ODBC Connectivity

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Package RODBC implements ODBC database connectivity. It was originally written by Michael Lapsley (St George’s Medical School, University of London) in the early days of R (1999), but after he disappeared in 2002, it was rescued and since much extended by Brian Ripley. Version 1.0-1 was released in January 2003, and RODBC is nowadays a mature and much-used platform for interfacing R to database systems.

Thanks to Marc Schwartz for contributing some of the experiences here. See also the archives of the R-sig-db mailing list.

1 ODBC Concepts

ODBC aims to provide a common API for access to SQL\footnote{SQL is a language for querying and managing data in databases—see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/SQL.} -based database management systems (DBMSs) such as MySQL\footnote{and its fork, MariaDB}, PostgreSQL, Microsoft Access and SQL Server, DB2, Oracle and SQLite. It originated on Windows in the early 1990s, but ODBC driver managers unixODBC and iODBC are nowadays available on a wide range of platforms (and iODBC is used by macOS (aka OS X). The connection to the particular DBMS needs an ODBC driver: these may come with the DBMS or the ODBC driver manager or be provided separately by the DBMS developers, and there are third-party\footnote{but there are close links between unixODBC and Easysoft, and iODBC and OpenLink.} developers such as Actual Technologies, Easysoft and OpenLink. (This means that for some DBMSs there are several different ODBC drivers available, and they can behave differently.)

Microsoft provides drivers on Windows for non-SQL database systems such as DBase and FoxPro, and even for flat files and Excel spreadsheets. Actual Technologies sell a driver for macOS that covers (some) Excel spreadsheets and flat files.

A connection to a specific database is called a Data Source Name or DSN (see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Database_Source_Name). See Appendix B for how to set up DSNs on your system. One of the greatest advantages of ODBC is that it is a cross-platform client-server design, so it is common to run R on a personal computer and access data on a remote server whose OS may not even be known to the end user. This does
rely on suitable ODBC drivers being available on the client: they are for the major cross-
platform DBMSs, and some vendors provide ‘bridge’ drivers, so that for example a ‘bridge’
ODBC driver is run on a Linux client and talks to the Access ODBC driver on a remote
Windows machine.

ODBC provides an abstraction that papers over many of the differences between DBMSs.
That abstraction has developed over the years, and RODBC works with ODBC version 3.
This number describes both the API (most drivers nowadays work with API 3.51 or 3.52)
and capabilities. The latter allow ODBC drivers to implement newer features partially or
not at all, so some drivers are much more capable than others: in the main RODBC works
with basic features. ODBC is a superset of the ISO/IEC 9075-3:1995 SQL/CLI standard.
A somewhat biased overview of ODBC on Unix-alikes can be found at https://www.
easysoft.com/developer/interfaces/odbc/linux.html.

2 Basic Usage

Two groups of functions are provided in RODBC. The mainly internal odbc* commands
implement low-level access to C-level ODBC functions with similar\(^4\) names. The sql*
functions operate at a higher level to read, save, copy and manipulate data between data
frames and SQL tables. The two low-level functions which are commonly used make or
break a connection.

2.1 Making a connection

ODBC works by setting up a connection or channel from the client (here RODBC) to the
DBMSs as specified in the DSN. Such connections are normally used throughout a session,
but should be closed explicitly at the end of the session—however RODBC will clear up
after you if you forget (with a warning that might not be seen in a GUI environment).
There can be many simultaneous connections.

The simplest way to make a connection is

```r
library(RODBC)
ch <- odbcConnect("some_dsn")
```

and when you are done with it,

```r
close(ch)
# or if you prefer
odbcClose(ch)
```

The connection object `ch` is how you specify one of potentially many open connections,
and is the first argument to all other RODBC functions. If you forget the details, printing
it will give some summary information.

If the DBMS user and password are needed and not stored in the DSN, they can be supplied
by e.g.

```r
ch <- odbcConnect("some_dsn", uid = "user", pwd = "****")
```

\(^4\) in most cases with prefix SQL replacing odbc.
Users of the R GUI under Windows have another possibility: if an incompletely specified DSN is given, the driver-specific Data Source dialog box will pop up to allow it to be completed.

More flexibility is available via function `odbcDriverConnect`, which works with a connection string. At its simplest it is

"DSN=dsn;UID=uid;PWD=pwd"

but it can be constructed without a DSN by specifying a driver directly via `DRIVER=`, and more (in some cases many more) driver-specific parameters can be given. See the documentation for the driver (and Appendix A) for more details.

### 2.2 Reading from a database

where ‘database’ can be interpreted very widely, including for example Excel spreadsheets and directories of flat files.

The simplest and most common use of `RODBC` is to extract data from databases held on central database servers. Such access is read-only, and this can be enforced by settings in the DSN or via permission settings (also known as privileges) on the database.

To find out what tables are accessible from a connection `ch`, use

```r
sqlTables(ch)
```

Some drivers will return all visible table-like objects, not just those owned by you. In that case you may want to restrict the scope by e.g.

```r
sqlTables(ch, tableType = "TABLE")
sqlTables(ch, schema = "some_pattern")
sqlTables(ch, tableName = "some_pattern")
```

The details are driver-specific but in most cases `some_pattern` can use wildcards with underscore matching a single character and percent matching zero or more characters. Since underscore is a valid character in a table name it can be handled literally by preceding it by a backslash—but it is rarely necessary to do so.

A table can be retrieved as a data frame by

```r
res <- sqlFetch(ch, "table_name")
```

If it has many rows it can be retrieved in sections by

```r
res <- sqlFetch(ch, "table_name", max = m)
res <- sqlFetchMore(ch, "table_name", max = m)
```

... It is often necessary to reduce the data to be transferred: we have seen how to subset rows, but it can be more effective to restrict the columns or to return only rows meeting some conditions. To find out what columns are available, use `sqlColumns`, for example

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5 This does not work from `Rterm.exe`

6 these are the SQL wildcards used for example in LIKE clauses.
Then an SQL Query can be used to return part of the table, for example (MySQL on Linux)

```sql
> sqlQuery(sh, paste("SELECT State, Murder FROM USArrests", 
+ "WHERE Rape > 30 ORDER BY Murder"))
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Murder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arizona</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alaska</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Mexico</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michigan</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevada</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that although there are standards for SQL, all the major producers of DBMSs have their own dialects, so for example on the Oracle and DB2 systems we tested this query had to be given as

```sql
> sqlQuery(ch, paste('SELECT "State", "Murder" FROM "USArrests"
+ 'WHERE "Rape" > 30 ORDER BY "Murder"'))
```

or even in upper case. Describing how to extract data from databases is the forte of the SQL language, and doing so efficiently is the aim of many of the DBMSs, so this is a very powerful tool. To learn SQL it is best to find a tutorial specific to the dialect you will use; for example Chapter 3 of the MySQL manual is a tutorial. A basic tutorial which covers some common dialects can be found at [http://www.1keydata.com/sql/sql.html](http://www.1keydata.com/sql/sql.html): tutorials on how to perform common tasks in several commonly used DBMSs are available at [http://sqlzoo.net/](http://sqlzoo.net/).

### 2.3 Table Names

SQL-92 expects both table and column names to be alphanumeric plus underscore, and RODBC does not in general support vendor extensions (for example Access allows spaces). There are some system-specific quoting schemes: Access and Excel allow table names to be enclosed in [ ] in SQL queries, MySQL (by default) quotes via backticks, and most other systems use the ANSI SQL standard of double quotes.

The `odbcConnect` function allows the specification of the quoting rules for names RODBC itself sends, but sensible defaults are selected. Users do need to be aware of the quoting issue when writing queries for `sqlQuery` themselves.

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7MySQL, Oracle and Microsoft SQL Server.
8backticks for MySQL, [ ] for the Access and Excel convenience wrappers, otherwise ANSI double quotes.
Note the underscore is a wildcard character in table names for some of the functions, and so may need to be escaped (by backslash) at times.

Normally table names containing a period are interpreted as references to another schema (see below): this can be suppressed by opening the connection with argument `interpretDot = FALSE`.

### 2.4 Types of table

The details are somewhat DBMS-specific, but ‘tables’ usually means ‘tables, views or similar objects’.

In some systems ‘tables’ are physical objects (files) that actually store data—Mimer calls these base tables. For these other ‘tables’ can be derived that present information to the user, usually called ‘views’. The principal distinctions between a (base) table and a view are

- Using `DROP` on a table removes the data, whereas using it on a view merely removes the convenient access to a representation of the data.
- The access permission (privilege) of a view can be very different from those of a table: this is commonly used to hide sensitive information.

A view can contain a subset of the information available in a single table or combine information from two or more tables.

Further, some DBMSs distinguish between tables and views generated by ordinary users and system tables used by the DBMS itself. Where present, this distinction is reflected in the result of `sqlTable()` calls.

Some DBMSs support synonyms and/or aliases which are simply alternative names for an existing table/view/synonym, often those in other schemas (see below).

Typically tables, views, synonyms and aliases share a name space and so must have a name that is unique (in the enclosing schema where schemas are implemented).

### 3 Writing to a Database

To create or update a table in a database some more details need to be considered. For some systems, all table and column names need to be lower case (e.g. PostgreSQL, MySQL on Windows) or upper case (e.g. some versions of Oracle). To make this a little easier, the `odbcConnect` function allows a remapping of table names to be specified, and this happens by default for DBMSs where remapping is known to be needed.

The main tool to create a table is `sqlSave`. It is safest to use this after having removed any existing table of the same name, which can be done by

`sqlDrop(ch, "table_name", errors = FALSE)`

Then in the simplest usage

`sqlSave(ch, some_data_frame)`
creates a new table whose name is the name of the data frame (remapped to upper or lower case as needed) and with first column rownames the row names of the data frame, and remaining columns the columns of the data frame (with names remapped as necessary). For the many options, see the help page.

`sqlSave` works well when asked to write integer, numeric and reasonable-length\(^9\) character strings to the database. It needs some help with other types of columns in mapping to the DBMS-specific types of column. For some drivers it can do a good job with date and date-time columns; in others it needs some hints (and e.g. for Oracle dates are stored as date-times). The files in the `RODBC/tests` directory in the sources and the installed file `tests.R` provide some examples. One of the options is the `fast` argument: the default is `fast = TRUE` which transfers data in binary format: the alternative is `fast = FALSE` which transfer data as character strings a row at a time—this is slower but can work better with some drivers (and worse with others).

The other main tool for writing is `sqlUpdate` which is used to change rows in an existing table. Note that `RODBC` only does this in a simple fashion, and on up-market DBMSs it may be better to set cursors and use direct SQL queries, or at least to control transactions by calls to `odbcSetAutoCommit` and `odbcEndTran`. The basic operation of `sqlUpdate` is to take a data frame with the same column names (up to remapping) as some or all of the columns of an existing table: the values in the data frame are then used either to replace entries or to create new rows in the table.

Rows in a DBMS table are in principle unordered and so cannot be referred to by number: the sometimes tricky question is to know what rows are to replaced. We can help the process by giving one or more `index` columns whose values must match: for a data frame the row names are often a good choice. If no `index` argument is supplied, a suitable set of columns is chosen based on the properties of the table.

### 3.1 Primary keys and indices

When a table is created (or afterwards) it can be given additional information to enable it to be used effectively or efficiently.

*Primary keys* are one (usually) or more columns that provide a reliable way to reference rows in the table: values of the primary key must be unique and not `NULL` (SQL parlance for ‘missing’). Primary keys in one table are also used as *foreign keys* in another table: this ensure that e.g. values of `customer_id` only take values which are included in the primary key column of that name in table `customers`. Support of foreign keys is patchy: some DBMSs (e.g. MySQL prior to 6.0) accept specifications but ignore them.

`RODBC` allows primary keys to be set as part of the `sqlSave()` function when it creates a table: otherwise they can be set by `sqlQuery()` in DBMS-specific ways (usually by `ALTER TABLE`).

Columns in a table can be declared as `UNIQUE`: primary keys and such columns are usually

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\(^9\)which of course depends on the DBMS. Almost all have an implementation of `varchar` that allows up to 255 bytes or characters, and some have much larger limits. Calling `sqlTypeInfo` will tell you about the data type limits.
used as the basis for table indices, but other indices (sometimes called secondary indices) can be declared by a CREATE INDEX SQL command. Whether adding primary keys or other indices has any effect on performance depends on the DBMS and the query.

4 Data types

This can be confusing: R has data types (including character, double, integer and various classes including Date and POSIXct), ODBC has both C and SQL data types, the SQL standards have data types and so do the various DBMSs and they all have different names and different usages of the same names.

Double- and single-precision numeric values and 32- and 16-bit integers (only) are transferred as binary values, and all other types as character strings. However, unless as.is = TRUE, sqlGetResults (used by all the higher-level functions to return a data frame) converts character data to a date/date-time class or via type.convert.

You can find out the DBMS names for the data types used in the columns of a table by a call to sqlColumns, and further information is given on those types in the result of sqlTypeInfo. For example in MySQL,

```
sqlColumns(channel)
```

This gives the DBMS data by name and by number (twice, once the number used in the DBMS and once that used by SQL—they agree here). Other things of interest here are the column size, which gives the maximum size of the character representation, and the two columns about 'nullable' which indicate if the column is allowed to contain missing values (SQL NULLs).

The result of sqlTypeInfo has 19 columns and in the version of MySQL used here, 52 types. We show a small subset of the more common types:

```
> sqlTypeInfo(channel)[<..., c(1:3,7,16)]
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE_NAME</th>
<th>DATA_TYPE</th>
<th>COLUMN_SIZE</th>
<th>NULLABLE</th>
<th>SQL_DATATYPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bit</td>
<td>-7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tinyint</td>
<td>-6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bigint</td>
<td>-5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mediumtext</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>16777215</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>longtext</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>2147483647</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note that there are both duplicate type names and duplicate type numbers.

Most DBMSs started with their own data types and later mapped the standard SQL data types on to them, although these may only be partially implemented. Some DBMSs allow user-defined data types, for example enumerations.

Commonly used data types fall into a number of groups:

**Character types** Character types can be classified three ways: fixed or variable length, by the maximum size and by the character set used. The most commonly used types\(^\text{10}\) are `varchar` for short strings of variable length (up to some maximum) and `char` for short strings of fixed length (usually right-padded with spaces). The value of ‘short’ differs by DBMS and is at least 254, often a few thousand—often other types will be available for longer character strings. There is a sanity check which will allow only strings of up to 65535 bytes when reading: this can be removed by recompiling RODBC.

Many other DBMSs have separate types to hold Unicode character strings, often with names like `nvarchar` or `wvarchar`. Note that currently RODBC only uses the current locale for character data, which could be UTF-8 (and will be on macOS and in many cases on Linux and other Unix-alikes), but is never UCS-2 as used on Windows. So if character data is stored in the database in Unicode, it will be translated (with a possible loss of information) in non-Unicode locales. (This may change in future versions of RODBC.)

Some DBMSs such as PostgreSQL and Microsoft SQL Server allow variable-length character strings of length only limited by resources. These do not fit well with the ODBC model that requires buffers to be allocated to transfer character data, and so such types may be subjected (by the ODBC driver) to a fixed limit or not work at all.

**Integer types** Most DBMSs have types for 32-bit (`integer`, synonym `int`) and 16-bit (`smallint`) integers. Some, including MySQL, also have unsigned versions and 1-bit, 8-bit and 64-bit integer types: these further types would usually be transferred as character strings and converted on reading to an `integer` or `double` vector.

Type names `int2`, `int4` and `int8` are common as synonyms for the basic type names.\(^\text{10}\)

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\(^\text{10}\)the SQL names for these are `CHARACTER VARYING` and `CHARACTER`, but these are too cumbersome for routine use.
The SQL standard does not require `integer` and `smallint` to be binary (rather than
decimal) types, but they almost always are binary.

Note that 64-bit integers will be transferred as character strings and read by
`sqlGetResults` as character vectors or (for $2^{31} \leq |x| < 2^{53}$) as `double`
vectors.

**Floating-point types** The basic SQL floating-point types are 8 and 7 for
double- and single-precision binary types. The SQL names are `double precision`
and `real`, but beware of the variety of names. Type 6 is `float` in the standard, but is
used by some DBMSs\(^{11}\) for single-precision and by some for double-precision: the forms `float(24)`
and `float(53)` are also commonly supported.

You should not assume that these types can store `Inf`, `-Inf` or `NaN`, but they often
can.

**Other numeric types** It is common to store decimal quantities in databases (e.g. currency
amounts) and types 2 and 3 are for decimals. Some DBMSs have specialized
types to handle currencies, e.g. `money` in Microsoft SQL Server.

Decimal types have a `precision` (the maximum number of significant decimal digits)
and `scale` (the position of the decimal point). `numeric` and `decimal` are usually
synonymous, but the distinction in the standards is that for `numeric` the precision
is exact whereas for `decimal` the DBMS can use a larger value than that specified.

Some DBMSs have a type `integer(p)` to represent up to $p$ decimal digits, and this
may or may not be distinct from `decimal(p,0)`.

DBMSs do not necessarily fully implement decimal types, e.g. MySQL currently
stores them in binary and used to store them as character strings.

**Dates and times** The handling of dates and times is very much specific to the DBMS.
Some allow fractional seconds in date-times, and some do not; some store timezones
with date-times or always use UTC and some do not, and so on. Usually there are
also types for time intervals.

All such types are transferred as character strings in RODBC.

**Binary types** These are less common, and unsupported by RODBC prior to version
1.3-0. They parallel character types in that they are a sequence of bytes of fixed
or variable length, sometimes with additional types for long sequences: there are
separate ODBC types for `SQL_BINARY`, `SQL_VARBINARY` and `SQL_LONGVARBINARY`.

Binary types can currently only be read as such, and they are returned as column of
class "ODBC_binary" which is a list of raw vectors.

It is possible (but rare) for the DBMS to support data types that the ODBC driver cannot
handle.

**4.1 Data types when saving a data frame**

When `sqlSave` creates a table, there is some choice as to the SQL data types used.

\(^{11}\)In Oracle the `FLOAT` type is a decimal and not a binary type.
The default is to select the SQL data type from the R type via the `typeInfo` argument to `sqlSave`. If this is not supplied (usual) a default mapping is looked up using `getSqlTypeInfo()` or by interrogating `sqlTypeInfo()`. This will almost always produce the correct mapping for numeric, integer and character columns of up to 254 characters (or bytes). In other cases (include dates and date-times) the desired SQL type can be specified for each column via the argument `varTypes`, a named character vector with names corresponding to (some of) the names in the data frame to be saved.

Only a very few DBMSs have a logical data type and the default mapping is to store R logical vectors as `varchar(5)`. For others DBMSs `BIT`, `TINYINT` or an enumeration type could be used (but the column may be need to be converted to and from a suitable representation). For example, in MySQL we could use `enum('FALSE', 'TRUE')`, but this is actually stored as `char(5)`. Note that to represent `NA` the SQL data type chosen needs to be nullable, which `BIT` often is not. (Mimer has a nullable data type `BOOLEAN` but this is not supported by the ODBC client.)

### 4.2 SQLite

SQLite’s concept of ‘data type’ is anomalous: version 3 does recognize types of data (in version 2 everything was a character string), but it does not have a fixed type for a column in a table (although the type specified in the `CREATE TABLE` statement is a ‘recommended’ type for the values of that column). Every value is categorized as null, integer (of length 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 or 8 bytes), double, text (UTF-8 or UTF-16) or BLOB (a sequence of bytes). This does not fit well with the ODBC interface which pre-determines a type for each column before reading or writing it: the ‘SQLite ODBC’ driver falls back to a `SQLVARCHAR` or `SQL_LONGVARCHAR` type if the column type is not available.

### 4.3 ODBC data types

ODBC defines two sets of data types: SQL data types and C data types. SQL data types indicate the data types of data stored at the data source using standard names. C data types indicate the data types used in the compiled code in the application (here `RODBC`) when transferring data and are the same for all drivers.

The ODBC SQL data types are abstractions of the data types discussed above with names like `SQL_INTEGER`. They include `SQL_LONGVARCHAR` for large character types and `SQL_WVARCHAR` for Unicode character types. It is usually these types that are returned (by number) in the `SQL_DATA_TYPE` column of the result of `sqlColumns` and `SQL_DATATYPE` column of the result of `sqlTypeInfo`. The mapping from names to numbers is given in table 1.

The only ODBC C data types currently used by `RODBC` are `SQL_C_DOUBLE`, `SQL_C_SLONG` (32-bit signed integers) and `SQL_C_CHAR` for reading and writing, and `SQL_C_FLOAT` (single-precision), `SQL_C_SSHORT` (16-bit signed integers) and `SQL_C_BINARY` for reading from the database.

[https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/ms713607%28VS.85%29.aspx](https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/ms713607%28VS.85%29.aspx) is the definitive source of information about ODBC data types.
Table 1: Mapping between ODBC SQL data type names and numbers. (GUIDs are 16-byte numbers, Microsoft’s implementation of UUIDs.)

5 Schemas and Catalogs

This is a more technical section: few users will need to deal with these concepts.

‘Schemas’\footnote{which is the usual plural in this technical usage, although schemata is more usual in English.} are collections of objects (such as tables and views) within a database that are supported by some DBMSs: often a separate schema is associated with each user (and ‘schema’ in ODBC 3 replaced ‘owner’ in ODBC 2). In SQL-92, schemas are collected in a ‘catalog’ which is often implemented as a database. Where schemas are implemented, there is a current schema used to find unqualified table names, and tables in other schemas can be referred to within SQL queries using the schema.table notation. You can think of a schema as analogous to a name space; it allows related objects to be grouped together without worrying about name clashes with other groups. (Some DBMSs will search for unqualified table names in a search path: see the detailed descriptions below.)

Note that ‘schema’ is used in another sense in the database literature, for the design of a database and in particular of tables, views and privileges.

Here are some details of various DBMSs’ interpretations of catalog and schema current at the time of writing (mid 2009). (These descriptions are simplistic, and in some cases experimental observations.)

- SQLite uses dotted names for alternative databases that are attached by an ATTACH DATABASE command.\footnote{and may be subsequently detached by a DETACH DATABASE command} There is a search path of databases, so it is only necessary to use the dotted name notation when there are tables of the same name on attached databases. The initial database is known as main and that used for temporary tables as temp.

- MySQL uses catalog to refer to a database. In MySQL’s parlance, ‘schema’ is a little-used synonym for ‘database’. 

• PostgreSQL only allows a session to access one database, and does not use ‘catalog’ except to refer to the current database. Version 7.3 introduced schemas—users can create their own schemas with a `CREATE SCHEMA` query. Tables are by default in the `public` schema, and unqualified table names are searched for along a ‘search path’ of schemas (by default, containing `public`).

• Oracle uses schemas as synonymous with ‘owner’ (also known as ‘user’). There is no way for a user to create additional schemas (that is not what `CREATE SCHEMA` does in Oracle).

• IBM DB2 uses schemas as name spaces for objects that may lie on different databases: using `aliases` allows objects to be in more than one schema. The initial current schema is named the same as the user (`SQLID` in DB2 parlance), but users can create additional schemas with `CREATE SCHEMA` statements.

• Microsoft SQL Server 2008 uses both `catalog` and `schema`, `catalog` for the database and `schema` for the type of object, e.g. "sys" for most of the system tables/views and (default) "dbo" for user tables. Further schemas can be created by users. The default schema for a user can be set when the user is created and changed via `ALTER USER`.

Prior to SQL Server 2005, ‘schema’ meant ‘user’, and the search path for unqualified names was the database user then "dbo".

• The Microsoft Excel and Access ODBC drivers do not use schemas, but do use `catalog` to refer to other database/spreadsheet files.

• Mimer ([www.mimer.com](http://www.mimer.com)) uses schemas which are normally the same as users (which it calls `IDENT`s), but users can create additional schemas with `CREATE SCHEMA` statements. There are also system schemas. Mimer uses ‘schemata’ as the plural of schema.

It is often possible to use `sqlTables` to list the available catalogs or schemas: see its help page for the driver-specific details.

RODBC usually works with tables in the current schema, but unless the connection was opened with `interpretDot = FALSE` most functions will attempt to interpret the ‘dotted name’ notation. The interpretation depends on the DBMS: the SQL-92 meaning is `schema.table` and this is accepted by PostgreSQL, Microsoft SQL Server, Oracle, DB2 and Mimer. However, MySQL uses `database.table`, and the functions try\(^\text{14}\) that interpretation if they recognize a MySQL driver. Some DBMSs allow more than two components, but these are not currently supported by the RODBC functions.

Functions `sqlTables`, `sqlColumns` and `sqlPrimaryKeys` have arguments `catalog` and `schema` which in principle allow tables in other schemas to be listed or examined: however these are only partially implemented in many current ODBC drivers. See the help page for `sqlTables` for some further details.

\(^{14}\) currently this is stymied by bugs in the ODBC driver, so `SQLColumns` is unable to report on tables in specified databases.
For other uses, the trick is to select the schema(s) you want to use, which is done via an SQL statement sent by sqlQuery. For Oracle you can set the default schema (owner) by 

\texttt{ALTER SESSION SET CURRENT_SCHEMA = \textit{schema}}

whereas for PostgreSQL the search path can be changed via 

\texttt{SET search_path TO \textit{schema1,schema2}}.

In DB2, creating an alias in the current schema can be used to access tables in other schemas, and a \texttt{CURRENT_SCHEMA} query can be used to change the current schema. In MySQL and Microsoft SQL Server a database can be selected by a \texttt{USE database} query.

\section{Internationalization Issues}

Internationalization issues are made more complex by ODBC being a client-server system, and the ODBC client (\texttt{RODBC}) and the server may be running on different machines with different OSes on different continents. So the client may need some help.

In most cases numeric data are transferred to and from R in binary form, so the representation of the decimal point is not an issue. But in some cases it could be (e.g. decimal rather than binary SQL data types will be transferred as character strings) and then the decimal point to be used will be taken from \texttt{options("dec")}: if unset this is set when \texttt{RODBC} is loaded from the setting of the current locale on the machine running R (via \texttt{Sys.localeconv}). Some ODBC drivers (e.g. for Microsoft SQL Server, Oracle) allow the locale (’NLS’) to be used for numeric values to be selected for the connection.

The other internationalization issue is the character encoding used. When R and the DBMS are running on the same machine this is unlikely to be an issue, and in many cases the ODBC driver has some options to translate character sets. SQL is an ANSI (US) standard, and DBMSs tended to assume that character data was ASCII or perhaps 8-bit. More recently DBMSs have started to (optionally or by default) to store data in Unicode, which unfortunately means UCS-2 on Windows and UTF-8 elsewhere. So cross-OS solutions are not guaranteed to work, but most do.

Encoding issues are best resolved in the ODBC driver or in DBMS settings. In the unusual case that this cannot be done, the \texttt{DBMSencoding} argument to \texttt{odbcDriverConnect} allows for recoding when sending data to or from the ODBC driver and thence the DBMS.

\section{Excel Drivers}

The Microsoft Excel ODBC drivers (Windows only) have a number of peculiarities which mean that it should be used with care.

It seems that their concept of a ‘table’ is principally a \textit{named range}. They treat worksheets as system tables, and append a dollar to their name (making then non-standard SQL table names: the quoting convention used is to enclose such names in square brackets).

Column names are taken as the first row of the named range/worksheet. Non-standard SQL names are allowed here too, but the driver maps \# in column names. Annoyingly,
sqlTables is allowed to select named ranges only by `tableType = "TABLE"` but not to select only worksheets.

There are at least two known problems with reading columns that do not have a format set before data entry, and so start with format ‘General’. First, the driver uses the first few rows to determine the column type, and is over-fond of declaring ‘Numeric’ even when there are non-numeric entries. The default number of rows consulted is 8, but attempts to change this in the DSN setup are ignored. Second, if a column is declared as ‘Text’, numeric entries will be read as SQL nulls and hence R NAs. Unfortunately, in neither case does reformatting the column help.

The connection is by default read-only. It is possible to de-select this in the DSN (and the convenience wrapper `odbcConnectExcel` has a `readOnly = FALSE` argument to do so), but this does not support deletion, including SQL DROP, DELETE, UPDATE and ALTER statements. In particular, `sqlDrop` will remove the data in a worksheet but not the worksheet itself. The driver does allow a worksheet to be updated by `sqlUpdate`, and for a new worksheet (with a different name from existing worksheets) to be created by `sqlSave` (which also creates a named range).

As far as we know, no similar issues affect the Actual Technologies macOS Excel driver: however, it allows only read-only access to Excel files and does not support Excel 2007-and-later .xlsx files.

8 DBMS-specific tidbits

This section covers some useful DBMS-specific SQL commands and other useful details.

Recent versions of several DBMSs have a schema `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` that holds many predefined system views. These include MySQL (the name of a database, mainly populated beginning with MySQL 5.1), Microsoft SQL Server and Mimer.

MySQL

Comments about MySQL are mostly applicable to its forks such as MariaDB.

We have already mentioned `USE database` as the way to change the database in use. `SHOW DATABASES` lists the databases ‘for which you have some kind of privilege’, and can have a LIKE clause to restrict the result to some pattern of database names.

The `DESCRIBE table` command is a compact way to get a description of a table or view, similar to the most useful parts of the result of a call to `sqlColumns`. (It is also known as `SHOW COLUMNS FROM table`.)

`SHOW TABLES` is the command to produce a table of the tables/views on the current database, similar to `sqlTables`. For example,

```
> sqlQuery(channel, "USE ripley")
[1] "No Data"
> sqlQuery(channel, "SHOW TABLES")
  Tables_in_ripley
  USArrests
```
SHOW FULL TABLES gives an additional additional column Table_type, the types of the
tables/views.

There is useful information for end users in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database, much more
extensively as from MySQL 5.1.

Some of the non-standard behaviour can be turned off, e.g. starting MySQL with
\(--\text{sql-mode}\)=\text{ANSI} gives closer conformance to the standard, and this can be set for a
single session by

\text{SET SESSION sql_mode='\text{ANSI}'}

To change just the behaviour of quotes (to use double quotes in place of backticks) replace
\text{ANSI} by \text{ANSI QUOTE}.

The maximum size of a \text{char} column is 255 characters. That of a \text{varchar} column is up
to 65535 characters (but there is a limit of 65535 bytes on the total size of a row), and
those with a maximum of 255 or less are stored more efficiently. Types \text{text}, \text{mediumtext}
and \text{longtext} can hold more, and are not subject to the row-size limit (\text{text} has default
maximum size 65535, the default RODBC limit on transfers).

There are \text{binary}, \text{varbinary} and \text{blob} types which are very similar to their character
counterparts but with lengths in bytes.

PostgreSQL

Table \text{pg_tables} lists all tables in all schemas; you probably want to filter on
\text{tableowner='current_user'}, e.g.

\text{> sqlQuery(channel, "SELECT * FROM pg_tables WHERE tableowner='ripley'")}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>schemaname</th>
<th>tablename</th>
<th>tableowner</th>
<th>tablespace</th>
<th>hasindexes</th>
<th>hasrules</th>
<th>hastriggers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>public</td>
<td>dtest</td>
<td>ripley</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are both ANSI and Unicode versions of the ODBC driver on Windows: they provide
many customizations. One of these is read-only access, another is if system tables are
reported by \text{sqlTables}.

The default size of a \text{varchar} column is unlimited, but those with maximum length of 126
bytes or less are stored more efficiently. However, the ODBC interface has limits, which
can be set in the configuration options. These include the maximum sizes for \text{varchar}
(default 254) and \text{longvarchar} (default 8190), and how to handle unknown column sizes
(default at the maximum), and whether ‘Text’ is taken as \text{varchar} or \text{longvarchar} (which
affects the reported maximum size for a \text{varchar} column).

There is a single binary data type, \text{bytea}.
SQLite
These comments are only about SQLite 3.x.

Table `sqlite_master` lists tables and indices, and the `sql` column gives the SQL command used. E.g.

```r
> tmp <- sqlQuery(channel, "select * from sqlite_master")
> tmp[, "sql"] <- substr(tmp[, "sql"], 1, 16)
> tmp
   type name  tbl_name rootpage   sql
1  table USArrests USArrests 2 CREATE TABLE "US
2 index sqlite_autoindex_USArrests_1 USArrests 4 <NA>
```

My current versions of Christian Werner’s SQLite ODBC driver store character data in the current locale’s charset (e.g. UTF-8) on Unix-alikes and by default in Unicode (UCS-2) on Windows (unless de-selected in the DSN configuration).

The default collation for text data is byte-by-byte comparisons, so avoid comparing non-ASCII character data in SQLite.

Actual Technologies sell an SQLite driver for macOS which requires `believeNRows = FALSE` and has a number of other issues including that it seems not to support dropping tables. (Christian Werner’s SQLite ODBC driver was easy to install from the sources and worked correctly.)

Version of the SQLite ODBC driver since 0.87 have segfaulted on the test suite.

Oracle
Tables `cat`, `user_table` and `user_catalog` contain useful information on tables. Information on columns is in `all_tab_columns`, e.g.

```r
> sqlQuery(channel, 
  "select * from all_tab_columns where table_name='USArrests'")
```

```r
   OWNER TABLE_NAME COLUMN_NAME DATA_TYPE DATA_TYPE_MOD
1  RIPLEY USArrests     State VARCHAR2   NA
2  RIPLEY USArrests  Murder  FLOAT    NA
3  RIPLEY USArrests Assault NUMBER    NA
4  RIPLEY USArrests UrbanPop NUMBER    NA
5  RIPLEY USArrests  Rape    FLOAT    NA
...
```

The Windows ODBC driver we tested had an option for a read-only connection.

Oracle’s character data types are `CHAR`, `VARCHAR2` (character set specified when the database was created) and `NCHAR`, `NVARCHAR2` (Unicode), as well as `CLOB` and `NCLOB` for large character strings. For the non-Unicode types the units of length are either bytes or character (set as a default for the database) but can be overriden by adding a `BYTE` or `CHAR` qualifier. The limits are 4000 bytes apart from for `CLOB` and `NCLOB`, which have very high limits.

There are `RAW` and `BLOB` data types.
DB2

Schema `syscat` contains many views with information about tables: for example view `syscat.tables` lists all tables, and

```sql
SELECT * FROM syscat.columns WHERE tablename='USArrests'
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABSCHEMA</th>
<th>TABNAME</th>
<th>COLNAME</th>
<th>COLNO</th>
<th>TYPESCHEMA</th>
<th>TYPENAME</th>
<th>LENGTH</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RIPLEY</td>
<td>USArrests</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>SYSIBM</td>
<td>VARCHAR</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RIPLEY</td>
<td>USArrests</td>
<td>Murder</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>SYSIBM</td>
<td>DOUBLE</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RIPLEY</td>
<td>USArrests</td>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>SYSIBM</td>
<td>INTEGER</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RIPLEY</td>
<td>USArrests</td>
<td>UrbanPop</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>SYSIBM</td>
<td>INTEGER</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RIPLEY</td>
<td>USArrests</td>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>SYSIBM</td>
<td>DOUBLE</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The `CHAR` type can have size up to 254 bytes: the maximum size of the `VARCHAR` type is 32762 bytes. For larger character strings there is the `CLOB` type (up to 2Gb). These types can be used to store data in a MBCS, including various Unicode encodings.

There are corresponding `BINARY`, `VARBINARY` and `BLOB` data types.

Microsoft SQL Server

There are several hundred views in schemas `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` and `sys` which will be listed by `sqlTables` and also by the stored procedure `sp_tables`. Another way to list tables is

```sql
SELECT * FROM sysobjects WHERE xtype='U'
```

where the condition restricts to user tables.

`USE database` changes the database in use.

Types `char` and `varchar` have a maximum specified size of 8000 bytes. It is possible to use `varchar(max)` (previously known as `text`) for a limit of 2Gb, but this may not work well with the ODBC interface. The Unicode types `nchar` and `nvarchar` have a maximum specified size of 4000 characters: again there is `nvarchar(max)` (formerly `ntext`).

There are corresponding `binary` and `varbinary` data types (with `image` as an earlier name for `varbinary(max)`).

Mimer

There are tens of views in schema `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` which can be read by SQL `SELECT` queries of the form

```sql
SELECT column-list
FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.view-name
WHERE condition
```

See the Mimer SQL Reference Manual chapter on Data Dictionary views for full details: two views are `TABLES` and `VIEWS`.

A session can be set to be read-only by the SQL command `SET SESSION READ ONLY`. 

17
Mimer uses Latin-1 for its default character types but Unicode types (\texttt{NCHAR} and \texttt{NVARCHAR}) are also available. Unsurprisingly given that the company is Swedish, different collations are allowed for both Latin-1 and Unicode character types.

The \texttt{char} and \texttt{varchar} columns have a maximum size of 15000 bytes: the \texttt{clob} data type is available for larger character columns. The \texttt{nchar} and \texttt{nvarchar} columns have a maximum size of 5000 characters: the \texttt{nclob} data type is available for larger Unicode columns.

There are corresponding \texttt{binary}, \texttt{varbinary} and \texttt{blob} binary data types.
A Installation

RODBC is simple to install, and binary distributions are available for Windows from CRAN, and sometimes for macOS.

To install from the sources, an ODBC Driver Manager is required. Windows normally comes with one (it is part of MDAC and can be installed separately if required). macOS from 10.2 to 10.8 shipped with iODBC (http://www.iodbc.org, this is also available for other Unix-alikes) but from 10.9 the headers are no longer included in the macOS SDK.

For other systems the driver manager of choice is likely to be unixODBC, part of almost all Linux distributions and with sources downloadable from http://www.unixODBC.org. In Linux binary distributions it is likely that package unixODBC-devel or unixodbc-dev or some such will be needed.

Both unixODBC and iODBC can be installed from the sources under macOS: they need ODBC drivers compiled for the driver manager in use. At least for macOS 10.9–12, all that is required for iODBC is to unpack the sources and use their headers by something like

```
ODBC_INCLUDE=/path/to/libiodbc-srcs/include R CMD INSTALL RODBC
```

and the iODBC sources used by Apple can be found at https://opensource.apple.com.

In most cases the package’s configure script will find the driver manager files, and the package will install with no extra settings. However, if further information is required, use --with-odbc-include and --with-odbc-lib or environment variables ODBC_INCLUDE and ODBC_LIBS to set the include and library paths as needed. A specific ODBC driver manager can be specified by the --with-odbc-manager configure option, with likely values odbc or iodbc: if this is done for odbc and the program odbc_config is found, it is used to set the libpath as a last resort (it is often wrong), and to add any additional CFLAGS.

Sources of drivers

Keeping track of ODBC drivers is a never-ending task, and this section is no longer actively maintained. URIs are liable to move or disappear.

A list of drivers for unixODBC is maintained15 at https://www.unixodbc.org/drivers.html. unixODBC ships with a number of drivers (although in most cases the DBMS vendor’s driver is preferred)—these include for MySQL, PostgreSQL, Mimer and flat files.

MySQL provides drivers under the name ‘Connector/ODBC’ (formerly MyODBC’) in source form, and binaries for all common 32-bit and most 64-bit R platforms. These are said to work also with MariaDB.

PostgreSQL has an associated project at http://pgfoundry.org/projects/psqlodbc/ and another project for at http://pgfoundry.org/projects/odbcng/. (Documentation for psqlodbc is currently hard to find, but there is some in the PostgreSQL 7.2 manual

15that the author works for Easysoft is conspicuous.
An SQLite ODBC driver for Unix-alikes, including macOS, and (32- and 64-bit) Windows is available from http://www.ch-werner.de/sqliteodbc/.

Oracle provides ODBC drivers as a supplement to its ‘Instant Client’ for some of its platforms (including 32/64-bit Windows, macOS and Linux). See https://www.oracle.com/technetwork/database/features/instant-client/index-097480.html One quirk of the Windows drivers is that the Oracle binaries must be in the path, so PATH should include e.g. c:\Oracle\bin.

For IBM’s DB2, search its site for drivers for ‘ODBC and CLI’. There are some notes about using this under Linux at https://www.unixodbc.org/doc/db2.html.

Mimer (www.mimer.com) is a cross-platform DBMS with integral ODBC support, so

> The Mimer SQL setup process automatically installs an ODBC driver when the Mimer SQL client is installed on any Windows or UNIX platform.’

The ‘HowTos’ at http://developer.mimer.se/howto/index.tml provide some useful hints.

Some details of the 32-bit Microsoft ‘ODBC Desktop Database Drivers’ (for Access, Excel, Paradox, dBase and text files on Windows) can be found at https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/ms709326%28VS.85%29.aspx. There is also a Visual FoxPro driver and an (outdated) Oracle driver.


For recent versions of macOS, low-cost and easy-to-use iODBC drivers are available from https://www.actualtech.com/products.php: these cover MySQL/PostgreSQL/SQLite (one driver), SQL Server/Sybase, Oracle, and a read-only driver for Access and related formats (including Access 2007 and Excel, but not Excel 2007). That SQLite driver needs believeNRows = FALSE set. Currently at least, installing those drivers on 10.9 installs iODBC.

macOS drivers for MySQL, PostgreSQL and the major commercial databases are available from http://uda.openlinksw.com/.

**Specifying ODBC drivers**

The next step is to specify the ODBC drivers to be used for specific DBMSs. On Windows installing the drivers will register them automatically. This might happen as part of the
Figure 1: A system ODBC driver file from an x86_64 Fedora 10 Linux system using unixODBC.

installation on other systems, but usually does not.

Both unixODBC and iODBC store information on drivers in configuration files, normally system-wide in /etc/odbcinst.ini and per-user in ~/.odbcinst.ini. However, the system location can vary, and on systems with unixODBC can be found by at the Unix command line by one of

$ odbcinst -j
$ odbc_config --odbcinstini

For iODBC use iodbconf config: on macOS the system location used by Apple was /Library/ODBC/odbcinst.ini.

The format can be seen from figure 1. (unixODBC allows Driver64 here to allow for different paths on 32-bit and 64-bit platforms sharing a file system.) The MySQL and PostgreSQL drivers were installed from the Fedora RPMs mysql-connector-odbc and postgresql-odbc, and also from the mysql-connector-odbc RPM in the MySQL distribution (which inserted the entry in the driver file).

The MySQL manual gives detailed information (including screenshots) of installing its drivers and setting up DSNs that may also be informative to users of other DBMSs.
B Specifying DSNs

The ODBC driver managers have ‘User DSNs’ and ‘System DSNs’: these differ only in where the information is stored, the first on a per-user basis and the second for all users of the system.

Windows has a GUI\(^\text{16}\) to set up DSNs, called something like ‘Data Sources (ODBC)’ under ‘Administrative Tools’ in the Control Panel. You can add, remove and edit (‘configure’) DSNs there (see figure 2). When adding a DSN, first select the ODBC driver and then complete the driver-specific dialog box. There will usually be an option to test the DSN and it is wise to do so.

If \texttt{Rgui} is to be used on Windows, incomplete DSNs can be created and the dialog box will be brought up for completion when \texttt{odbcConnect} is called—this can be helpful to avoid storing passwords in the Windows Registry or to allow alternate users or databases. On that platform, calling \texttt{odbcDriverConnect()} with no arguments will bring up the main ODBC Data Sources dialog box to allow a DSN to be constructed on the fly.

macOS prior to 10.6 came with a very similar GUI (figure 3) found at Applications / Utilities / ODBC Administrator. This has been available as a download from \url{https://support.apple.com/kb/DL895}. Another GUI for macOS is available from \url{http://www.odbcmanager.net/index.php}.

On Unix-alikes DSNs can also be specified in files (and the graphical tools just manipulate these files). The system-wide file is usually \texttt{/etc/odbc.ini} and the per-user file\(^\text{17}\) \texttt{~/.odbc.ini}. Some examples of the format are shown figure 5.

What fields are supported is driver-specific (and it can be hard to find documentation). There is no clear distinction between fields that specify the driver and those which specify the DSN, so any parts of the driver specification which might differ between connections can be used in the DSN file.

Things that are often set here are if the connection is read-only (\texttt{test.pg} is \textit{not} readonly) and the character encoding to be used.

Command-line programs \texttt{isql} (\texttt{unixODBC}) and \texttt{iodbctest} (\texttt{iODBC}) can be used to test a DSN that has been created manually in a file. The formats are

\begin{verbatim}
$ isql -v dsn db\'username db\'password
$ iodbctest
\end{verbatim}

Both give a command-line SQL interface: use \texttt{quit} to terminate.

\footnote{Extra care is needed on a 64-bit version of Windows, as this GUI shows only 64-bit settings for ODBC, including drivers and DSNs. If you are running 32-bit R (and hence 32-bit ODBC) on 64-bit Windows, you need the 32-bit version of the GUI at something like \texttt{c:\Windows\SysWOW64\odbcad32.exe} — and beware that both 32- and 64-bit versions are called \texttt{odbcad32.exe}.}

\footnote{\texttt{/Library/ODBC/odbc.ini} on Mac OS X.}
Figure 2: (Top) The main Data Sources (ODBC) dialog box from a Windows XP system. (Bottom) The dialog box to select a driver that comes up when the Add button is clicked.
Figure 3: (Top) The main ODBC Administrator dialog box from a macOS 10.5 system. (Bottom) A page of the dialog box to specify a DSN for the Actual Technologies Access/Excel driver.
Figure 4: The dialog box of ODBCconfig on Fedora 10 Linux, and the Configure screen for the SQLite driver.
[test_mysql]
Description  = test MySQL
Driver       = MySQL
Trace        = No
Server       = localhost
Port         = 3306
Database     = test

[test_mysql5]
Description  = myodbc5
Driver       = MySQL ODBC 5.1 Driver
Server       = gannet
Port         = 3306
Database     = ripley

[test_pg]
Description  = test PostgreSQL
Driver       = PostgreSQL
Trace        = No
TraceFile    =
ServerName   = localhost
UserName     = ripley
Port         = 5432
Socket       =
Database     = testdb
ReadOnly     = 0

[test_sqlite3]
Description  = test SQLite3
Driver       = sqlite3
Database     = /tmp/mysqlite3.db

Figure 5: A personal (~/.odbc.ini) file from a Fedora 10 Linux system using unixODBC.
Figure 6: Parts of the ODBC driver configuration screens on Windows XP for Microsoft Access, MySQL Connector/ODBC 5.1, Oracle’s ODBC driver and Microsoft SQL Server.
C Internals

The appendix is in part an *aide memoire* for the maintainer, but may interest the curious user.

RODBC connection objects are an integer with several attributes: they are numbered consecutively in the current session. For example

    > channel <- odbcConnect("test")
    > unclass(channel)
    [1] 1
    attr("connection.string")
    [1] "DATABASE=ripley;DESCRIPTION=myodbc;DSN=test;OPTION=0;PORT=3306;SERVER=localhost;"
    attr("handle.ptr")
    <pointer: 0x233e6c0>
    attr("case")
    [1] "nocase"
    attr("id")
    [1] 11371
    attr("believeNRows")
    [1] TRUE
    attr("colQuote")
    [1] "" 
    attr("tabQuote")
    [1] "" 
    attr("encoding")
    [1] "" 
    attr("rows_at_time")
    [1] 100
    attr("isMySQL")
    [1] FALSE

Most of the attributes record the arguments of *odbcDriverConnect*. The "connection.string" attribute is as returned by *SQLDriverConnect* and list driver-specific parameters separated (and perhaps terminated) by a semicolon. The "id" attribute is a random integer used for integrity checks (and in particular to reject connection objects should they be saved and restored in a different session). The "isMySQL" attribute is used both to select the default quote character and the interpretation of qualifier.table names.

The main structure of the connection is kept as a C *struct*, a pointer to which is passed around as the R external pointer "handle.ptr". This has a finalizer that will close the connection when there is no longer an R object referring to it (including at the end of the R session), with a warning unless the connection has already been closed by *close* or *odbcClose*. In addition, a C-level table keeps the pointers of the first 1000 connections of an R session, to enable *odbcCloseAll* to close them.

The *struct* is currently defined as

```c
typedef struct rodbcHandle {
    SQLHDBC hDbc; /* connection handle */
    SQLHSTMT hStmt; /* statement handle */
    SQLLEN nRows; /* number of rows and columns in result set */
    SQLSMALLINT nColumns;
    int channel; /* as stored on the R-level object */
    int id; /* ditto */
    int useNRows; /* value of believeNRows */
    /* entries used to bind data for result sets and updates */
}
```

28
Most ODBC operations work by sending a query, explicitly or implicitly via e.g. sqlColumns, and this creates a result set which is transferred to an R data frame by sqlGetResults. nRows and nCols indicate the size of the pending result set, with nCols = -1 used if there are no pending results.

ODBC works with various handles. There is a SQLHENV handle for the environment that RODBC opens when a connection is first opened or DSNs are listed—its main use is to request ODBC 3 semantics. Then each connection has a SQLHDBC handle, and each query (statement) a SQLHSTMT handle. Argument literal=TRUE of sqlTables and sqlColumns is used to set the SQL_ATTR_METADATA_ID attribute of the statement handle to be true.

All the functions that create a result set call C function cachenbind. This allocates buffers under the colData pointer and binds the result set to them by SQLBindCol. Then when sqlGetResults calls the C function SQLFetch or SQLFetchScroll the results for one or more (up to MAX_ROWS_FETCH = 1024) rows are loaded into the buffers and then copied into R vectors.

Prior to RODBC 1.3-0 the default was to fetch a row at a time, but it is now to fetch up to 100 rows at a time. Entries rowsArraySize and rowsFetched are used to indicate how many rows were requested and how many were available. Since e.g. sqlFetch allows a maximum number of rows to be returned in the data frame, rowsUsed indicates how many of the rows last fetched have so far been returned to R.

The buffers are part of the ColData entry, which is an array of COLUMNS structures, one of each column in the result set. These have the form

```c
typedef struct cols {
    SQLCHAR       ColName[256];
    SQLSMALLINT   NameLength;
    SQLSMALLINT   DataType;
    SQLULEN       ColSize;
    SQLSMALLINT   DecimalDigits;
    SQLSMALLINT   Nullable;
    char          *pData;
    int            datalen;
    SQLDOUBLE      RData[MAX_ROWS_FETCH];
    SQLREAL        R4Data[MAX_ROWS_FETCH];
    SQLINTEGER     IData[MAX_ROWS_FETCH];
    SQLSMALLINT    I2Data[MAX_ROWS_FETCH];
    SQLLEN         IndPtr[MAX_ROWS_FETCH];
} COLUMNS;
```

The first six entries are returned by a call to SQLDescribeCol: DataType is used to select the buffer to use. There are separate buffers for double-precision, single-precision, 32-bit and 16-bit integer and character/byte data. When character/data buffers are allocated,
\textbf{datalen} records the length allocated per row (which is based on the value returned as \texttt{ColSize}). The \texttt{IndPtr} value is used to record the actual size of the item in the current row for variable length character and binary types, and for all nullable types the special value \texttt{SQL\_NULL\_DATA} (-1) indicates an SQL null value.

The other main C-level operation is to send data to the ODBC driver for \texttt{sqlSave} and \texttt{sqlUpdate}. These use \texttt{INSERT INTO} and \texttt{UPDATE} queries respectively, and for \texttt{fast = TRUE} use parametrized queries. So we have the queries (split across lines for display)

\begin{verbatim}
> sqlSave(channel, USArrests, rownames = "State", addPK = TRUE, verbose = TRUE)
Query: CREATE TABLE "USArrests"
  ("State" varchar(255) NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY, "Murder" double, "Assault" integer,
  "UrbanPop" integer, "Rape" double)
Query: INSERT INTO "USArrests"
  ( "State", "Murder", "Assault", "UrbanPop", "Rape" ) VALUES ( ?,?,?,?,? )
Binding: 'State' DataType 12, ColSize 255
Binding: 'Murder' DataType 8, ColSize 15
Binding: 'Assault' DataType 4, ColSize 10
Binding: 'UrbanPop' DataType 4, ColSize 10
Binding: 'Rape' DataType 8, ColSize 15
Parameters: ...

> sqlUpdate(channel, foo, "USArrests", verbose=TRUE)
Query: UPDATE "USArrests" SET "Assault"=? WHERE "State"=?
Binding: 'Assault' DataType 4, ColSize 10
Binding: 'State' DataType 12, ColSize 255
Parameters: ...
\end{verbatim}

At C level, this works by calling \texttt{SQLPrepare} to record the insert/update query on the statement handle, then calling \texttt{SQLBindParameter} to bind a buffer for each column with values to be sent, and finally in a loop over rows copying the data into the buffer and calling \texttt{SQLExecute} on the statement handle.

The same buffer structure is used as when retrieving result sets. The difference is that the arguments which were outputs from \texttt{SQLBindCol} and inputs to \texttt{SQLBindParameter}, so we need to use \texttt{sqlColumns} to retrieve the column characteristics of the table and pass these down to the C interface.