is also sensitive to locale. Under `OCI`, this is controlled by the `NLS_LANG` environment variable. Upon first connection, the dialect runs a test to determine the current “decimal” character, which can be a comma “,” for european locales. From that point forward the outputtypehandler uses that character to

represent a decimal point (this behavior is new in version 0.6.6). Note that `cx_oracle` 5.0.3 or greater is required when dealing with numerics with locale settings that don't use a period "." as the decimal character.

4.8.11 zxjdbc Notes

Support for the Oracle database via the `zxjdbc` JDBC connector.

JDBC Driver

The official Oracle JDBC driver is at http://www.oracle.com/technology/software/tech/java/sqlj_jdbc/index.html.

4.9 PostgreSQL

Support for the PostgreSQL database.

For information on connecting using specific drivers, see the documentation section regarding that driver.

4.9.1 Sequences/SERIAL

PostgreSQL supports sequences, and SQLAlchemy uses these as the default means of creating new primary key values for integer-based primary key columns. When creating tables, SQLAlchemy will issue the `SERIAL` datatype for integer-based primary key columns, which generates a sequence and server side default corresponding to the column.

To specify a specific named sequence to be used for primary key generation, use the `Sequence()` construct:

```
Table('sometable', metadata,
      Column('id', Integer, Sequence('some_id_seq'), primary_key=True)
)
```

When SQLAlchemy issues a single `INSERT` statement, to fulfill the contract of having the “last insert identifier” available, a `RETURNING` clause is added to the `INSERT` statement which specifies the primary key columns should be returned after the statement completes. The `RETURNING` functionality only takes place if PostgreSQL 8.2 or later is in use. As a fallback approach, the sequence, whether specified explicitly or implicitly via `SERIAL`, is executed independently beforehand, the returned value to be used in the subsequent insert. Note that when an `insert()` construct is executed using “executemany” semantics, the “last inserted identifier” functionality does not apply; no `RETURNING` clause is emitted nor is the sequence pre-executed in this case.

To force the usage of `RETURNING` by default off, specify the flag `implicit_returning=False` to `create_engine()`.

4.9.2 Transaction Isolation Level

`create_engine()` accepts an `isolation_level` parameter which results in the command `SET SESSION CHARACTERISTICS AS TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL <level>` being invoked for every new connection. Valid values for this parameter are `READ_COMMITTED`, `READ_UNCOMMITTED`, `REPEATABLE_READ`, and `SERIALIZABLE`. Note that the `psycopg2` dialect does *not* use this technique and uses `psycopg2`-specific APIs (see that dialect for details).

4.9.3 INSERT/UPDATE...RETURNING

The dialect supports PG 8.2's `INSERT...RETURNING`, `UPDATE...RETURNING` and `DELETE...RETURNING` syntaxes. `INSERT...RETURNING` is used by default for single-row `INSERT` statements in order to fetch newly generated primary key identifiers. To specify an explicit `RETURNING` clause, use the `_UpdateBase.returning()` method on a per-statement basis:

```
# INSERT...RETURNING
result = table.insert().returning(table.c.col1, table.c.col2).\
    values(name='foo')
print result.fetchall()

# UPDATE...RETURNING
result = table.update().returning(table.c.col1, table.c.col2).\
    where(table.c.name=='foo').values(name='bar')
print result.fetchall()

# DELETE...RETURNING
result = table.delete().returning(table.c.col1, table.c.col2).\
    where(table.c.name=='foo')
print result.fetchall()
```

4.9.4 PostgreSQL-Specific Index Options

Several extensions to the `Index` construct are available, specific to the PostgreSQL dialect.

Partial Indexes

Partial indexes add criterion to the index definition so that the index is applied to a subset of rows. These can be specified on `Index` using the `postgresql_where` keyword argument:

```
Index('my_index', my_table.c.id, postgresql_where=tbl.c.value > 10)
```

Operator Classes

PostgreSQL allows the specification of an *operator class* for each column of an index (see <http://www.postgresql.org/docs/8.3/interactive/indexes-opclass.html>). The `Index` construct allows these to be specified via the `postgresql_ops` keyword argument (new as of SQLAlchemy 0.7.2):

```
Index('my_index', my_table.c.id, my_table.c.data,
      postgresql_ops={
          'data': 'text_pattern_ops',
          'id': 'int4_ops'
      })
```

Note that the keys in the `postgresql_ops` dictionary are the “key” name of the `Column`, i.e. the name used to access it from the `.c` collection of `Table`, which can be configured to be different than the actual name of the column as expressed in the database.

4.9.5 PostgreSQL Data Types

As with all SQLAlchemy dialects, all UPPERCASE types that are known to be valid with Postgresql are importable from the top level dialect, whether they originate from `sqlalchemy.types` or from the local dialect:

```
from sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql import \
    ARRAY, BIGINT, BIT, BOOLEAN, BYTEA, CHAR, CIDR, DATE, \
    DOUBLE_PRECISION, ENUM, FLOAT, INET, INTEGER, INTERVAL, \
    MACADDR, NUMERIC, REAL, SMALLINT, TEXT, TIME, TIMESTAMP, \
    UUID, VARCHAR
```

Types which are specific to PostgreSQL, or have PostgreSQL-specific construction arguments, are as follows:

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.ARRAY(item_type, mutable=False, as_tuple=False)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.MutableType, sqlalchemy.types.Concatenable,
           sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

Postgresql ARRAY type.

Represents values as Python lists.

The ARRAY type may not be supported on all DBAPIs. It is known to work on psycopg2 and not pg8000.

```
__init__(item_type, mutable=False, as_tuple=False)
    Construct an ARRAY.
```

E.g.:

```
Column('myarray', ARRAY(Integer))
```

Arguments are:

Parameters

- **item_type** – The data type of items of this array. Note that dimensionality is irrelevant here, so multi-dimensional arrays like `INTEGER[]`, are constructed as `ARRAY(Integer)`, not as `ARRAY(ARRAY(Integer))` or such. The type mapping figures out on the fly
- **mutable=False** – Specify whether lists passed to this class should be considered mutable - this enables “mutable types” mode in the ORM. Be sure to read the notes for `MutableType` regarding ORM performance implications (default changed from `True` in 0.7.0).

Note: This functionality is now superseded by the `sqlalchemy.ext.mutable` extension described in [Mutation Tracking](#).

- **as_tuple=False** – Specify whether return results should be converted to tuples from lists. DBAPIs such as `psycopg2` return lists by default. When tuples are returned, the results are hashable. This flag can only be set to `True` when `mutable` is set to `False`. (new in 0.6.5)

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.BIT(length=None, varying=False)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.BYTEA(length=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.LargeBinary
```

```
__init__(length=None)
    Construct a LargeBinary type.
```

Parameters length – optional, a length for the column for use in DDL statements, for those BLOB types that accept a length (i.e. MySQL). It does *not* produce a small BINARY/VARBINARY type - use the BINARY/VARBINARY types specifically for those. May be safely omitted if no `CREATE TABLE` will be issued. Certain databases may require a *length* for use in DDL, and will raise an exception when the `CREATE TABLE` DDL is issued.

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.CIDR(*args, **kwargs)
```

```
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

```
    __init__(*args, **kwargs)
```

```
        Support implementations that were passing arguments
```

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.DOUBLE_PRECISION(precision=None,          asdecimal=False, **kwargs)
```

```
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Float
```

```
    __init__(precision=None, asdecimal=False, **kwargs)
```

```
        Construct a Float.
```

Parameters

- **precision** – the numeric precision for use in DDL `CREATE TABLE`.
- **asdecimal** – the same flag as that of `Numeric`, but defaults to `False`. Note that setting this flag to `True` results in floating point conversion.

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.ENUM(*enums, **kw)
```

```
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Enum
```

```
    __init__(*enums, **kw)
```

```
        Construct an enum.
```

Keyword arguments which don't apply to a specific backend are ignored by that backend.

Parameters

- ***enums** – string or unicode enumeration labels. If unicode labels are present, the `convert_unicode` flag is auto-enabled.
- **convert_unicode** – Enable unicode-aware bind parameter and result-set processing for this Enum's data. This is set automatically based on the presence of unicode label strings.
- **metadata** – Associate this type directly with a `MetaData` object. For types that exist on the target database as an independent schema construct (Postgresql), this type will be created and dropped within `create_all()` and `drop_all()` operations. If the type is not associated with any `MetaData` object, it will associate itself with each `Table` in which it is used, and will be created when any of those individual tables are created, after a check is performed for it's existence. The type is only dropped when `drop_all()` is called for that `Table` object's metadata, however.
- **name** – The name of this type. This is required for Postgresql and any future supported database which requires an explicitly named type, or an explicitly named constraint in order to generate the type and/or a table that uses it.
- **native_enum** – Use the database's native ENUM type when available. Defaults to `True`. When `False`, uses `VARCHAR` + check constraint for all backends.
- **schema** – Schemaname of this type. For types that exist on the target database as an independent schema construct (Postgresql), this parameter specifies the named schema in which the type is present.
- **quote** – Force quoting to be on or off on the type's name. If left as the default of `None`, the usual schema-level "case sensitive"/"reserved name" rules are used to determine if this type's name should be quoted.

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.INET(*args, **kwargs)
```

```
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

```
__init__ (*args, **kwargs)
    Support implementations that were passing arguments
```

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.INTERVAL (precision=None)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

Postgresql INTERVAL type.

The INTERVAL type may not be supported on all DBAPIs. It is known to work on psycopg2 and not pg8000 or zxjdbc.

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.MACADDR (*args, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

```
__init__ (*args, **kwargs)
    Support implementations that were passing arguments
```

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.REAL (precision=None, asdecimal=False, **kwargs)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.Float
```

The SQL REAL type.

```
__init__ (precision=None, asdecimal=False, **kwargs)
    Construct a Float.
```

Parameters

- **precision** – the numeric precision for use in DDL CREATE TABLE.
- **asdecimal** – the same flag as that of `Numeric`, but defaults to `False`. Note that setting this flag to `True` results in floating point conversion.

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql.UUID (as_uuid=False)
    Bases: sqlalchemy.types.TypeEngine
```

Postgresql UUID type.

Represents the UUID column type, interpreting data either as natively returned by the DBAPI or as Python uuid objects.

The UUID type may not be supported on all DBAPIs. It is known to work on psycopg2 and not pg8000.

```
__init__ (as_uuid=False)
    Construct a UUID type.
```

Parameters **as_uuid=False** – if `True`, values will be interpreted as Python uuid objects, converting to/from string via the DBAPI.

4.9.6 psycopg2 Notes

Support for the PostgreSQL database via the psycopg2 driver.

Driver

The psycopg2 driver is available at <http://pypi.python.org/pypi/psycopg2/>. The dialect has several behaviors which are specifically tailored towards compatibility with this module.

Note that psycopg1 is **not** supported.

Connecting

URLs are of the form `postgresql+psycopg2://user:password@host:port/dbname[?key=value&key=value...]`.
psycopg2-specific keyword arguments which are accepted by `create_engine()` are:

- `server_side_cursors` - Enable the usage of “server side cursors” for SQL statements which support this feature. What this essentially means from a psycopg2 point of view is that the cursor is created using a name, e.g. `connection.cursor('some name')`, which has the effect that result rows are not immediately pre-fetched and buffered after statement execution, but are instead left on the server and only retrieved as needed. SQLAlchemy’s `ResultProxy` uses special row-buffering behavior when this feature is enabled, such that groups of 100 rows at a time are fetched over the wire to reduce conversational overhead. Note that the `stream_results=True` execution option is a more targeted way of enabling this mode on a per-execution basis.
- `use_native_unicode` - Enable the usage of Psycopg2 “native unicode” mode per connection. True by default.

Per-Statement/Connection Execution Options

The following DBAPI-specific options are respected when used with `Connection.execution_options()`, `Executable.execution_options()`, `Query.execution_options()`, in addition to those not specific to DBAPIs:

- `isolation_level` - Set the transaction isolation level for the lifespan of a `Connection` (can only be set on a connection, not a statement or query). This includes the options `SERIALIZABLE`, `READ COMMITTED`, `READ UNCOMMITTED` and `REPEATABLE READ`.
- `stream_results` - Enable or disable usage of server side cursors. If `None` or not set, the `server_side_cursors` option of the `Engine` is used.

Unicode

By default, the psycopg2 driver uses the `psycopg2.extensions.UNICODE` extension, such that the DBAPI receives and returns all strings as Python Unicode objects directly - SQLAlchemy passes these values through without change. Note that this setting requires that the PG client encoding be set to one which can accommodate the kind of character data being passed - typically `utf-8`. If the PostgreSQL database is configured for `SQL_ASCII` encoding, which is often the default for PG installations, it may be necessary for non-ascii strings to be encoded into a specific encoding before being passed to the DBAPI. If changing the database’s client encoding setting is not an option, specify `use_native_unicode=False` as a keyword argument to `create_engine()`, and take note of the encoding setting as well, which also defaults to `utf-8`. Note that disabling “native unicode” mode has a slight performance penalty, as SQLAlchemy now must translate unicode strings to/from an encoding such as `utf-8`, a task that is handled more efficiently within the Psycopg2 driver natively.

Transactions

The psycopg2 dialect fully supports SAVEPOINT and two-phase commit operations.

Transaction Isolation Level

The `isolation_level` parameter of `create_engine()` here makes use of psycopg2’s `set_isolation_level()` connection method, rather than issuing a `SET SESSION CHARACTERISTICS` command. This because psycopg2 resets the isolation level on each new transaction, and needs to know at the API level what level should be used.

NOTICE logging

The psycopg2 dialect will log Postgresql NOTICE messages via the `sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql` logger:

```
import logging
logging.getLogger('sqlalchemy.dialects.postgresql').setLevel(logging.INFO)
```

4.9.7 py-postgresql Notes

Support for the PostgreSQL database via py-postgresql.

Connecting

URLs are of the form `postgresql+pypostgresql://user:password@host:port/dbname[?key=value&key=value...]`.

4.9.8 pg8000 Notes

Support for the PostgreSQL database via the pg8000 driver.

Connecting

URLs are of the form `postgresql+pg8000://user:password@host:port/dbname[?key=value&key=value...]`.

Unicode

pg8000 requires that the postgresql client encoding be configured in the `postgresql.conf` file in order to use encodings other than `ascii`. Set this value to the same value as the “encoding” parameter on `create_engine()`, usually “`utf-8`”.

Interval

Passing data from/to the Interval type is not supported as of yet.

4.9.9 zxjdbc Notes

Support for the PostgreSQL database via the zxjdbc JDBC connector.

JDBC Driver

The official Postgresql JDBC driver is at <http://jdbc.postgresql.org/>.

4.10 SQLite

Support for the SQLite database.

For information on connecting using a specific driver, see the documentation section regarding that driver.

4.10.1 Date and Time Types

SQLite does not have built-in DATE, TIME, or DATETIME types, and pysqlite does not provide out of the box functionality for translating values between Python *datetime* objects and a SQLite-supported format. SQLAlchemy's own `DateTime` and related types provide date formatting and parsing functionality when SQLite is used. The implementation classes are `DATETIME`, `DATE` and `TIME`. These types represent dates and times as ISO formatted strings, which also nicely support ordering. There's no reliance on typical "libc" internals for these functions so historical dates are fully supported.

4.10.2 Auto Incrementing Behavior

Background on SQLite's autoincrement is at: <http://sqlite.org/autoinc.html>

Two things to note:

- The AUTOINCREMENT keyword is **not** required for SQLite tables to generate primary key values automatically. AUTOINCREMENT only means that the algorithm used to generate ROWID values should be slightly different.
- SQLite does **not** generate primary key (i.e. ROWID) values, even for one column, if the table has a composite (i.e. multi-column) primary key. This is regardless of the AUTOINCREMENT keyword being present or not.

To specifically render the AUTOINCREMENT keyword on the primary key column when rendering DDL, add the flag `sqlite_autoincrement=True` to the Table construct:

```
Table('sometable', metadata,
      Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
      sqlite_autoincrement=True)
```

4.10.3 Transaction Isolation Level

`create_engine()` accepts an `isolation_level` parameter which results in the command `PRAGMA read_uncommitted <level>` being invoked for every new connection. Valid values for this parameter are `SERIALIZABLE` and `READ UNCOMMITTED` corresponding to a value of 0 and 1, respectively.

4.10.4 SQLite Data Types

As with all SQLAlchemy dialects, all UPPERCASE types that are known to be valid with SQLite are importable from the top level dialect, whether they originate from `sqlalchemy.types` or from the local dialect:

```
from sqlalchemy.dialects.sqlite import \
    BLOB, BOOLEAN, CHAR, DATE, DATETIME, DECIMAL, FLOAT, \
    INTEGER, NUMERIC, SMALLINT, TEXT, TIME, TIMESTAMP, \
    VARCHAR
```

```
class sqlalchemy.dialects.sqlite.DATETIME(storage_format=None, regexp=None, **kw)
    Represent a Python datetime object in SQLite using a string.
```

The default string storage format is:

```
"%04d-%02d-%02d %02d:%02d:%02d.%06d" % (value.year,
                                         value.month, value.day,
                                         value.hour, value.minute,
                                         value.second, value.microsecond)
```

e.g.:

```
2011-03-15 12:05:57.10558
```

The storage format can be customized to some degree using the `storage_format` and `regexp` parameters, such as:

```
import re
from sqlalchemy.dialects.sqlite import DATETIME

dt = DATETIME(
    storage_format="%04d/%02d/%02d %02d-%02d-%02d-%06d",
    regexp=re.compile("(\\d+)/ (\\d+)/ (\\d+) (\\d+) - (\\d+) - (\\d+) (?::- (\\d+)) ?")
)
```

Parameters

- **storage_format** – format string which will be applied to the tuple (`value.year`, `value.month`, `value.day`, `value.hour`, `value.minute`, `value.second`, `value.microsecond`), given a Python `datetime.datetime()` object.
- **regexp** – regular expression which will be applied to incoming result rows. The resulting match object is applied to the Python `datetime()` constructor via `*map(int, match_obj.groups(0))`.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.sqlite.**DATE** (*storage_format=None, regexp=None, **kw*)
Represent a Python date object in SQLite using a string.

The default string storage format is:

```
"%04d-%02d-%02d" % (value.year, value.month, value.day)
```

e.g.:

```
2011-03-15
```

The storage format can be customized to some degree using the `storage_format` and `regexp` parameters, such as:

```
import re
from sqlalchemy.dialects.sqlite import DATE

d = DATE(
    storage_format="%02d/%02d/%02d",
    regexp=re.compile("(\\d+)/ (\\d+)/ (\\d+) ")
)
```

Parameters

- **storage_format** – format string which will be applied to the tuple (`value.year`, `value.month`, `value.day`), given a Python `datetime.date()` object.
- **regexp** – regular expression which will be applied to incoming result rows. The resulting match object is applied to the Python `date()` constructor via `*map(int, match_obj.groups(0))`.

class sqlalchemy.dialects.sqlite.**TIME** (*storage_format=None, regexp=None, **kw*)
Represent a Python time object in SQLite using a string.

The default string storage format is:

```
"%02d:%02d:%02d.%06d" % (value.hour, value.minute,
                           value.second,
                           value.microsecond)
```

e.g.:

```
12:05:57.10558
```

The storage format can be customized to some degree using the `storage_format` and `regexp` parameters, such as:

```
import re
from sqlalchemy.dialects.sqlite import TIME

t = TIME(
    storage_format="%02d-%02d-%02d-%06d",
    regexp=re.compile("(\\d+)-(\\d+)-(\\d+)-(?:-(\\d+)) ?")
)
```

Parameters

- **storage_format** – format string which will be applied to the tuple (`value.hour`, `value.minute`, `value.second`, `value.microsecond`), given a Python `datetime.time()` object.
- **regexp** – regular expression which will be applied to incoming result rows. The resulting match object is applied to the Python `time()` constructor via `*map(int, match_obj.groups(0))`.

4.10.5 Pysqlite

Support for the SQLite database via `pysqlite`.

Note that `pysqlite` is the same driver as the `sqlite3` module included with the Python distribution.

Driver

When using Python 2.5 and above, the built in `sqlite3` driver is already installed and no additional installation is needed. Otherwise, the `pysqlite2` driver needs to be present. This is the same driver as `sqlite3`, just with a different name.

The `pysqlite2` driver will be loaded first, and if not found, `sqlite3` is loaded. This allows an explicitly installed `pysqlite` driver to take precedence over the built in one. As with all dialects, a specific DBAPI module may be provided to `create_engine()` to control this explicitly:

```
from sqlite3 import dbapi2 as sqlite
e = create_engine('sqlite+pysqlite:///file.db', module=sqlite)
```

Full documentation on `pysqlite` is available at: <http://www.initd.org/pub/software/pysqlite/doc/usage-guide.html>

Connect Strings

The file specification for the SQLite database is taken as the “database” portion of the URL. Note that the format of a url is:

```
driver://user:pass@host/database
```

This means that the actual filename to be used starts with the characters to the **right** of the third slash. So connecting to a relative filepath looks like:

```
# relative path
e = create_engine('sqlite:///path/to/database.db')
```

An absolute path, which is denoted by starting with a slash, means you need **four** slashes:

```
# absolute path
e = create_engine('sqlite:///path/to/database.db')
```

To use a Windows path, regular drive specifications and backslashes can be used. Double backslashes are probably needed:

```
# absolute path on Windows
e = create_engine('sqlite:///C:\\path\\to\\database.db')
```

The `sqlite:memory:` identifier is the default if no filepath is present. Specify `sqlite://` and nothing else:

```
# in-memory database
e = create_engine('sqlite://')
```

Compatibility with sqlite3 “native” date and datetime types

The pysqlite driver includes the `sqlite3.PARSE_DECLTYPES` and `sqlite3.PARSE_COLNAMES` options, which have the effect of any column or expression explicitly cast as “date” or “timestamp” will be converted to a Python date or datetime object. The date and datetime types provided with the pysqlite dialect are not currently compatible with these options, since they render the ISO date/datetime including microseconds, which pysqlite’s driver does not. Additionally, SQLAlchemy does not at this time automatically render the “cast” syntax required for the freestanding functions “current_timestamp” and “current_date” to return datetime/date types natively. Unfortunately, pysqlite does not provide the standard DBAPI types in `cursor.description`, leaving SQLAlchemy with no way to detect these types on the fly without expensive per-row type checks.

Keeping in mind that pysqlite’s parsing option is not recommended, nor should be necessary, for use with SQLAlchemy, usage of `PARSE_DECLTYPES` can be forced if one configures “native_datetime=True” on `create_engine()`:

```
engine = create_engine('sqlite://',
                       connect_args={'detect_types': sqlite3.PARSE_DECLTYPES|sqlite3.PARSE_COLNAMES,
                                     native_datetime=True}
                       )
```

With this flag enabled, the `DATE` and `TIMESTAMP` types (but note - not the `DATETIME` or `TIME` types...confused yet ?) will not perform any bind parameter or result processing. Execution of “`func.current_date()`” will return a string. “`func.current_timestamp()`” is registered as returning a `DATETIME` type in SQLAlchemy, so this function still receives SQLAlchemy-level result processing.

Threading/Pooling Behavior

Pysqlite’s default behavior is to prohibit the usage of a single connection in more than one thread. This is controlled by the `check_same_thread` Pysqlite flag. This default is intended to work with older versions of SQLite that did not support multithreaded operation under various circumstances. In particular, older SQLite versions did not allow a `:memory:` database to be used in multiple threads under any circumstances.

SQLAlchemy sets up pooling to work with Pysqlite’s default behavior:

- When a `:memory:` SQLite database is specified, the dialect by default will use `SingletonThreadPool`. This pool maintains a single connection per thread, so that all access to the engine within the current thread use the same `:memory:` database - other threads would access a different `:memory:` database.
- When a file-based database is specified, the dialect will use `NullPool` as the source of connections. This pool closes and discards connections which are returned to the pool immediately. SQLite file-based connections have extremely low overhead, so pooling is not necessary. The scheme also prevents a connection from being used again in a different thread and works best with SQLite’s coarse-grained file locking.

Note: The default selection of `NullPool` for SQLite file-based databases is new in SQLAlchemy 0.7. Previous versions select `SingletonThreadPool` by default for all SQLite databases.

Modern versions of SQLite no longer have the threading restrictions, and assuming the `sqlite3/pysqlite` library was built with SQLite's default threading mode of "Serialized", even `:memory:` databases can be shared among threads.

Using a Memory Database in Multiple Threads

To use a `:memory:` database in a multithreaded scenario, the same connection object must be shared among threads, since the database exists only within the scope of that connection. The `StaticPool` implementation will maintain a single connection globally, and the `check_same_thread` flag can be passed to `Pysqlite` as `False`:

```
from sqlalchemy.pool import StaticPool
engine = create_engine('sqlite://',
                      connect_args={'check_same_thread': False},
                      poolclass=StaticPool)
```

Note that using a `:memory:` database in multiple threads requires a recent version of SQLite.

Using Temporary Tables with SQLite

Due to the way SQLite deals with temporary tables, if you wish to use a temporary table in a file-based SQLite database across multiple checkouts from the connection pool, such as when using an ORM `Session` where the temporary table should continue to remain after `commit()` or `rollback()` is called, a pool which maintains a single connection must be used. Use `SingletonThreadPool` if the scope is only needed within the current thread, or `StaticPool` if scope is needed within multiple threads for this case:

```
# maintain the same connection per thread
from sqlalchemy.pool import SingletonThreadPool
engine = create_engine('sqlite:///mydb.db',
                      poolclass=SingletonThreadPool)

# maintain the same connection across all threads
from sqlalchemy.pool import StaticPool
engine = create_engine('sqlite:///mydb.db',
                      poolclass=StaticPool)
```

Note that `SingletonThreadPool` should be configured for the number of threads that are to be used; beyond that number, connections will be closed out in a non deterministic way.

Unicode

In contrast to SQLAlchemy's active handling of date and time types for `pysqlite`, `pysqlite`'s default behavior regarding Unicode is that all strings are returned as Python unicode objects in all cases. So even if the `Unicode` type is *not* used, you will still always receive unicode data back from a result set. It is **strongly** recommended that you do use the `Unicode` type to represent strings, since it will raise a warning if a non-unicode Python string is passed from the user application. Mixing the usage of non-unicode objects with returned unicode objects can quickly create confusion, particularly when using the ORM as internal data is not always represented by an actual database result string.

4.11 Sybase

Support for Sybase Adaptive Server Enterprise (ASE).

Note that this dialect is no longer specific to Sybase iAnywhere. ASE is the primary support platform.

4.11.1 python-sybase notes

Support for Sybase via the python-sybase driver.

<http://python-sybase.sourceforge.net/>

Connect strings are of the form:

```
sybase+pysybase://<username>:<password>@<dsn>/[database name]
```

Unicode Support

The python-sybase driver does not appear to support non-ASCII strings of any kind at this time.

4.11.2 pyodbc notes

Support for Sybase via pyodbc.

<http://pypi.python.org/pypi/pyodbc/>

Connect strings are of the form:

```
sybase+pyodbc://<username>:<password>@<dsn>/  
sybase+pyodbc://<username>:<password>@<host>/<database>
```

Unicode Support

The pyodbc driver currently supports usage of these Sybase types with Unicode or multibyte strings:

CHAR
NCHAR
NVARCHAR
TEXT
VARCHAR

Currently *not* supported are:

UNICHAR
UNITEXT
UNIVARCHAR

4.11.3 mxodbc notes

Support for Sybase via mxodbc.

This dialect is a stub only and is likely non functional at this time.

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