

How developers choose names in statically-typed functional programming languages

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To the best of our knowledge, this paper presents the first empirical study on the use of identifiers in functional programming languages. We conduct an exploratory case study by collecting identifiers from 400 non-archived, non-disabled, and non-outdated GitHub repositories with most stars that use Elm, Haskell, OCaml, or PureScript. In total, we extracted 3 830 575 identifiers from these projects to investigate four research questions related to the frequency and characteristic of identifiers in statically-typed functional programming languages.

CCS Concepts: • **Software and its engineering** → **Functional languages**; • **General and reference** → **Empirical studies**.

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Functional Programming Languages, Identifiers, Naming

ACM Reference Format:

Jan Christiansen. 2018. How developers choose names in statically-typed functional programming languages. *J. ACM* 37, 4, Article 111 (August 2018), 51 pages. <https://doi.org/XXXXXXX.XXXXXXX>

1 Introduction

Consider the following function definition, which is the first Haskell code that you see, if you visit the Haskell website at haskell.org.

```
primes = filterPrime [2..]
where
  filterPrime (p : xs) =
    p : filterPrime [x | x <- xs, x `mod` p /= 0]
```

While it is considered good practice to use identifiers that are descriptive, p , xs and x are used as identifiers in this very prominent Haskell definition. When teaching Haskell, subjectively, students coming from programming languages like Java often complain about very short identifiers used in Haskell code. In contrast the following function definition is the first PureScript code that you see, if you visit the PureScript website at purescript.org.

```
greet :: String → String
greet name = "Hello, " <> name <> "!"
```

This PureScript definition does not use a single-letter variable but the dictionary word *name*. Furthermore, the official style guide of the functional programming language Elm at elm-lang.org states the following.

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ACM 1557-735X/2018/8-ART111
<https://doi.org/XXXXXXX.XXXXXXX>

Unpublished working draft. Not for distribution.

One character abbreviations are rarely acceptable, especially not as arguments for top-level function declarations where you have no real context about what they are.

In support of the Haskell example the identifiers p , xs and x are not arguments to top-level functions but arguments to a local function and a variable defined in a list comprehension. However, the Elm citation talks about “One character abbreviations”. While the identifier p is probably the abbreviation of the word *prime*, it is very unlikely that the name x in the Haskell definition is even an abbreviation.

These examples raise the following more general research questions.

RQ1 What length do identifiers in statically-typed functional programming languages have?

RQ2 Does the length of identifiers differ for different statically-typed functional programming languages?

RQ3 Does the length of identifiers differ for different classes of identifiers?

RQ4 Which identifiers are used most often in statically-typed functional programming languages?

2 Related Work

Various studies have investigated the use of identifiers in computer programs, focusing on readability, comprehension or recall. Lawrie et al. [2006], Binkley et al. [2009], Scanniello and Risi [2013], Schankin et al. [2018], Hofmeister et al. [2019], and Etgar et al. [2022] conducted experiments with computer science students and/or professional developers. These studies vary the style of identifiers and ask participants to remember or to spot a specific identifier or to spot a defect within a program. For example, they compare underscore case with camel case or single letter with abbreviations and full-word identifiers and measure time and/or accuracy for the task. As another example, Feitelson et al. [2022] conducted an online survey asking participants to name variables, constants and data structures and, for example, show that the probability that two participants choose the same name is very low. Alpern et al. [2024] conducted a conceptual replication [Shull et al. 2008] of the study by Feitelson et al. and corroborated the results.

While these kinds of studies are somehow related to the paper at hand, we focus on the closest kind of related work: extracting information about identifiers from existing code. Caprile and Tonella [1999] conducted one of the first studies in this area, analyzing 3 304 function identifiers from ten C programs. Although not explicitly stated, they likely collected only binding identifier occurrences. They heuristically split identifiers into soft words¹ and manually classify soft words into one of seven categories like word contraction, number, or isolated character. Hard words are character sequences delimited by word markers such as underscores or camel-casing, while each hard word consists of one or more soft words. For example, in `get_filenum` the hard words are `get` and `filenum` and the soft words are `get`, `file`, and `num`.

Deissenboeck and Pizka [2006] extracted 5 907 576 identifiers from three open-source projects (Eclipse, Sun’s Java JDK, and Tomcat) to analyze identifier usage. They found that identifiers constitute 33 % of all tokens in Eclipse and 30 % in Sun’s Java JDK and in Tomcat. As their analysis operates on the token level they collect binding as well as bound identifier occurrences. They analyzed aspects like the amount of atomic and compound identifiers or the number of distinct words when compound identifiers are split into hard words. While Deissenboeck and Pizka mined existing code, their main contribution is a formal model of identifier quality to define when an identifier is “meaningful”.

¹Caprile and Tonella [1999] themselves do not use the term *soft word*.

Liblit et al. [2006] extracted 7 243 585² binding identifier occurrences from three programs (Sun's Java JDK, Gnumeric, a spreadsheet application written in C, and the source code of Windows 2003 Server, which is written in C and C++). They compare the average length of various identifier types, such as local variables, parameters and methods with file or global scope. Additionally, they discuss recurring grammatical structures in identifiers like noun phrases and verb phrases by using examples from the projects.

Lawrie et al. [2007] extracted 55 638 621 identifiers from 186 program versions across 76 projects, written in C, C++, Java, and Fortran. They collected "all program identifiers", that is, binding as well as bound identifier occurrences. They heuristically split identifiers into hard and soft words and provide basic statistics about the projects like unique identifiers and total number of hard and soft words. They classified words into categories like abbreviation and single letter and conducted statistical analyzes to draw conclusions. For example, they conclude that "modern programs include more dictionary soft words". They rate the quality of an identifier by calculating the ratio of soft to hard words and conclude that "modern programs contain higher quality identifiers".

Abebe et al. [2009] analyzed two software systems (ALICE and WinMerge) written in C++. They split identifiers into hard words (using non-literals and camel-casing for splitting) and apply stemming [Porter 1980] to compute vocabularies. A vocabulary contains the set of unique words that appear in the corresponding entity. They observe that the system vocabulary, which is the union of all vocabularies, and system size often exhibit a parallel evolution trend. However, most new identifiers introduce none or at most one new term in the vocabulary.

Haiduc and Marcus [2008] analyzed six graph theory libraries – two in C++ and four in Java – extracting domain-specific terms from comments and identifiers. They found that on average, 23 % of the domain terms used in the source code are present in comments only, whereas only 11 % in identifiers alone. That is, comments and identifiers contain a significant fraction of domain terms and comments may be more significant than identifiers regarding domain information.

The most closely related work and the work that sparked our interest in identifiers is a study by Beniamini et al. [2017]. They extracted binding identifier occurrences of local variables from 200 GitHub repositories with most stars for C, Java, JavaScript, Perl, and PHP. Their analysis includes histograms of identifier length and single-letter identifiers. Besides data mining Beniamini et al. conducted an online survey with students to comprehend and modify functions where identifiers used full words and a variant where some identifiers are replaced by single-letter variables. Another online survey asked participants what type they associate with different letters of the alphabet.

Swidan et al. [2017] conducted an exact replication [Shull et al. 2008] of Beniamini et al.'s study on a data set of 250 000 Scratch programs. Scratch is a block-based programming language for teaching basic programming concepts. Unlike the original study they analyzed both variable and procedure names, finding that procedure names tend to be longer. Instead of using a questionnaire to link single-letter variable names to types, they inferred type information from the values that are assigned to the variables. Additionally, they collected statistics about Scratch-specific features of procedure names, such as the number of spaces within a procedure name. They conducted statistical tests to compare distributions for Scratch with distributions from the original study.

Aman et al. [2021] extracted 637 077 binding identifier occurrences of local variables, including method parameters, from 1 000 Java repositories on GitHub with most stars. Given that they processed 472 665 Java source files, this results in approximately 1.3 variables per file, which seems unexpectedly low. In contrast, we extracted 702 879 identifiers from binding variable names, including function parameters, from 14 301 Haskell source files from 100 repositories. While variables in functional programming languages are quite different to variables in object-oriented

²By far the largest part (7 137 095) is extracted from the code of Windows 2003 Server.

languages, the discrepancy between these numbers is quite high. Aman et al. computed the variable scope in number of source lines and heuristically classified identifiers into categories like single letter, dictionary word or type-derived name. They found that about half of the variables with broad scope are compounded names and that the shares of single letter and dictionary word decrease while the share of compounded names increases for broad scopes compared to all variables.

Feitelson [2023] reanalyzed the data set collected by Aman et al., refining the scope classification by using six log-based scope sizes instead of two. This allowed for more precise observations, for example, he observes that the fact that variables with broad scope tend to be longer is part of a progression, and that the biggest difference is that variables with minimal scope are shorter. He also replicated the observation that long words tend to be abbreviated, starting at six characters. Additionally, he highlights a major limitation of the original study – the exclusion of class fields – arguing that developers often think of method vs. class scope when thinking about different scopes.

Gresta et al. [2023] extracted 2 603 381 identifiers (variables, parameters, and attributes) from 40 Java and 40 C++ projects on GitHub. They classified these identifiers into eight distinct naming patterns, such as names with trailing numbers or names that are identical to their type. Their analysis revealed that value, result, and name are the most recurring names and that single-letter names are widely used. Furthermore, they observe that single-letter names appear more often in conditionals or loops while names that identical to their type tend to appear in large-scope contexts like attributes. To identify naming practices in industry they conducted an online survey with 52 software developers.

To the best of our knowledge, no prior research has examined identifiers in functional programming languages. The most closely related work is the study by Beniamini et al. [2017], which analyzed variable length in JavaScript projects – a language significantly influenced by functional programming languages.

3 Method

Following Easterbrook et al. [2008] on selecting appropriate research methods, we conduct an exploratory case study to enhance understanding of identifiers in statically-typed functional programming languages. While we generally support reductionism, we consider a pragmatist approach more suitable for initial investigations into identifiers in functional programming languages.

3.1 Data Collection

To answer our research questions, we collected code from GitHub, selecting the 100 public repositories with most stars for Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript. We exclude archived, disabled, and outdated repositories, where the information whether a repository is marked as archived or disabled by its owner is provided by the GitHub API. We define a repository to be outdated if the last commit on the default branch³ is before January 1st 2020, that is, the code has not been updated for at least five years.

Filtering outdated repositories involves a trade-off. Excluding them removes highly starred repositories that many developers find valuable but increases the likelihood that the collected code reflects current programming practices. Since star counts accumulate over time, sorting by stars often favors older repositories. Notably, some archived repositories reference replacement repositories where development continues. However, the replacement repository is often not included because it has much fewer stars than the original repository due to its younger age.

To collect repositories, we queried the GitHub API with the option `language` with the appropriate value and `sort:stars` and fetch the first 100 results that are neither archived, nor disabled, nor

³Our tool clones the default branch of a repository.

outdated. We prioritized highly starred repositories over a random sample to focus on identifiers in active, mature projects. Figures 1 to 4 summarize the mined repositories as of January 1st, 2025. These tables show the name of the repository, the number of stars, and the number of variable names and definition names that were extracted. The category of variables contains all identifiers introduced in pattern matching in function parameters, case expressions, parameters of lambda expressions, and do notation⁴. The category of definitions contains all identifiers of function definitions and constant definitions, as well as record selectors. We exclude operators from the collection. The number of operators is very small, for all languages fewer than 1 % of all definitions.

Repo Name	Stars	Variables	Definitions	Repo Name	Stars	Variables	Definitions
1 elm/core	2 805	815	413	51 stoeffel/elm-verify-examples	166	238	200
2 elm/elm-lang.org	1 986	791	669	52 harehare/textusm	165	2 963	3 437
3 eikek/docspell	1 691	6 767	8 722	53 joakin/elm-canvas	163	589	611
4 ohanhi/elm-native-ui	1 540	259	418	54 lukewestby/elm-http-builder	162	65	69
5 azimuttapp/azimutt	1 505	10 473	6 802	55 bryanjenningz/25-elm-examples	160	289	238
6 mdgriffith/elm-ui	1 359	1 891	1 800	56 nk0/tooty	157	801	500
7 rtfeldman/elm-css	1 241	1 167	2 457	57 mxgrn/pairs.one	156	246	296
8 wende/elchemy	1 146	941	389	58 funk-team/funkLang	156	7 811	8 638
9 eikek/sharry	934	1 357	1 821	59 arturopala/elm-monocle	153	228	133
10 gdotdesign/elm-ui	923	1 100	1 554	60 rl-king/elm-hnpwa	152	92	81
11 icidasset/diffuse	816	2 244	2 375	61 finos/morphir	152	12 526	5 662
12 cultureamp/react-elm-components	779	0	0	62 mweiss/elm-rte-toolkit	149	2 162	1 368
13 dillonkearns/elm-graphql	778	3 535	7 873	63 w0rm/elm-physics	147	1 179	1 470
14 terezka/elm-charts	745	2 532	3 439	64 cmditch/elm-ethereum	146	710	775
15 ellie-app/ellie	737	1 251	998	65 rtfeldman/elm-validate	144	62	43
16 dillonkearns/elm-pages	662	6 167	4 866	66 w0rm/elm-mogee	143	342	365
17 ravichugh/sketch-n-sketch	553	15 648	8 503	67 Bogdanp/elm-ast	143	293	264
18 erkal/kite	549	822	1 075	68 iancanderson/PurpleTrainElm	138	169	195
19 gampleman/elm-visualization	520	2 260	2 677	69 mdgriffith/elm-codegen	137	4 092	2 875
20 roovo/obsidian-card-board	519	2 276	1 610	70 NoRedInk/elm-json-decode-pipeline	136	21	10
21 jah2488/elm-companies	469	0	1	71 jschomay/elm-narrative-engine	135	341	137
22 terezka/line-charts	456	1 274	1 927	72 elm-community/list-extra	135	420	157
23 Lattware/massivedecks	441	2 458	2 386	73 elm-community/js-integration-examples	135	26	26
24 NixOS/nixos-search	425	466	362	74 mdgriffith/elm-animator	135	1 907	1 375
25 stil4m/elm-analyse	415	1 573	1 137	75 RoganMurley/GALGAGAME	135	519	556
26 w0rm/elm-flatris	408	110	145	76 exercism/elm	134	354	350
27 gingko/client	366	2 887	2 129	77 NoRedInk/noredink-ui	133	4 567	5 614
28 elm-land/elm-land	359	1 147	1 451	78 lindsaykwardell/vite-elm-template	132	4	5
29 aforemmy/elm-mdc	354	2 114	2 864	79 dmotz/emdash	130	589	335
30 cotoami/cotoami	348	1 884	1 186	80 mdgriffith/elm-optimize-level-2	130	949	645
31 evancz/guide.elm-lang.org	323	183	87	81 dmy/elm-doc-preview	128	582	360
32 janesmacaulay/elm-graphql	312	288	362	82 lucamug/elm-e-commerce	127	378	356
33 Malax/elmboy	311	779	1 121	83 passiomatic/sunny-land	126	238	305
34 rogeriochaves/spades	301	117	121	84 JetBrains/origami	126	1 310	1 048
35 ohanhi/elm-shared-state	301	92	129	85 sporto/elm-patterns	123	0	0
36 Zinggi/NoKey	276	2 548	1 609	86 arowM/elm-form-decoder	123	231	210
37 Arcitectus/Sanderling	274	841	1 334	87 elm-explorations/webgl	117	130	322
38 jfmengels/elm-review	263	7 707	6 096	88 cedricss/elm-batteries	117	30	35
39 elm-explorations/test	236	1 910	1 210	89 emachado/narrows	115	954	1 069
40 pine-vm/pine	227	14 961	11 292	90 niksilver/elm-explained	115	24	91
41 passiomatic/elm-designer	222	1 503	1 237	91 avh4/elm-program-test	92	1 056	527
42 LiaScript/LiaScript	220	4 294	2 975	92 JetBrains/open-radiant	91	2 106	1 810
43 ianmackenzie/elm-3d-scene	205	2 012	2 685	93 albertdahlin/elm-posix	91	89	66
44 alexkorban/elmstatic	196	85	116	94 elm/json	91	44	53
45 ianmackenzie/elm-geometry	183	6 668	8 092	95 mapwatch/mapwatch	90	1 192	1 344
46 gicentre/elm-vega	181	1 620	2 571	96 tmcw/flair	87	161	252
47 mdgriffith/elm-markup	179	2 083	1 089	97 Zokka-Dev/zokka-compiler	87	3 795	4 768
48 Viir/bots	178	5 293	8 834	98 choonkeat/elm-webapp	58	123	120
49 mohsenasm/swarm-dashboard	172	159	190	99 MartinStewart/ascii-collab	33	4 382	7 711
50 zwiliias/elm-demystify-decoders	170	2	20	100 Gizra/elm-keyboard-event	22	31	45

Fig. 1. Non-archived, non-disabled, and non-outdated Elm repositories with most stars on GitHub

GitHub defines the language of a repository based on the majority of lines of code. For example, the repository `nammayatri/nammayatri` contains a PureScript frontend and a Haskell backend but appears only in the PureScript list, despite having enough starts for both lists. However, because 48.3 % of the lines of code are PureScript code and only 33.3 % are Haskell code the GitHub

⁴Let declarations in do notation are classified as local definition.

Repo Name	Stars	Variables	Definitions	Repo Name	Stars	Variables	Definitions
1 koalaman/shellcheck	36 689	5 689	5 293	51 srid/neuron	1 521	1 192	835
2 jgm/pandoc	35 238	23 201	12 643	52 yi-editor/yi	1 512	6 496	4 353
3 PostgREST/postgrest	24 151	1 788	1 571	53 ndmitchell/hlint	1 485	2 807	1 421
4 hadolint/hadolint	10 567	938	1 008	54 clash-lang/clash-compiler	1 454	20 663	11 201
5 github/semantic	8 990	3 597	7 740	55 HuwCampbell/grenade	1 451	844	686
6 purescript/purescript	8 616	14 331	5 798	56 google/haskell-trainings	1 396	332	297
7 elm/compiler	7 585	22 472	8 352	57 input-output-hk/plutus-pioneer-program	1 388	206	291
8 unisonweb/unison	5 859	33 905	15 447	58 erebe/greenclip	1 369	187	87
9 carp-lang/Carp	5 576	6 233	2 873	59 lettier/gifcurry	1 366	971	790
10 digitallyinduced/ihp	4 966	4 895	4 800	60 avh4/elm-format	1 315	4 397	1 802
11 facebook/Haxl	4 285	1 222	464	61 fossas/fossa-cli	1 314	7 755	6 845
12 kmonad/kmonad	4 177	633	429	62 haskell-beginners-2022/course-plan	1 305	0	0
13 system-f/fp-course	4 146	0	0	63 faylang/fay	1 283	2 872	1 300
14 facebook/duckling	4 097	12 495	8 008	64 haskell/aeson	1 258	3 805	1 703
15 commercialhaskell/stack	3 995	7 768	5 447	65 BartoszMilewski/Publications	1 257	0	0
16 HigherOrderCO/Kind	3 599	3 760	972	66 quchen/articles	1 256	181	66
17 idris-lang/Idris-dev	3 440	31 593	7 357	67 google/codeworld	1 246	5 047	3 078
18 xmonad/xmonad	3 389	861	460	68 ucscd-progsys/liquidhaskell	1 206	51 280	24 349
19 koka-lang/koka	3 350	23 371	9 261	69 fullstack-development/developers-roadmap	1 197	0	0
20 krispo/awesome-haskell	3 118	0	0	70 ndmitchell/ghcid	1 144	480	246
21 simonmichael/hledger	3 107	6 244	5 728	71 GaloisInc/cryptol	1 139	17 640	7 028
22 IntersectMBO/cardano-node	3 087	12 613	5 464	72 reanimate/reanimate	1 135	3 181	2 306
23 ghc/ghc	3 073	15 739	8 127	73 evincorofautumn/kitten	1 107	3 270	1 048
24 SimulaVR/Simula	2 994	2 348	911	74 hasketch/hasktorch	1 085	31 303	16 953
25 cryptic/echidna	2 791	1 762	983	75 graninas/software-design-in-haskell	1 084	0	2
26 haskell/haskell-language-server	2 738	10 503	6 379	76 uber/queryparser	1 077	5 807	3 214
27 jaspervdj/hakyll	2 716	1 370	800	77 reflex-frp/reflex	1 073	2 460	1 050
28 yesodweb/yesod	2 652	3 930	2 408	78 matterhorn-chat/matterhorn	1 055	4 331	3 104
29 wireapp/wire-server	2 638	35 688	20 608	79 polysemy-research/polysemy	1 041	975	378
30 ghcjs/ghcjs	2 607	10 607	4 503	80 grin-compiler/grin	1 029	7 897	3 464
31 sdiehl/wiwinlh	2 580	54	56	81 tonymorris/fp-course	1 028	1 329	491
32 b3nj5m1n/xdg-ninja	2 559	109	47	82 phuhl/linux_notification_center	1 019	550	373
33 agda/agda	2 539	48 908	16 773	83 kowainik/learn4haskell	1 010	29	35
34 jaspervdj/patat	2 473	1 029	634	84 haskell/stylish-haskell	995	922	581
35 diku-dk/futhark	2 443	42 842	15 676	85 thma/LtuPatternFactory	995	490	354
36 dmjio/miso	2 210	543	873	86 leksah/leksah	976	7 654	2 950
37 jgm/gitit	2 164	1 081	766	87 aviaviavi/toodles	973	272	188
38 dapphub/dapptools	2 103	3 650	2 028	88 tweag/ormolu	972	1 892	1 209
39 ekmett/lens	2 035	7 638	2 170	89 NixOS/nixfmt	970	1 084	332
40 lamdu/lamdu	1 857	5 389	3 614	90 obsidiansystems/obelisk	968	1 611	903
41 haskell-servant/servant	1 836	2 084	1 226	91 maralorn/nix-output-monitor	964	712	590
42 BurntSushi/erd	1 808	164	156	92 B-Lang-org/bsc	963	0	0
43 fosskers/aura	1 780	1 066	980	93 lierdakil/pandoc-crossref	959	641	390
44 scotty-web/scotty	1 726	372	316	94 Gabriella439/turtle	945	891	549
45 haskell/cabal	1 635	27 371	16 348	95 mrkrp/megaparsec	928	1 162	602
46 nmattia/niv	1 634	454	355	96 pcapriotti/optparse-applicative	915	767	457
47 jtdaugherty/brick	1 615	1 766	1 783	97 egison/egison	913	3 499	1 169
48 google-research/dex-lang	1 595	14 250	3 366	98 agentm/project-m36	913	6 928	2 890
49 tensorflow/haskell	1 583	917	756	99 AccelerateHS/accelerate	912	9 383	3 262
50 IntersectMBO/plutus	1 582	17 300	8 887	100 samtay/tetris	906	141	149

Fig. 2. Non-archived, non-disabled, and non-outdated Haskell repositories with most stars on GitHub

API does not yield this repository when searching for Haskell repositories. Similarly, `simplex-chat/simplex-chat` was initially part of the list of Haskell repositories but disappeared as the share of Kotlin code in the repository raised to 32.7 % and exceeded the share of Haskell code, which is 31.1 %.

We have implemented a Haskell application to clone the repositories, extract source files, and collect identifiers from abstract syntax trees. As Singer et al. [2008] noted, code analysis for empirical studies presents unexpected challenges. To minimize errors, we implemented the entire processing pipeline in Haskell, allowing us to use a uniform AST traversal technique [Mitchell and Runciman 2007] across multiple languages and maintain a single data type for collected identifiers to reduce inconsistencies. While Haskell-based parsers exist for Elm, Haskell, and PureScript, no complete open-source OCaml parser in Haskell was available. To address this, we implemented a Haskell parser capable of processing a debug output from the OCaml compiler. Even with full parser support, most parsers target only the latest language version. However, repositories sometimes use older versions – for instance, some PureScript repositories use older language versions despite our

Repo Name	Stars	Variables	Definitions	Repo Name	Stars	Variables	Definitions
1 facebook/flow	22 116	47 805	40 408	51 riot-ml/riot	591	1 206	991
2 facebook/infer	15 041	45 266	32 044	52 mukul-rathi/bolt	582	3 156	557
3 semgrep/semgrep	10 853	62 579	46 522	53 janestreet/learn-ocaml-workshop	576	492	633
4 reasonml/reason	10 167	4 682	3 308	54 ocaml-multicore/eio	575	4 025	3 022
5 facebook/pyre-check	6 890	19 763	17 573	55 mahsu/MariOCaml	542	0	0
6 astrada/google-drive-ocamlfuse	5 621	1 967	2 135	56 inhabitedtype/httpaf	537	897	963
7 ocaml/ocaml	5 560	51 543	34 536	57 linscope/CAMLBOY	525	799	1 183
8 coq/coq	4 895	98 541	71 151	58 janestreet/bonsai	524	4 604	3 302
9 janestreet/magic-trace	4 749	1 514	1 656	59 dfinity/motoko	524	19 911	12 429
10 batsh-dev-team/Batsh	4 321	817	470	60 ocaml-batteries-team/batteries-included	522	2 389	1 722
11 bcpierce00/unison	4 271	7 629	6 765	61 oinstall/oinstall	512	4 867	4 531
12 mirage/mirage	2 589	2 414	2 113	62 o1-labs/snarky	499	2 619	2 591
13 comby-tools/comby	2 437	3 311	4 396	63 esumii/min-caml	496	0	0
14 dmtrKovalenko/odiff	2 082	213	295	64 vult-dsp/vult	495	0	0
15 BinaryAnalysisPlatform/bap	2 081	33 081	23 939	65 c-cube/ocaml-containers	495	4 909	2 879
16 MinaProtocol/mina	2 017	33 518	43 954	66 moonbitlang/moonbit-compiler	479	44 354	69 424
17 CatalaLang/catala	2 009	8 148	5 849	67 ocaml-ppx/ppx_deriving	472	847	600
18 mirage/irmin	1 861	12 850	11 584	68 mirage/alcotest	461	733	646
19 airbus-seclab/bincat	1 712	9 422	8 451	69 jrhl3/hol-light	441	0	0
20 ocaml/dune	1 652	41 316	33 463	70 uber/NEAL	428	0	0
21 aantron/dream	1 636	1 997	1 983	71 terrateamio/terrateam	423	700	555
22 ocaml/merlin	1 594	30 272	32 479	72 ocaml-multicore/effects-examples	423	589	362
23 andrejbauer/plzoo	1 464	1 777	627	73 LaurentMazare/ocaml-torch	416	11 276	15 567
24 savonet/liquidsoap	1 459	11 212	13 434	74 FStarLang/karamel	403	5 932	4 768
25 ocaml/opam	1 266	15 261	11 257	75 mazeppa-dev/mazeppa	397	1 362	762
26 owlarn/owl	1 228	27 741	21 150	76 mmmdbbyd/CLNC	393	0	0
27 realworldocaml/book	1 197	139 500	121 636	77 Camilotk/ocaml4noobs	389	7	12
28 gfngfn/SATySFi	1 186	6 183	4 781	78 aantron/lambdasoup	386	569	438
29 austral/austral	1 144	3 804	2 635	79 PataphysicalSociety/soupault	385	1 918	1 389
30 janestreet/core	1 128	9 486	9 811	80 janestreet/incr_dom	385	1 041	1 319
31 moby/vpnkit	1 119	4 972	4 179	81 leostera/minttea	376	569	722
32 leostera/caramel	1 067	19 443	15 671	82 yallop/ocaml-ctypes	375	1 663	1 481
33 ocsgen/js_of_ocaml	971	17 713	13 688	83 mirage/ocaml-git	362	4 492	3 290
34 janestreet/incremental	887	2 027	2 445	84 shentufoundation/deepsea	362	7 024	3 171
35 janestreet/base	879	12 803	9 443	85 oxidizing/sihl	360	1 960	2 639
36 matijapretnar/eff	865	5 583	3 239	86 c-cube/qcheck	358	3 769	2 170
37 melange-re/melange	865	40 875	32 624	87 pqwy/notty	352	1 101	846
38 ocaml-community/utop	852	1 034	662	88 ott-lang/ott	351	0	0
39 ocaml/ocaml-lsp	785	13 278	17 446	89 coq/vscoq	350	1 724	2 324
40 rgrinberg/opium	766	1 115	758	90 xapi-project/xen-api	348	46 432	44 239
41 cs3110/textbook	766	165	78	91 ocaml-labs/vscode-ocaml-platform	345	2 562	2 483
42 ocsgen/lwt	727	3 612	3 251	92 stedolan/malfunction	343	901	433
43 mirage/ocaml-cohttp	717	2 822	2 442	93 mirage/mirage-tcpip	343	2 005	1 800
44 janestreet/hardcaml	681	5 525	5 370	94 teikalang/teika	336	784	793
45 ocaml-multicore/ocaml-effects-tutorial	667	0	0	95 links-lang/links	333	19 702	15 347
46 inhabitedtype/angstrom	662	919	507	96 ocaml-community/yojson	329	250	285
47 Jaredly/reason-language-server	657	64 534	34 977	97 binsec/binsec	329	21 270	17 378
48 ocaml-ppx/ocamlformat	645	10 218	5 983	98 ocaml/odoc	327	15 056	10 771
49 coccinelle/coccinelle	632	1 446	1 395	99 EasyCrypt/easycrypt	327	22 086	18 604
50 andreas/ocaml-graphql-server	621	955	658	100 RedPRL/reddit	204	5 128	3 288

Fig. 3. Non-archived, non-disabled and non-outdated OCaml repos with most stars on GitHub

exclusion of outdated projects. To mitigate validity threats, our tool logs unparsed source files, and we manually examined parsing failures.

After we are able to parse as many source files as possible, we have to collect identifiers from the abstract syntax tree. We do not collect all literal occurrences of identifiers but only binding or defining identifier occurrences. For example, consider the Haskell function from the introduction, where we have colored identifiers that are collected by our tool.

```
primes = filterPrime [2..]
```

where

```
filterPrime (p : xs) =
```

```
p : filterPrime [x | x ← xs, x `mod` p /= 0]
```

To answer research question RQ3 collected identifiers are additionally classified. For example, *primes* is classified as top-level definition, *filterPrime* as a local definition, *p* and *xs* as parameters of a

Repo Name	Stars	Variables	Definitions	Repo Name	Stars	Variables	Definitions
1 sharkdp/insect	3 179	298	194	51 purescript-react/purescript-lumi-components	106	1 169	2 195
2 nammayatri/nammayatri	2 102	30 175	33 491	52 purescript-contrib/purescript-routing	105	127	62
3 sharkdp/cube-composer	2 007	168	177	53 purescript/purescript-quickcheck	104	134	93
4 purescript-halogen/purescript-halogen	1 543	437	716	54 citizenet/purescript-ocelot	103	1 116	1 596
5 purescript/spago	794	2 081	2 162	55 hoodunit/purescript-payload	99	608	635
6 thomashoneyman/purescript-halogen-realworld	792	316	348	56 purescript/registry-dev	97	2 406	1 943
7 ad-si/Transity	638	585	410	57 MonoidMusician/dhall-purescript	96	3 783	1 961
8 JordanMartinez/purescript-jordans-reference	592	687	941	58 hendrikniemann/purescript-graphql	94	313	357
9 purescript-contrib/pulp	445	655	466	59 purescript/purescript-free	94	242	69
10 purescript-contrib/purescript-react	402	181	1 011	60 Plutonomicon/cardano-transaction-lib	93	4 194	3 306
11 paf31/purescript-thermite	348	93	38	61 natefaubion/purescript-tidy	93	695	387
12 adkelley/javascript-to-purescript	304	533	437	62 natefaubion/purescript-routing-duplex	91	179	98
13 easafe/purescript-flame	296	187	1 061	63 natefaubion/purescript-psa	90	72	39
14 purescript-contrib/purescript-aff	286	56	50	64 Kamirus/purescript-selda	89	335	263
15 sharkdp/purescript-flare	286	131	70	65 andys8/type-signature-com	88	117	192
16 purescript-react/purescript-react-basic	283	11	17	66 bodil/purescript-test-unit	87	185	93
17 purescript-hyper/hyper	281	269	200	67 natefaubion/purescript-checked-exceptions	81	2	3
18 purescript-concur/purescript-concur-react	272	87	698	68 f-o-a-m/chanterelle	80	517	422
19 bodil/purescript-signal	260	39	53	69 chrisiehl/home-theater-calculator	79	299	532
20 pure-c/purec	237	993	437	70 purescript/purescript-transformers	70	691	175
21 j-keck/zfs-snap-diff	229	413	488	71 purescript/purescript-record	68	48	26
22 juspay/purescript-presto	228	271	183	72 jonasbuntinx/next-purescript-example	67	28	50
23 aristanetworks/purescript-backend-optimizer	202	3 632	2 042	73 collegevine/purescript-elmish	67	139	109
24 purescript-react/purescript-react-basic-hooks	201	125	93	74 citizenet/purescript-halogen-select	65	55	54
25 JordanMartinez/purescript-cookbook	199	0	0	75 purescript/purescript-foreign	64	35	29
26 nvolerson/purescript-language-server	191	1 588	1 167	76 purescript/purescript-typelevel-prelude	64	5	17
27 nvolerson/vscode-ide-purescript	190	77	57	77 paf31/purescript-foreign-generic	63	78	55
28 citizenet/purescript-httpure	184	106	271	78 yukikurage/purescript-jelly	62	158	271
29 purescript-express/purescript-express	180	344	225	79 f-f/purescript-react-basic-native	60	101	2 818
30 purescript/purescript-prelude	163	368	221	80 purescript-contrib/purescript-matryoshka	59	165	140
31 natefaubion/purescript-run	160	129	124	81 natefaubion/example-functional-compiler	59	732	354
32 purescript-contrib/purescript-parsing	152	582	378	82 mikosol/purescript-ocarina	59	1 472	1 226
33 jonasbuntinx/purescript-react-realworld	145	366	386	83 hdgarrood/multipac	58	675	600
34 purescript-contrib/purescript-profunctor-lenses	144	503	176	84 purescript-halogen/purescript-halogen-vdom	58	266	129
35 mikosol/purescript-deku	144	1 164	5 382	85 sharkdp/purescript-isometric	58	133	99
36 KSF-Media/gitlab-dashboad	139	59	86	86 purescript/purescript-arrays	57	288	267
37 thomashoneyman/purescript-halogen-formless	137	74	87	87 purescript/purescript-lists	57	923	340
38 kritzcreek/pscid	136	108	81	88 purescript/purescript-control	56	18	12
39 purescript-spec/purescript-spec	134	370	208	89 natefaubion/purescript-heterogeneous	56	48	20
40 justinwoo/purescript-simple-json	134	34	45	90 cdparks/lambda-machine	56	605	519
41 restautmatic/purescript-specular	134	607	277	91 purescript-web/purescript-canvas	55	36	64
42 natefaubion/purescript-variant	132	169	182	92 rowtype-yoga/purescript-protobuf	55	1 625	1 257
43 purescript-halogen/purescript-halogen-template	128	3	5	93 f-f/purescript-react-basic-todomvc	54	50	79
44 f-o-a-m/purescript-web3	128	654	392	94 purescript-grain/purescript-grain	36	408	522
45 purescript-contrib/purescript-affjax	123	70	66	95 afcondon/purescript-d3-tagless-II	36	1 112	1 590
46 purescript-python/purescript-python	122	19	22	96 joneshf/purescript-option	36	196	330
47 purescript/trypurescript	120	158	137	97 laurentpayot/purescript-for-elm-developers	36	6	11
48 thomashoneyman/purescript-halogen-hooks	116	138	134	98 purescript-web/purescript-web-dom	34	17	144
49 nvolerson/atom-ide-purescript	115	235	277	99 albertprz/puresheet	25	1 476	1 174
50 purescript-contrib/purescript-css	107	439	578	100 rowtype-yoga/purescript-fetch	25	22	40

Fig. 4. Non-archived, non-disabled, and non-outdated PureScript repositories with most stars on GitHub

local function, and x as do variable⁵. We do not distinguish between constants and functions because it would require type information. For example, while *primes* is syntactically a constant, it is a function, because *filterPrime* is partially applied. Although we could classify definitions with arguments as functions, the remaining definitions could be constants or functions. Type annotations could aid the classification of the remaining definitions, but local definitions often lack them. In Elm 91.2 %, in Haskell 94.8 %, and in PureScript 98.7 % of top-level definitions have type annotations. However, in Elm 13.2 %, in Haskell 11.9 %, and in PureScript 21.5 % of local definitions have type annotations. While in Elm, Haskell, and PureScript typically a type annotation is provided for the entire function, in OCaml argument types and a return type are provided. For OCaml, we count the number of definitions with return type annotations, as these annotations allow the identification of eta-reduced definitions. In OCaml, only 7.4 % of top-level definitions, 6.5 % of

⁵We classify x as do variable because a list comprehension is basically a syntactic variant of a do block using the list monad.

module definitions, and 0.9 % of local definitions have return type annotations. Consequently, even when type annotations are utilized, a significant number of definitions remain ambiguous.

In addition to data collection, we implemented a visualization tool that prints source files to the console with highlighted and annotated collected identifiers. This allowed us to efficiently verify data collection results for randomly selected repositories. For each language, we have examined three randomly chosen repositories, replacing any that contained only a very small number of identifiers to ensure meaningful inspection.

Highlighting identifiers proved unexpectedly challenging. For example, the parser for the Elm did not yield sufficient source code positions in order to highlight all identifiers. Therefore, we have extended the abstract syntax tree and the parser with additional source code positions. In some cases, Haskell's C preprocessor makes it impossible to uniquely determine source code positions. For Haskell and OCaml, we rely on file information from the abstract syntax tree, as the preprocessor inserts line markers that reference the original file. However, some Haskell repositories generate type class instances via preprocessor macros, which lack valid source positions and cannot be highlighted. Finally, some abstract syntax trees still do not provide sufficient source code positions. For instance, in PureScript the source position of a foreign definition references the start of the line and not the start of the identifier. To address these corner cases, our tool lists unhighlighted identifiers, which we manually inspected for all repositories.

As previously noted, we collect only binding or defining identifier occurrences. In rule-based function definitions, the function name is collected only once. For example, consider the following function definition from the Haskell repository PostgREST/postgrest.

```
resolveLogicTree :: ResolverContext → LogicTree → CoercibleLogicTree
resolveLogicTree ctx (Stmnt flt) = CoercibleStmnt $ resolveFilter ctx flt
resolveLogicTree ctx (Expr b op lts) = CoercibleExpr b op (map (resolveLogicTree ctx) lts)
```

While the function name *resolveLogicTree* is collected only once, the variable name *ctx* is collected multiple times, as developers could, in theory, choose different names for the two occurrences of *ctx*. This phenomenon is not restricted to rule-based definitions but occurs in case expressions as well. For example, consider the following example from the Haskell repository *haskell-servant/servant*. Our tool collects the variable name *ex* four times as these identifier occurrences are all binding.

```
unfoldRequestArgument _ errReq errSt mex =
  case (sbool :: SBool (FoldRequired mods), mex, sbool :: SBool (FoldLenient mods)) of
    (STrue, Nothing, _) → errReq
    (SFalse, Nothing, _) → return Nothing
    (STrue, Just ex, STrue) → return ex
    (STrue, Just ex, SFalse) → either errSt return ex
    (SFalse, Just ex, STrue) → return (Just ex)
    (SFalse, Just ex, SFalse) → either errSt (return Just) ex
```

As another example for binding or defining identifier occurrences, we collect record selectors when they are defined and not when they are used. For instance, all analyzed languages support pattern matching on records by using field names. We do not collect the names of these variables because they are determined by the names of the record fields. For example, consider the following Elm code from the repository *wende/elchemy*.

```
parse : String → String → List Statement
parse fileName code =
  case Ast.parse (prepare code) of
```

```

442   Ok (→, statements) →
443     statements
444   Err ((), { input, position }, [ msg ]) →
445     let
446       (line, column) =
447         getLinePosition position code
448     in
449       Debug.crash < |
450         "JERR> Parsing error in:\n "
451         # fileName
452         # ":"
453         # toString line
454         # ":"
455         # toString column
456         # "\n"
457         # msg
458         # "\nat:\n "
459         # (input
460           | > String.lines
461           | > List.take 30
462           | > String.join "\n"
463         )
464         # "\n"
465   err →
466     Debug.crash (toString err)

```

The constructor *Err* takes a triple as argument and the second component of this triple is a record. This record has at least two fields named *input* and *position*. We do not collect the identifiers *input* and *position* because they are record selectors and their names are chosen when defining the corresponding record.

In languages like Elm and PureScript, which provide lightweight record types, our approach may introduce unexpected duplicates or produce fewer record selectors than expected. For instance, consider the following function from the Elm repository `rtfeldman/elm-css`.

```

476 combineLengths :
477   (Float → Float → Float)
478   → { r | numericValue : Float, unitLabel : String, value : String }
479   → { r | numericValue : Float, unitLabel : String, value : String }
480   → { r | numericValue : Float, unitLabel : String, value : String }
481 combineLengths operation firstLength secondLength =
482   let
483     numericValue =
484       operation firstLength.numericValue secondLength.numericValue
485     value =
486       String.fromFloat numericValue # firstLength.unitLabel
487   in
488     { firstLength | value = value, numericValue = numericValue }

```

Type declarations and type annotations determine the defining identifiers of record selectors. As a result, *numericValue*, *unitLabel*, and *value* are collected three times as renaming one requires updating the corresponding record selectors but not necessarily affecting their names in other arguments of *combineLengths*. However, omitting the type signature from *combineLengths* prevents the collection of the names of the record selectors entirely.

Finally, we collect identifiers from type classes in Haskell and PureScript as we consider them to be a fundamental part of these functional programming languages. Since the type class declaration serves as the defining element, we collect the names of definitions within type class declarations but not within type class instances. In contrast, we collect identifiers of parameters of definitions in both type class declarations and instances.

In OCaml, we introduce an additional class of module definitions that contains module-top-level definitions. The scope of these definitions is neither file-top-level nor local. We do not collect definition names from signatures in OCaml. A potentially more appropriate approach would be to collect definition names from signatures while excluding those from modules that implement a signature. However, unlike type classes, modules may contain module-top-level definitions that are not part of the signature. In contrast to definitions, in the case of record selectors, we do not differentiate between module-level and top-level record selectors.

To have greater control over the collected code, we extract the list of source files of a repository from build configuration files rather than indiscriminately collecting all language-specific source files from a repository. This approach is particularly crucial for Haskell, as the language supports various language extensions that must be explicitly passed to the parser. Language extensions can be enabled in the header of a source file or in the build configuration file. Enabling all extensions leads to parse errors in valid Haskell code. In the case of Haskell and OCaml the build configuration files indicate whether preprocessing is required, as both languages provide C preprocessor directives, which have to be processed before parsing the source file.

We focus on production code and exclude code explicitly marked as test code during data collection. Aman et al. [2021] similarly exclude “test programs” but do not specify how test programs are identified. In Haskell and OCaml, we leverage information from the build configuration file to exclude source files from test targets, as well as benchmark targets in Haskell. For Elm and PureScript, we exclude folders that are conventionally used for test code. However, this approach does not eliminate all test-related code, as some repositories include additional build configurations and source files for testing or benchmarking their provided code.

Some repositories in figs. 1 to 4 provide zero or only very few identifiers. To reduce the likelihood of bugs in the data collection, we have manually inspected these repositories. Kalliamvakou et al. [2014] did a study about promises and perils of mining GitHub and observed that “A large portion of repositories are not for software development.” Similarly, the following repositories do not provide software projects but some form of documentation regarding the corresponding programming language, for example, best practices or links in the form of markdown files.

- cultureamp/react-elm-components (Elm)
- jah2488/elm-companies (Elm)
- sporto/elm-patterns (Elm)
- system-f/fp-course (Haskell)
- krispo/awesome-haskell (Haskell)
- haskell-beginners-2022/course-plan (Haskell)
- BartoszMilewski/Publications (Haskell)
- fullstack-development/developers-roadmap (Haskell)
- graninas/software-design-in-haskell (Haskell)

Some of these projects only provide dummy source files without identifiers or they provide some source files with example code but no build configuration file.

Besides repositories that mainly provide information material and not code, the following repositories use a Makefile or a custom script to build the code.

- B-Lang-org/bsc (Haskell)
- JordanMartinez/purescript-cookbook (PureScript)
- ocaml-multicore/ocaml-effects-tutorial (OCaml)
- mahsu/MarioCaml (OCaml)
- esumii/min-caml (OCaml)
- vult-dsp/vult (OCaml)
- jrh13/hol-light (OCaml)
- uber/NEAL (OCaml)
- ott-lang/ott (OCaml)

We are not able to extract the identifiers from these repositories because our collection is based on build configuration files. Makefiles are particularly popular in the OCaml community.

Finally, the repository

- mmmdbbybyd/CLNC (OCaml)

is incorrectly classified as OCaml code. The repository contains a single file with the extension `ml`, which appears to be some sort of configuration file.

The data collection process produces three types of CSV files. First, the data collection produces one CSV file per language where each row contains information about a single repository. For each repository the CSV file contains owner, name, number of stars, and date of the last commit to the default branch in UTC, as well as the URL of the repository. This data is obtained from the GitHub API. Second, after cloning all repositories, another CSV file per language captures the commit hashes of checked-out commits. Third, for each repository a CSV file contains one row for every identifier that was collected from the repository. For every identifier the CSV file lists the path of the source file that contains the identifier, the build configuration file that references the source file, the source position in the form of line and column of the identifier, and a classification of the identifier, for example, *Definition TopLevel*, *Definition Local*, *Do*, *Case*, *Lambda*, *Parameter* (*FunctionParameter TopLevel*), etc.

3.2 Data Analysis

Because we are interested in the length of identifiers, we might ask ourself, what the length of an identifier is. Most related work defines the length of an identifier as the number of characters. However, Feitelson et al. [2022], for example, present a histogram of identifier length and ignore underscores that separate words when calculating the length. In our opinion this approach is very reasonable. For example, in a language with underscore identifiers, the number of characters is also effected by the number of hard words if we count the underscores as well.

To assess the impact of non-alphabetic characters on identifier length, we have counted the number of identifiers that contain non-alphabetic characters. We distinguish between identifiers that contain only underscores and those where at least one non-alphabetic character is not an underscore. ?? presents the results for Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript.

Haskell has a considerable number, and OCaml a large number of identifiers in which all non-alphabetic characters are underscores. This is expected for OCaml, which favors underscore case, while the other languages prefer camel case. In Haskell the considerable number is mainly due to *diku-dk/futhark*, which mixes camel and underscore case. In OCaml the proportion of identifiers with only underscores increases with length.

This observation aligns with findings of Aman et al. [2021] and Feitelson [2023], who observed that Java developers tend to avoid long words. If OCaml developers exhibit a similar tendency, longer identifiers are more likely to consist of multiple words and, therefore, have a higher probability of containing at least one underscore. Figure 5 also shows that variable names containing at least one non-underscore non-alphabetic character are rare, with the exception of names of length two. Definition names show a similar distribution as variable names, while the percentage of identifiers

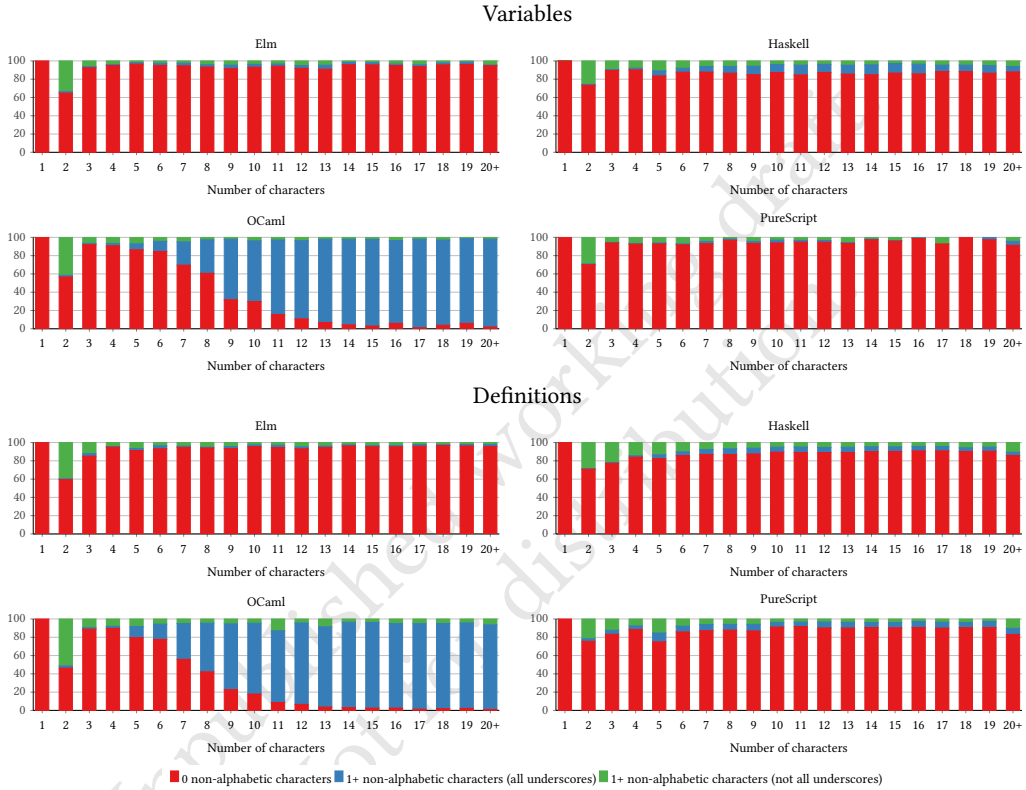


Fig. 5. Percentages of names with non-alphabetic characters

containing non-alphabetic characters is slightly higher. In all languages we observe that for length two a comparatively high percentage are identifiers with non-alphabetic characters that are not all underscores. In Haskell, Elm, OCaml, and PureScript identifiers like x_1 , x_2 , and x' or x_* are used to construct “another x ”. This phenomenon is also known in the literature, for example, Aman et al. [2021] observed that Java programs use “numbered” identifiers like x_2 , Peruma [2022] calls a name composed with a number at the end *Distinguisher*, while Gresta et al. [2023] call it *Kings*. As identifiers like x , x_1 , x_2 , x' , and x_* almost convey the same semantic information, they may belong to the same equivalence class.

To account for variations in non-alphabetic characters across languages and identifier lengths, we adopt a refined definition of identifier length. Besides identifiers that end with a number Peruma [2022] provides four other categories of identifiers that contain digits, namely, *Synonym*, *Version Number*, *Specification*, and *Domain/Technology*. In all these cases the digits are an integral part of the identifier and should contribute to the length. For instance, the 2 in the identifier `_offset2bag` from

the Haskell repository `hasktorch/hasktorch` is classified as *Synonym* and is an integral part of the identifier. To account for numbered identifiers, we remove trailing digits before measuring the length. This approach is an approximation, for example, we assign length three to the identifier `ipV4` from the Haskell repository `IntersectMBO/cardano-node` although the digit is an integral part of the identifier. To account for identifiers like `x'`, `x_` and underscore case identifiers, we remove all non-alphanumeric characters. However, if we remove all non-alphanumeric characters from an identifier, there are identifiers that have length zero, for instance, names like `_1`. While the amount of these identifiers is very small, we decided to take the number of characters if all characters are non-alphabetic and remove all non-alphanumeric characters otherwise.

In summary the length of an identifier is the number of characters if all characters are non-alphabetic. Otherwise we remove trailing digits and count the number of alphanumeric characters. This refined definition prevents direct comparison with prior studies, which typically use the number of characters. However, we opted for this approach as character-based length measurement seems inadequate when comparing underscore with camel case identifiers.

The data analysis is performed by an additional Haskell program that processes the CSV file containing all repositories for a given language. From the name of the repository the name of the CSV file is derived that contains all identifiers in that repository. It derives the corresponding CSV file for each repository to extract identifier data. The program produces CSV files with aggregated statistics, such as identifier length distributions that were used to produce this document. Aggregated data is generated both per language and per repository. The per-repository data helps identify threats to validity, such as repositories with a high number of generated identifiers.

4 Threats to Validity

This section discusses threats to validity based on the guidelines of Petersen and Gencel [2013]. Following a pragmatist perspective, we address internal validity, external validity, construct validity, and reliability.

4.1 Internal Validity

Internal validity concerns factors that might affect the results but are not considered. We examine the relationship between projects in statically-typed functional programming languages and identifier length. While Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript are all statically-typed functional programming languages, Elm and PureScript are translated to JavaScript and mainly used for frontend web development. Therefore, the application area of the language might affect the length of identifiers. We reduce this threat by considering two frontend programming languages and two general-purpose programming languages.

Elm uses the model-view-update (MVU) architecture. In this architecture, there are functions called `init`, `view`, and `update` and parameters called `model` and `msg`. While developers are free to use different names for `init`, `view`, `update`, `model`, and `msg`, we expect many projects to follow this convention. To mitigate the threat that the length distribution in Elm is distorted by many occurrences of these names we put them into their own class to visualize their effect. Additionally, we analyze the most common identifiers for all languages to mitigate the threat that distributions are distorted by some other default naming pattern.

While Elm and PureScript target frontend development, Elm, Haskell, and PureScript are also pure functional programming languages. To mitigate the threat that purity affects the identifier length, we include OCaml, a non-pure functional programming language. OCaml differs from the other languages in many aspects, for example, it is a hybrid language as it also provides object-oriented programming features. Since we focus on functional programming, we exclude names and parameters of methods, classes and constructors in our analysis. However, we include identifiers

from case expressions, lambda expressions, and let definitions, even when used in object-oriented features.

Finally, other factors correlated with the programming language may influence identifier length. For instance, some languages may be used by more experienced developers, and experience might affect naming habits. This threat remains open as we do not collect any additional metadata about the source code.

4.2 External Validity

Transferability or external validity is concerned with the aspect whether our results can be generalized. Since we examine the relationship between statically-typed functional programming languages and identifier length, analyzing a single language could limit generalizability. To reduce this threat, we include four statically-typed functional programming languages.

Our results, based on non-archived, non-disabled, and non-outdated repositories with the most stars, may not generalize to active, mature projects. This threat remains open. Munaiah et al. [2016] found that using stars to identify engineered software projects has a high precision but a low recall. That is, almost all repositories with many stars are engineered software projects. However, many engineered software projects do not have many stars. Thus, selecting repositories by star count may capture only a specific subset of engineered software projects.

Finally, there is a threat that the collected data represents the naming style of a specific repository or a subset of developers rather than the naming style of the entire language. To reduce this threat, we manually inspected the data and excluded one repository with an unusually high number of identifiers. However, the threat that the collected data represents a subset of developers remains open. For instance, our PureScript repositories stem from only 51 owners. While an owner does not necessarily contribute most code to a repository or the owner might even be an organization, to reduce this threat we would have to collect additional metadata about the code, for example, which users contributed to a repository.

4.3 Construct Validity

Construct validity is concerned with the question whether we have actually measured the aspect that we intended to measure. Various technical factors pose threats to construct validity, such as collecting duplicate identifiers. For instance, Elm repositories often include demonstration projects that explicitly reference library directories. To address this, we remove duplicate source file directories. In general the tool for highlighting identifiers mitigates the threat that we collect the same code multiple times as the tool is not able to highlight an identifier twice. We applied this tool to all repositories and it reported only a few errors, primarily due to uses of the C preprocessor where it is impossible to highlight the identifier.

Another threat is collecting identical identifiers multiple times due to repositories containing code from other repositories. For instance, `ucsd-progsys/liquidhaskell` contains Haskell's base, containers, text, vector and xmonad library as benchmark. This threat remains open, as we did not implement measures to detect duplicate code across repositories.

There is a threat that the collected identifiers do not reflect the naming style of functional developers due to the inclusion of large amounts of generated code. Since we process build configuration files but do not actually build the project, no code is generated that is generated as part of the build process. However, some generated code is put under version control. We reduce this threat by manually inspecting the length distributions of all 400 repositories (section A). We have excluded five repositories because they contain a significant amount of generated code.

Finally, the implementation of the data collection might contain bugs. To reduce this threat we have randomly sampled three repositories per language. For each language we have manually

inspected the highlighted identifiers. However, the threat of potential bugs in the data analysis code remains open.

5 Data Exclusion

We have excluded five repositories from the data analysis due to significant amounts of generated code: dillonkearns/elm-graphql (Elm), github/semantic (Haskell), hasktorch/hasktorch (Haskell), rowtype-yoga/purescript-protobuf (PureScript), moonbitlang/moonbit-compiler (OCaml), and ocaml/merlin

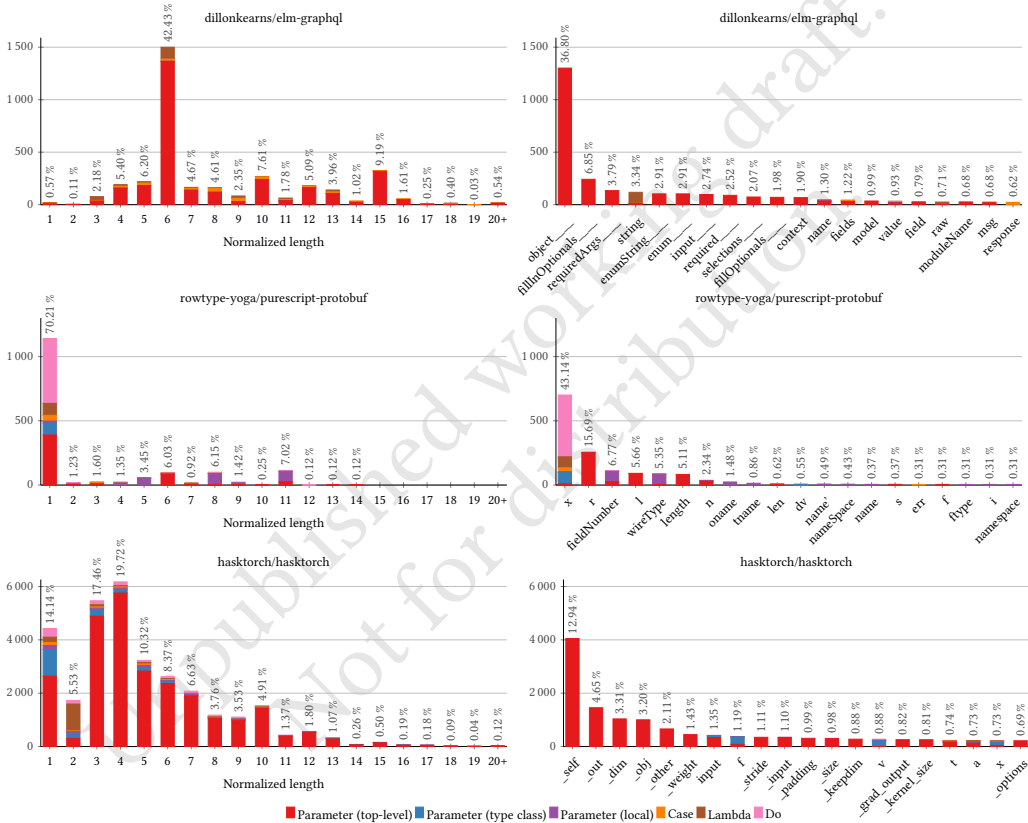


Fig. 6. Length of variable names and most common variable names

Figure 6 shows that in dillonkearns/elm-graphql more than 36 % of all variables are named `object_____`. In rowtype-yoga/purescript-protobuf more than 44 % of all variables are named `x` and a large part of these variables are defined in `do` statements. The corresponding code shows quite repetitive patterns and these source files often begin with comments indicating they were generated. In hasktorch/hasktorch the variables prefixed with an underscore such as `_self` appear in files that begin with comments indicating they were generated.

Figure 7 shows that more than 50 % of definitions in github/semantic are local definitions of length two. An inspection of the collected identifiers revealed that these are almost exclusively of

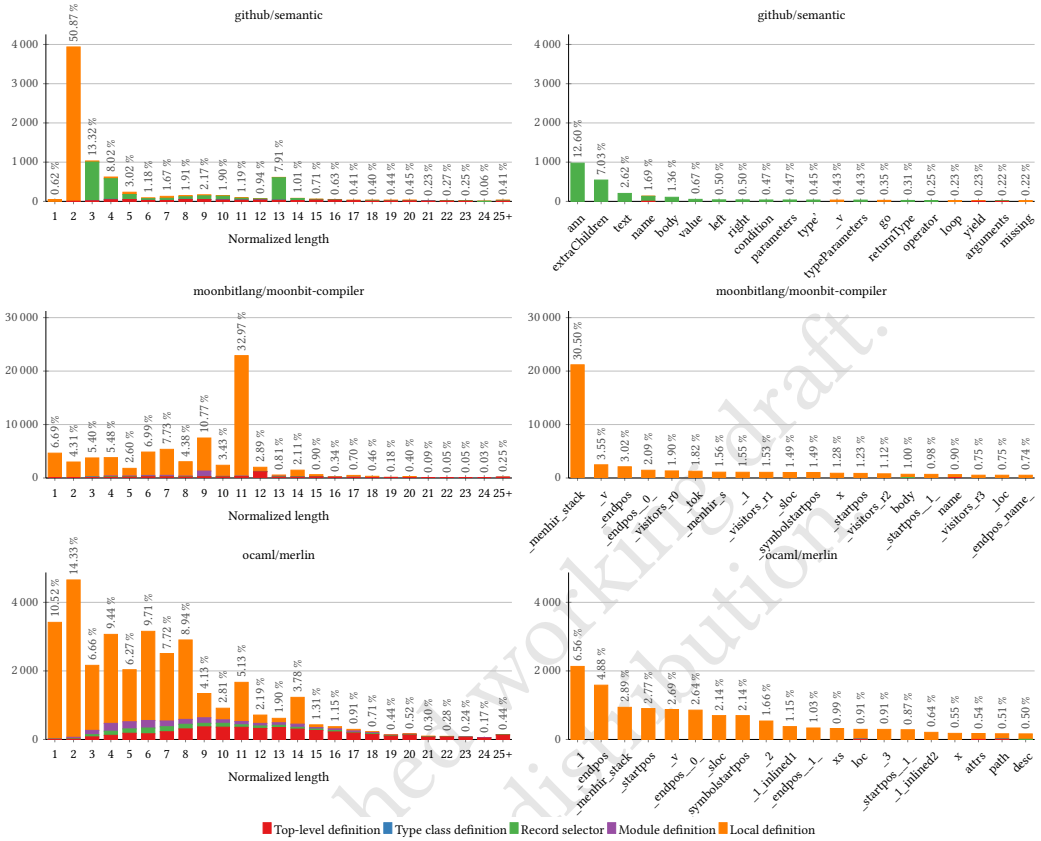


Fig. 7. Length of definition names and most common definition names

the form $c1_{<number>}$, $c2_{<number>}$, $r1_{<number>}$, and $r2_{<number>}$, where $<number>$ is replaced by some arbitrary number. Our metric classifies these names as length two. In moonbitlang/moonbit-compiler almost 30 % of definitions are named `_menhir_stack`, indicating that the code is generated by the Menhir parser generator. In ocaml/merlin only 4 % of the definitions are called `_menhir_stack`. However, we still exclude this repository as all identifiers that start with an underscore are from generated code and their amount approximately sums to 25 % of all definition identifiers.

Finally, we have excluded the repository nammayatri/nammayatri (PureScript) to prevent it from disproportionately influencing the results. This repository contributes 63 666 identifiers, while the remaining 99 PureScript repositories provide 98 739 identifiers (fig. 4), meaning it accounts for more than 38 % of all PureScript identifiers. Additionally, the variable length distribution of nammayatri/nammayatri differs substantially from the distribution of the rest of the PureScript repositories.

6 Results

This section discusses the results of our case study. As mentioned before we distinguish two categories of identifiers: variables and definitions. Variables include identifiers introduced through pattern matching in function parameters, case expressions, lambda parameters, and do notation.

Definitions include top-level, module-top-level, and local function and constant definitions, as well as record selectors.

We first analyze the distribution of syntactic classes (fig. 8). Haskell and PureScript provide type

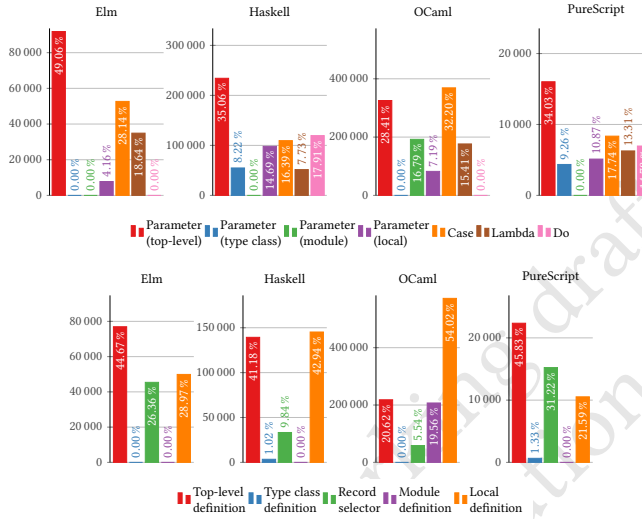


Fig. 8. Percentages of syntactic identifier classes for variables (top) and definitions (bottom)

classes, do notation, and rule-based pattern matching, while Elm and OCaml lack these features. Consequently, Haskell and PureScript exhibit similar distributions for variables, as do Elm and OCaml. Elm has a similar number of top-level definitions as OCaml has top-level and module definitions combined. For definitions, Elm and PureScript have a higher proportion of record selectors and a lower proportion of local definitions. Similarly, the category of top-level definitions in other languages is divided into top-level and module definitions in OCaml.

Additionally, OCaml exhibits a notably high proportion of local definitions. We hypothesize that this results from the sequencing of side effects using local constants.

The number of type class definitions is relatively small, as we collect definition names only from type class declarations and not from instances. If we were to include definition names from both type class declarations and instances, the proportion of names in type classes would be approximately 10 % in Haskell and PureScript. This suggests that a significant number of duplicate names would be collected.

Furthermore, we observe that the number of parameters in local functions is quite small relative to the number of local definitions. This indicates that either local functions have fewer parameters than top-level functions or that local constants outnumber top-level constants.

6.1 What length do identifiers have?

To address RQ1, we examine fig. 9, which presents histograms of the normalized length of variable names in Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript. Section 3.2 defines how the normalized length of an identifier is calculated. The stacked bars represent different syntactic classes, but for RQ1 we focus on the total number of identifiers per length and ignore syntactic classes for now. The percentage at the top of each stack is the percentage of identifiers with the corresponding length in relation to the total number of variables/definitions. To enhance comparability, all diagrams are scaled to 40 %.

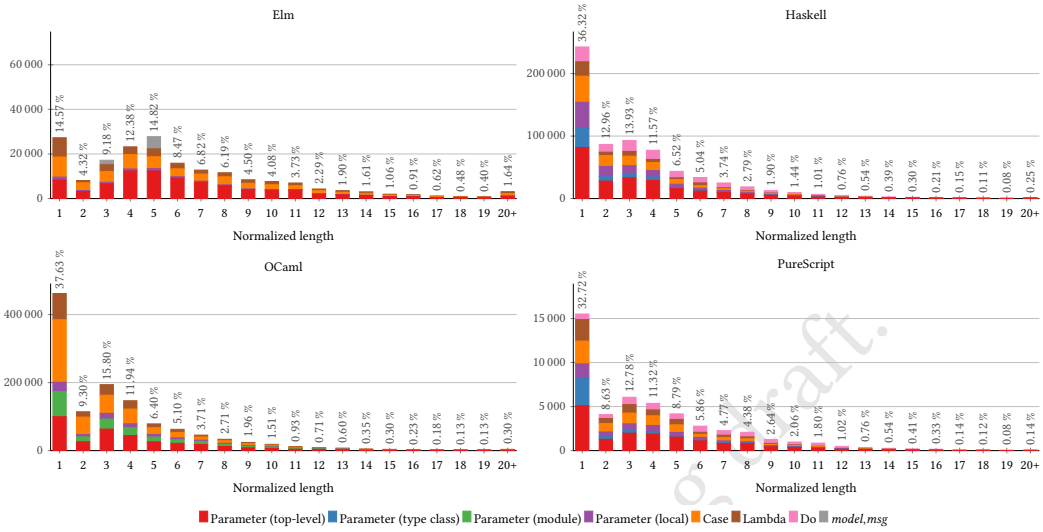


Fig. 9. Length of variable names in Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript

In Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript, more than 30 % of all variables use single-letter names. In contrast, in Elm fewer than 15 % of all variables use single-letter names. Feitelson [2023] observes that the length distribution of variable names in Java is bi-modal. The distributions of variable name length in fig. 9 are bi-modal as well. The first mode corresponds to single-letter variable names, while the second mode peaks at length five in Elm and at length three in Haskell, PureScript and OCaml. In Elm we have introduced a separate class for variables named *model* and *msg*. A substantial number of variable names fall into this class, for instance, the number of variables named *model* is comparable to the number of other variables of length five introduced in case expressions. However, the prevalence of *model* and *msg* alone does not fully account for the differences between Elm and the other languages.

Comparing results across programming languages requires caution. As noted in section 3.2 comparing numbers of characters might be misleading when comparing a language with camel case identifiers with a language with underscore identifiers. Additionally, identifier counts vary significantly: we have extracted 190 764 variable identifiers for Elm, 702 879 for Haskell, 1 220 356 for OCaml, and 78 891 for PureScript. A small number of total identifiers increases the risk that a single repository strongly influences the distribution. For example, as discussed in section 4.3 we have excluded the PureScript repository *nammayatri/nammayatri*. It contributes 30 175 variable identifiers, while all other 99 PureScript repositories contribute 48 716 variable identifiers. Figure 10 presents the length distribution of variable names as well as the list of most common variable names in *nammayatri/nammayatri*. To improve comparability, these distributions are again scaled to 40 %. Unlike other PureScript repositories, where more than 30 % of variables have single-letter names, this repository has fewer than 15 %. Almost all single-letter variables are named *a* and are almost exclusively used in lambda expressions. The variable name *state* is very frequent and is almost exclusively used in parameters of top-level functions. We suspect that the PureScript application in *nammayatri/nammayatri* uses a model-view-update architecture. While Elm uses the names *model* and *msg*, in other languages the names *state* and *action* is preferred in the context of an

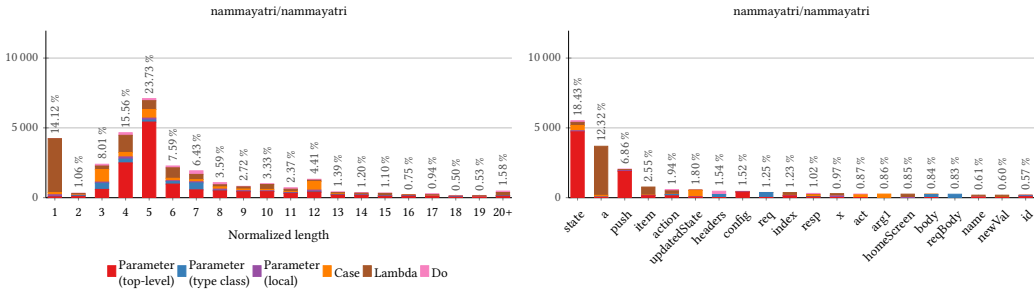


Fig. 10. Length of variable names and most common variable names in nammayatri/nammayatri

MVU architecture. However, the reasons for the other unusual naming patterns in this repository remain unclear.

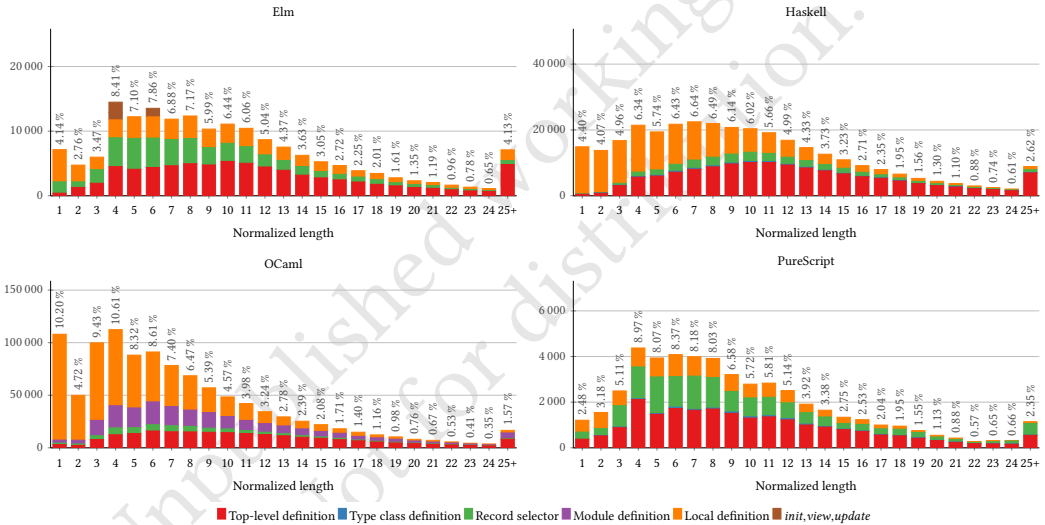


Fig. 11. Length of definition names in Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript

Figure 11 presents a histogram of identifier length for definitions. As before, we focus on the total number of identifiers per length and ignore syntactic classes for now. The distribution of definition names differs significantly from that of variable names. Notably, Elm's distribution does not stand out as it did for variables. Overall, definition names tend to be longer than variable names. The mode of the distribution is four for Elm, OCaml, and PureScript, while it is seven for Haskell. In Elm we highlight definitions named *init*, *view*, or *update*. Finally, in Elm, Haskell, and in particular in OCaml, there is a noticeable increase in single-letter definition names compared to two letter names.

6.2 Does the length of identifiers differ for different languages?

Figure 9 shows that Elm has fewer single-letter variables compared to Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript. Additionally, the mode of non-single-letter variable lengths in Elm is five, whereas it is three

in Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript. Figure 12 further supports these observations with average length of identifier categories (variables and definitions) as well as of syntactic classes. In Elm

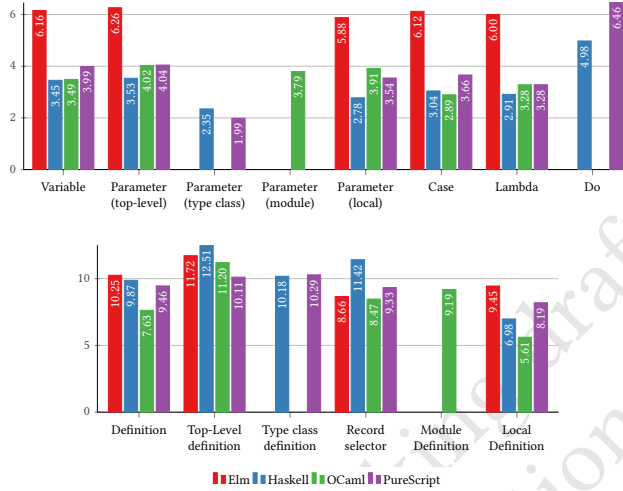


Fig. 12. Average normalized lengths of variable names (top) and definition names (bottom)

variable names have an average length of 6.16, while the average length of all other languages is below 4. The picture for specific classes, that is, parameters, case, and lambda expressions is similar.

In contrast the average length of definition names in Elm is not significantly larger than the average length in Haskell, OCaml, or PureScript. OCaml definitions are the shortest, as also observed in fig. 11. As we can see here, this is primarily due to shorter local definitions. However, fig. 11 suggests that this effect is largely driven by the high number of single-letter names of local definitions in OCaml. We suspect that this results from the use of single-letter names in local constants, though it remains unclear why this effect is much stronger in OCaml than in Elm and Haskell and is absent in PureScript.

6.3 Does the length of identifiers differ for different classes of identifiers?

In all languages, variable names are on average shorter than definition names. The distributions in fig. 9 and fig. 11 are also quite different. While variables contain more single-letter names than definitions, there are more longer definition names than there are variable names. Additionally, on average local definitions are shorter than top-level definitions as shown in fig. 11. In OCaml, the average length of module definitions is between the average length of top-level and local definitions. The distributions of local and top-level definitions also differ: very short names are rare among top-level definition names and record selectors but more common in local definition names, particularly in OCaml and Haskell. This effect is much smaller in Elm and PureScript.

The average length of parameters of type class functions in Haskell (2.35) and PureScript (1.97) is shorter than that of parameters of top-level functions in Haskell (3.53) and PureScript (4.05). Figure 9 shows that parameters of type class functions contain particularly many single-letter names compared to other identifier classes. In contrast, on average variables in do notation in Haskell (4.98) and PureScript (6.48) are longer than other variable classes. There is no significant difference between average length of other syntactic classes, that is, top-level parameters, local parameters, case, and lambda.

Finally, the mode of the distribution of parameters of top-level functions in Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript is one, whereas it is five in Elm (fig. 9). This suggests that Elm developers adhere to the official style guide's recommendation to avoid single-letter names in top-level function parameters.

6.4 Which identifiers are used most often?

Figure 13 presents the 20 most common variable names in Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript. These names are not normalized, meaning their frequencies reflect exact occurrences. The percentage at the top of the stack is the percentage of identifiers with the corresponding name in relation to the total number of variables/definitions. The number in parentheses is the number of repositories that contain this name.

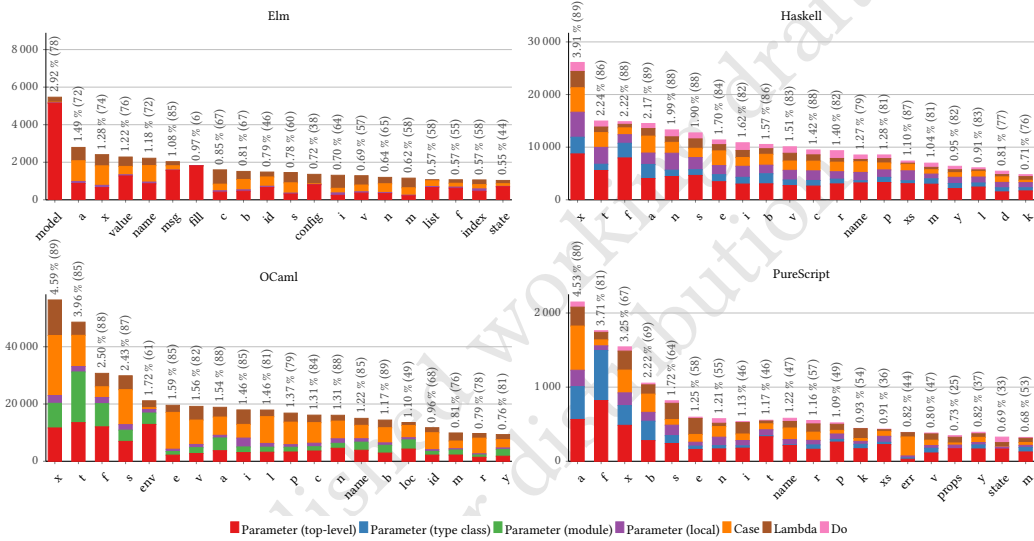


Fig. 13. Most common variables in Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript

In Elm the most common variable names are dominated by full words like *model*, *value*, and *name*, whereas in Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript they are dominated by single-letter names. The lengths of the most common names align with the modes observed in fig. 9. The full-word *name* is the only non-single-letter name that appears in the 20 most common variable names of all four languages.

The variable name *x* is prevalent in all languages. Although the frequency of variables named *x* is lower in Elm compared to other languages, it still ranks third in the most common variable names. Additionally, *x* is not only frequently used but also used in many repositories, for example, in Elm *x* appears in 74 distinct repositories. While we expected the name *xs* to be widely used for lists, it only appears among the 20 most common variable names in Haskell and PureScript. Additionally, the pattern of naming the head of a list *x* and its tail *xs* likely account for only a small portion of the occurrences of *x*, as 3.91 % of all variable names are *x*, while only 1.10 % of all variable names are *xs*.

The variable name *f* ranks among the top three most common variable names in Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript but appears only in position 18 in Elm. In all languages *f* is primarily used in parameters and rarely in case expressions. Similarly, the names *model*, *msg*, *state*, and *env* are more frequently used as parameters than in case expressions, lambda expressions or do notation.

Figure 13 confirms that the Haskell definition from haskell.org (section 1) is actually a well-chosen representative of naming conventions in Haskell. The variable name *x* is the most common variable name and the names *p* and *xs* are among the twenty most common variable names in Haskell. Even the PureScript definition from purescript.org (section 1) is properly chosen as *name* appears in the 20 most common variable names, although, a single-letter variable name would better reflect PureScript's naming conventions.

Figure 14 presents the 20 most common definition names in Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript. Notably, there is less consensus on the naming of definitions than on the naming of variables. In all

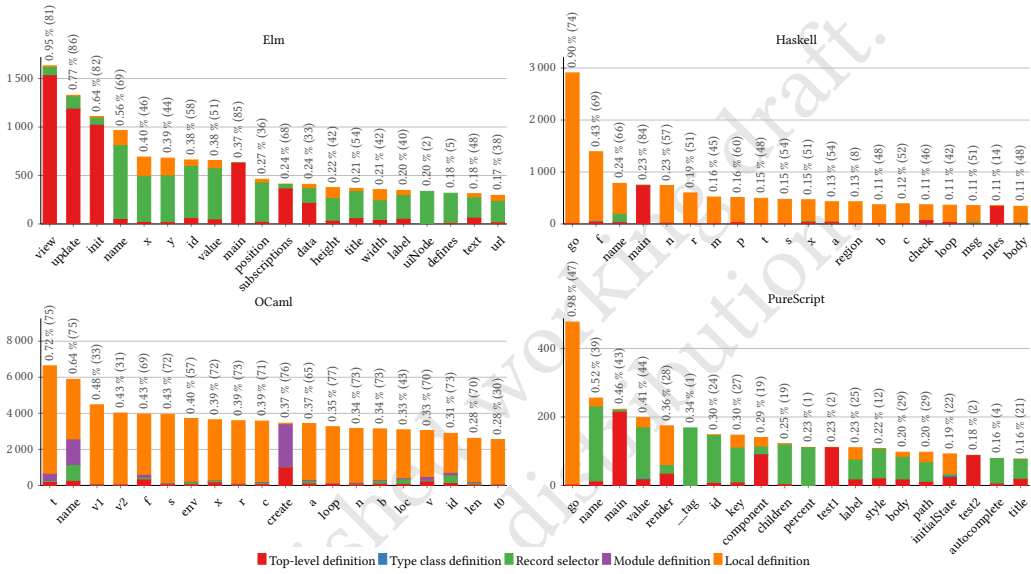


Fig. 14. Most common definitions in Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript

languages the most common definition name accounts for fewer than 1% of all definitions, whereas the most common variable name accounts for 3% to 4% of all variable names.

In Elm, only two of the most common definition names are single-letter names, while PureScript has none. The names *x* and *y* in Elm are primarily used for record selectors, with nearly identical proportions. This suggests that definition names *x* and *y* in Elm are primarily used to store coordinate components. It is unlikely, that observation extends to other languages, as *x* is significantly more frequently than *y* for both variable and definition names.

In contrast to Elm, in Haskell and OCaml, many of the most common definition names are single-letter names. For instance, in Haskell, the second most common definition name is *f*, which is mostly used in local definitions. To illustrate the use of this identifier consider the following code taken from the Haskell repository [fosskers/aura](https://github.com/fosskers/aura).

```
fetchTarball :: NonEmpty PkgName → RIO Env ()
fetchTarball ps = do
  ss ← asks settings
  traverse_ (liftIO.g ss) ps
  where
    f :: PkgName → String
```



```

1128 f (PkgName p) =
1129     "https://aur.archlinux.org/cgit/aur.git/snapshot/" <> T.unpack p <> ".tar.gz"
1130
1131 g :: Settings → PkgName → IO ()
1132 g ss p@(PkgName pn) = urlContents (managerOf ss) (f p) ⋈ λcase
1133     Nothing → warn ss $ missingPkg_5 p
1134     Just bs → writeFileBinary (T.unpack pn <> ".tar.gz") bs
1135

```

Unlike variable names, the most common definition names are each dominated by a single syntactic class. This suggests a consensus in naming conventions, where specific names are used for specific classes of definition identifiers. Among the most common definition names, those primarily appearing as top-level definitions are associated with the model-view-update architecture (*view*, *update*, *init*, and *subscriptions*) or correspond to *main* – which is a mandatory name of the main entry of Elm, Haskell, and PureScript programs.

In Elm and PureScript, the most common definition names are primarily record selectors, while in Haskell and OCaml, they are primarily local function names. However, Elm and PureScript have more top-level definition names than record selectors overall (fig. 8) and the total number of local definition names is comparable to that of record selectors. This suggests a higher degree of naming consensus for record selectors in Elm and PureScript compared to top-level and local function definitions. In Haskell, the number of local definitions and top-level definitions are approximately equal, indicating a higher degree of consensus in naming local definitions compared to top-level definitions.

Finally, in Haskell and PureScript, local functions are often named *go*. This convention is nearly as prevalent as the use of *view*, *update*, and *init* in the model-view-update architecture. This is notable since the model-view-update architecture – and its associated naming conventions – are very prominent in Elm’s official documentation, whereas we are not aware of a similar official guidance for the use of *go* in Haskell.

7 Conclusion

This exploratory case study analyzed naming patterns in statically-typed functional programming languages by examining 3 830 575 identifiers from 400 GitHub repositories that use Elm, Haskell, OCaml, or PureScript. Our analysis primarily focuses on identifier length and common naming conventions.

As a preliminary observation, we found that non-underscore, non-alphabetic characters are rarely used in identifier names, with two notable exceptions. First, some names contain only underscores as non-alphabetic characters, with OCaml in particular making use of underscore case. Second, between 21 % and 53 % of two-character names contain non-alphabetic characters that are not underscores. Across all languages, the proportion of names with non-alphabetic characters (excluding those composed entirely of underscores) is highest for names of length two. Based on these observations, we adopted a revised notion of identifier length that excludes trailing digits and non-alphanumeric characters.

As a second preliminary observation, we found that a majority of top-level definitions (91.2 % in Elm, 94.8 % in Haskell, and 98.7 % in PureScript) have type annotations. In contrast, type annotations are significantly less common in local definitions (13.2 % in Elm, 11.9 % in Haskell, and 21.5 % in PureScript). Notably, the use of type annotations is less common in OCaml, only 7.4 % of top-level definitions, 6.5 % of module definitions, and 0.9 % of local definitions have return type annotations.

Our analysis of variable naming conventions reveals significant differences across the examined languages. Specifically, variable names in Elm tend to be longer on average compared to variable names in Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript. The naming conventions among Haskell, OCaml, and

PureScript exhibit greater similarity in terms of length and the use of single-letter names. Single-letter variable names account for over 30 % of names in Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript, while in Elm, their usage is significantly lower (below 15 %). The less widespread use of single-letter names is also observed in the most common variable names: while single-letter names dominate in Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript, full-word names are more common in Elm. The reduced prevalence of single-letter variable names in Elm aligns with its official style guide, marking a notable difference from Haskell despite their syntactic similarities.

Unlike the clear trends in variable naming, definition naming conventions show no uniform pattern across Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript. In all cases, local definition names tend to be shorter than those of other definition categories. The distributions of local and top-level definitions also differ: very short names are rare among top-level definition names and record selectors but more common in local definition names, particularly in OCaml and Haskell. On average, local definition names in Elm are longer than those in Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript, while OCaml has the shortest local definition names and the highest proportion of single-letter names in local definitions. For other classes of definition names, no language demonstrates a particularly distinctive naming pattern.

The most recurring name in variable names across all languages is *x*. While *x* is the most common name in Haskell and OCaml, it has rank three in Elm and PureScript. In Elm the variable name *model* from the model-view-architecture naming pattern is most common, while in PureScript the name *a* is most common. The name *f* is very common in Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript but not in Elm. In Elm the most common definition names are dominated by names from the model-view-architecture naming conventions. Otherwise *name* is the only name that occurs in the most common definition names of all four languages. In Haskell and PureScript the most common definition name is *go*, which is used for local definitions while in OCaml the most common definition name is *t*.

Our data suggests that there is less consensus on naming definitions across languages than there is for variables. However, there seem to be naming conventions, where specific names are used for specific classes of definition identifiers. For example, the name *go* is used for local definitions and *name* is mainly used for record selectors. In the most common definition names in Elm and PureScript record selectors are overrepresented, which suggests, that there is more consensus in these languages in naming record selector than in naming top-level definitions, which are more common in these languages.

A limitation of our study is the lack of distinction between constants and functions in our dataset. We hypothesize that a significant proportion of short local definitions correspond to constants and that their length distribution is more similar to that of variables. However, without applying type inference, we are unable to make a precise distinction between local functions and constants.

8 Future Work

There are three main directions for future work. The first direction is the replication of existing studies. While numerous studies analyze naming practices in existing code, few replicate findings or unify results. Our inspection of supplementary materials revealed several issues, including missing source code references (such as positions or even file names), missing collection dates (which hinder exact replication), unspecified versions of external tools, and incomplete datasets (e.g., entirely missing identifier classes). Therefore, an initial step could be to evaluate the replicability of existing studies and address these issues systematically.

The second direction of future work involves collecting additional data on identifiers in functional programming languages. For instance, incorporating a language such as F# could help verify findings across a broader set of languages. Additionally, we suspect that types influence naming patterns. From our experience, functional programming languages exhibit specific naming conventions

for functional types, optional types, error types, and list types. Additionally, while the variable name x is common in Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript, it is unclear whether it is used consistently across all types or follows specific conventions. Similarly, we suspect that in PureScript, the variable name a often corresponds to a value of a polymorphic type using the type variable a . Type information would also facilitate distinguishing between constants and functions, thereby improving our understanding of definition name distributions. In particular in the case of OCaml, this would allow us to reduce the effect of local constants do to sequencing of side effects.

However, analyzing identifier types poses challenges in languages with type inference, such as Elm, Haskell, OCaml, and PureScript. Relying solely on type annotations is insufficient, as, for instance, only 11.9 % of local definitions in Haskell and even only 7.4 % of top-level definitions in OCaml provide explicit type annotations. Thus, type inference would be required, which necessitates resolving project dependencies.

The third direction of future work involves adapting our tool for use in other empirical studies on statically-typed functional programming languages. Our tooling already supports processing abstract syntax trees from projects written in four functional programming languages. This infrastructure could be leveraged to investigate aspects beyond naming, such as the usage of common language features. Additionally, we could extend our tool to compute code metrics for functional languages. For example, prior work [Kamps et al. 2020] has analyzed metrics such as intra-modular complexity, inter-modular complexity, and module size, correlating them with post-release defects.

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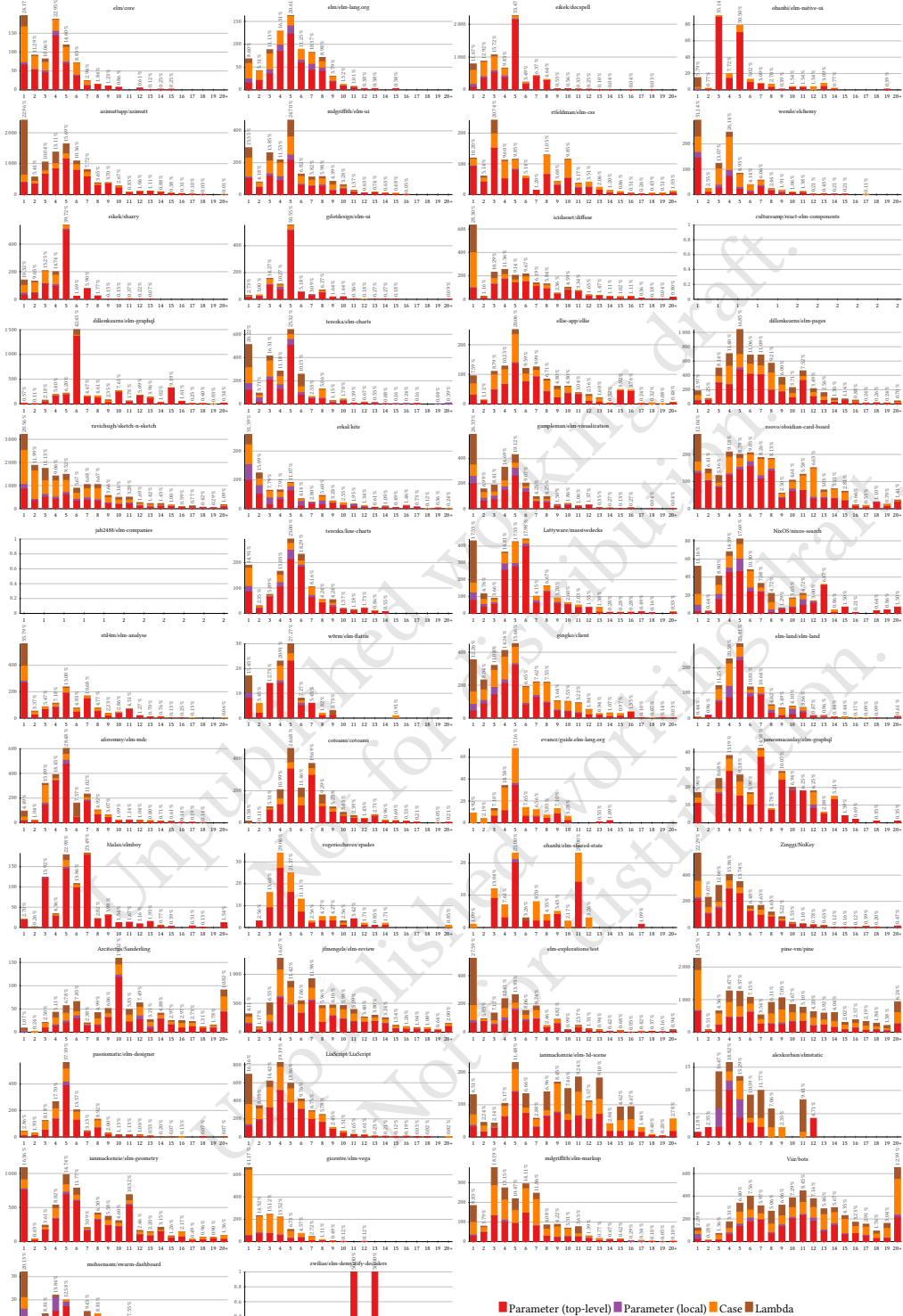
A Appendix

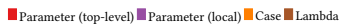
This appendix presents repository specific distributions of name length. In all cases the x-axis displays normalized length. In contrast to the diagrams in section 6, here they are not scaled to a common maximum.

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A.1 Variable Name Length in Elm

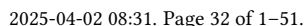


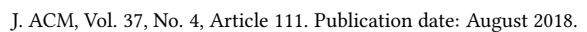


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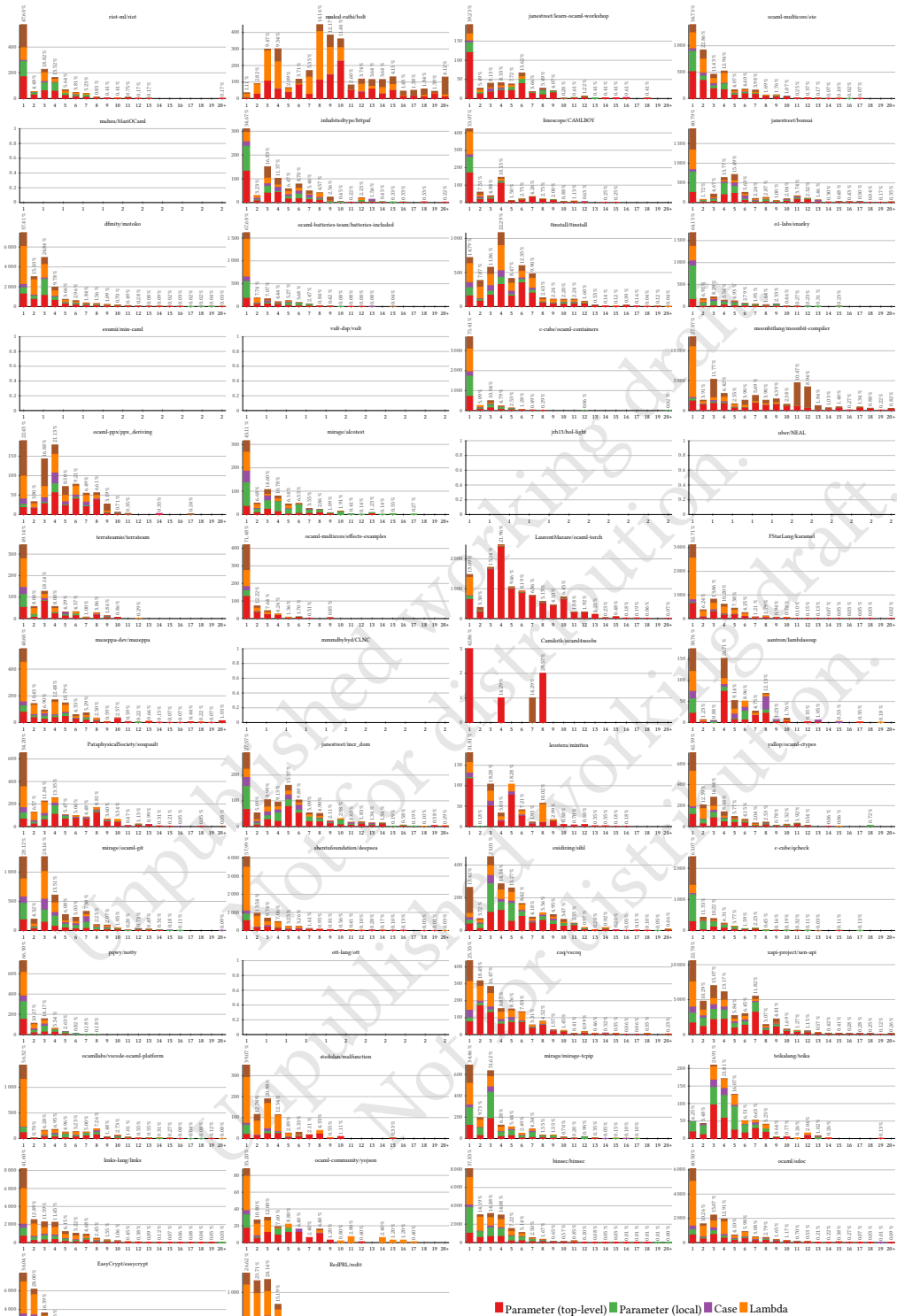


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A.3 Variable Name Length in OCaml

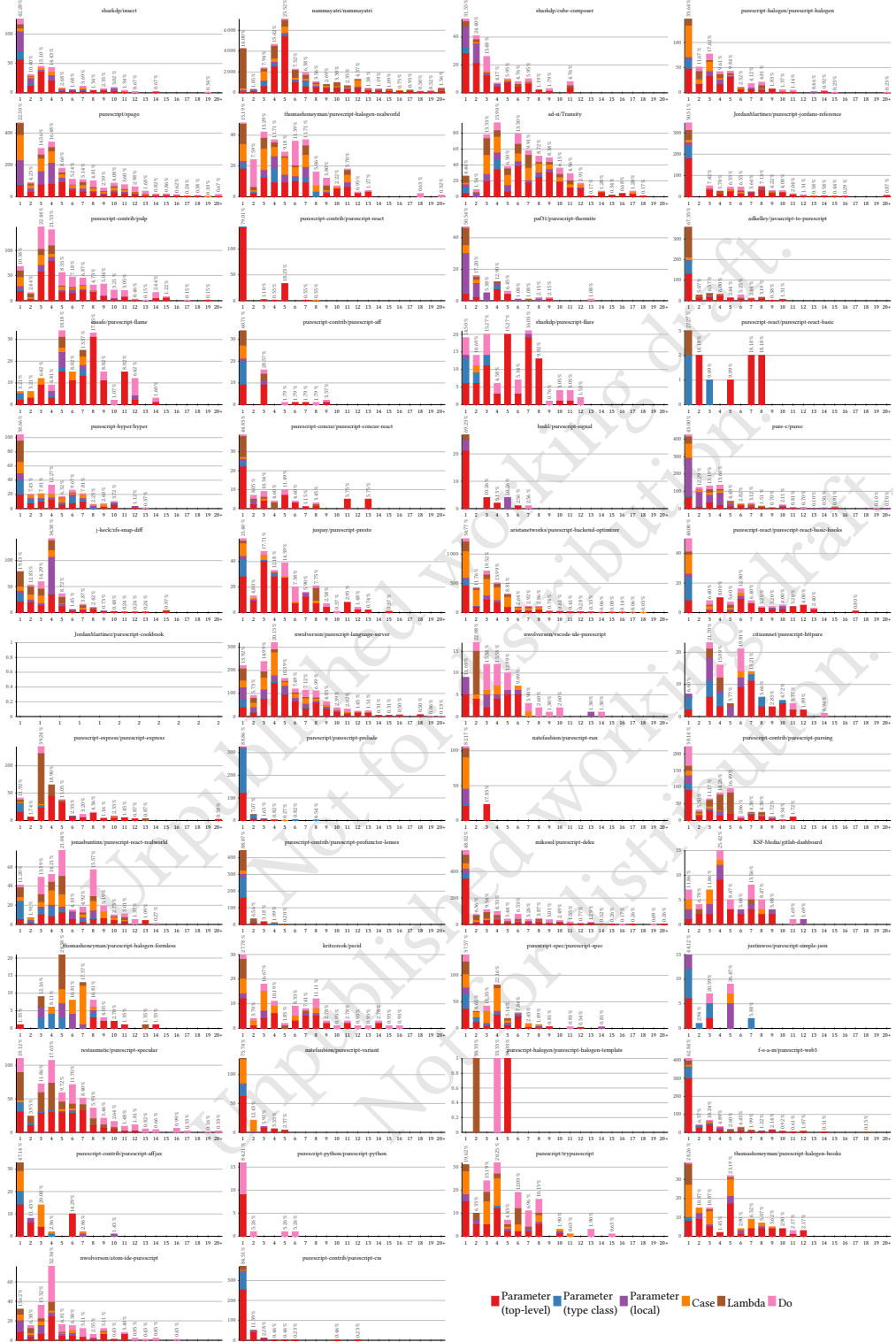




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A.4 Variable Name Length in PureScript

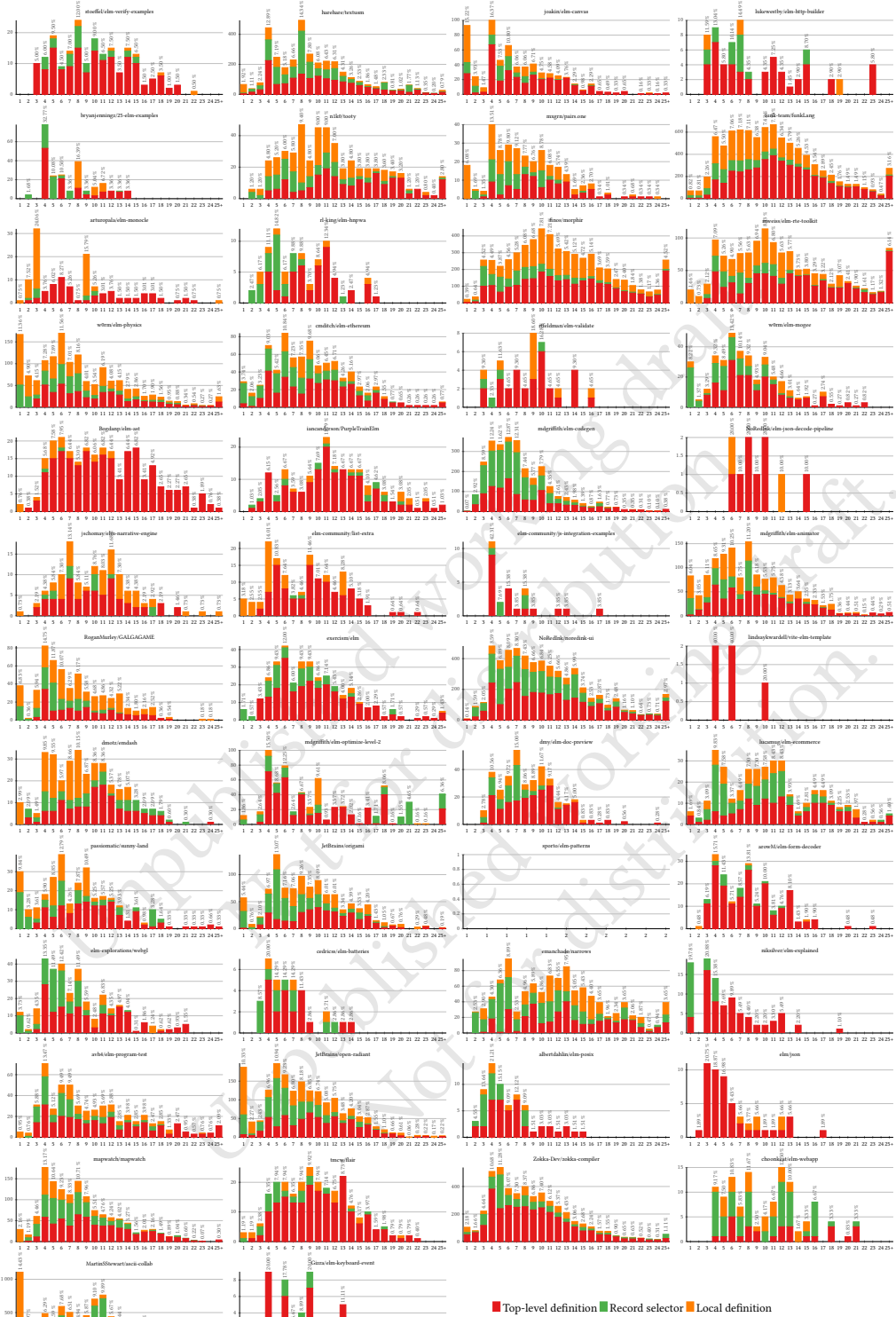




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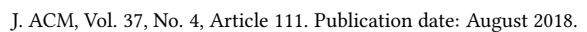


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A.6 Definition Name Length in Haskell

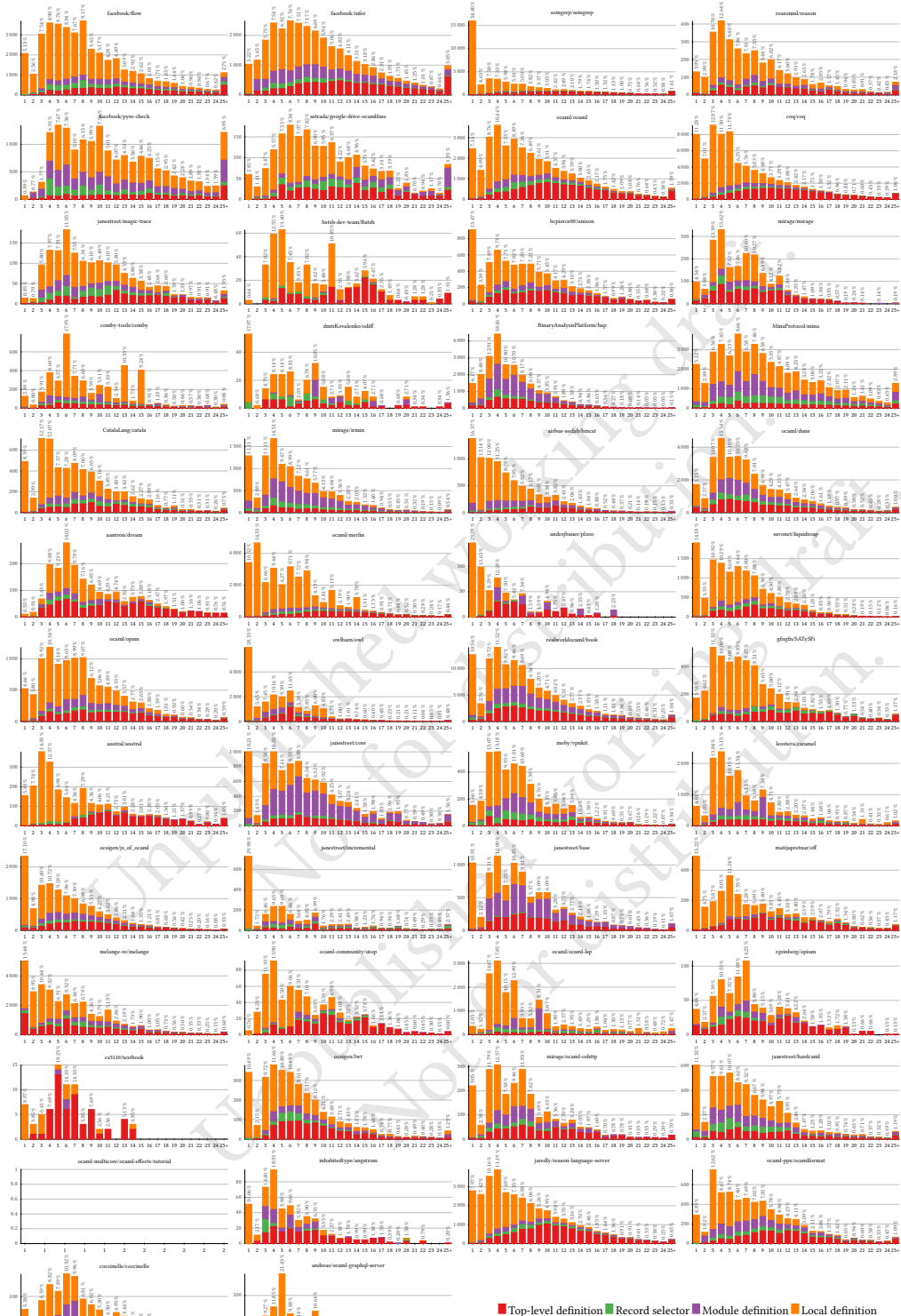


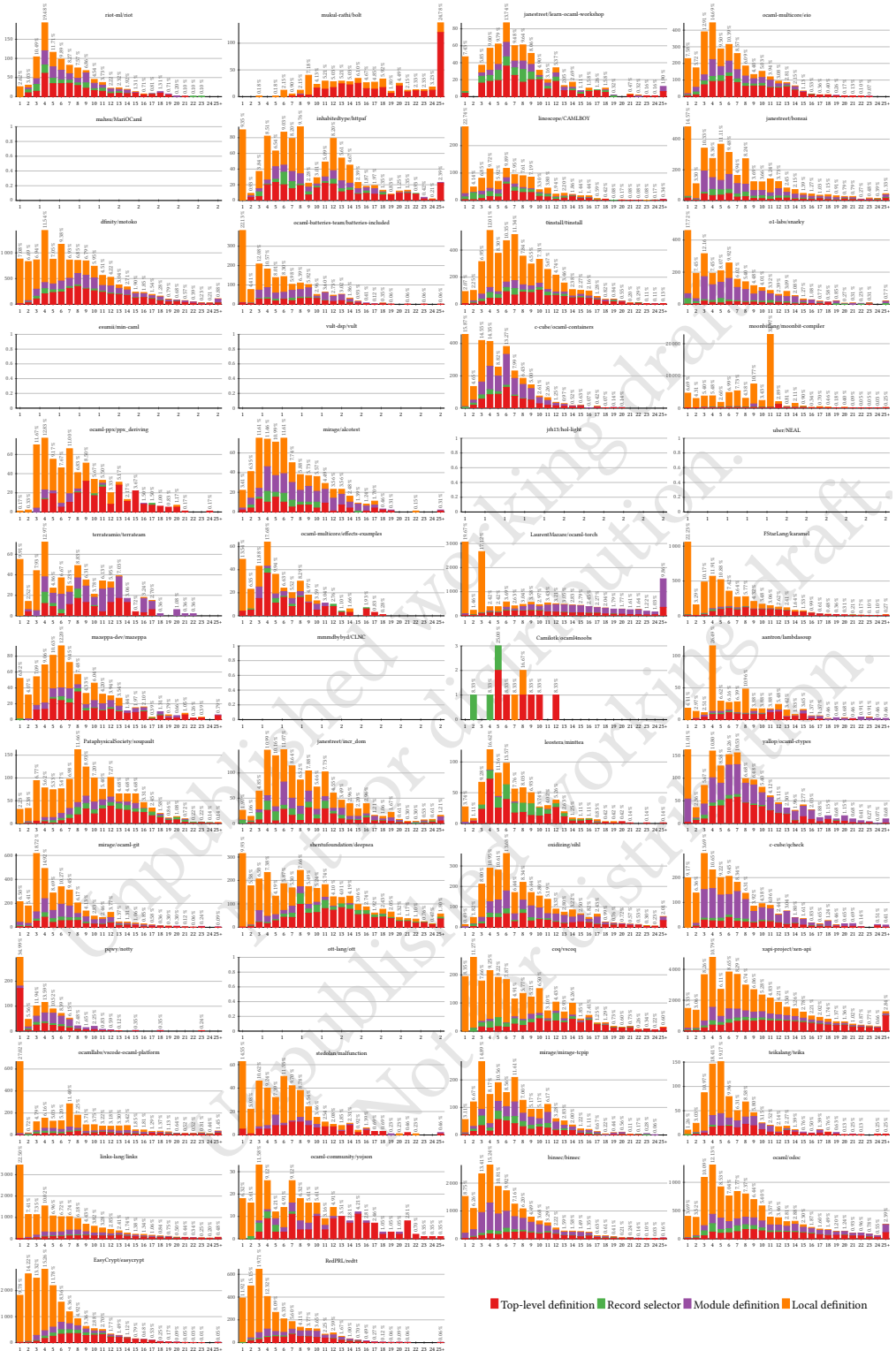


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A.7 Definition Name Length in OCaml

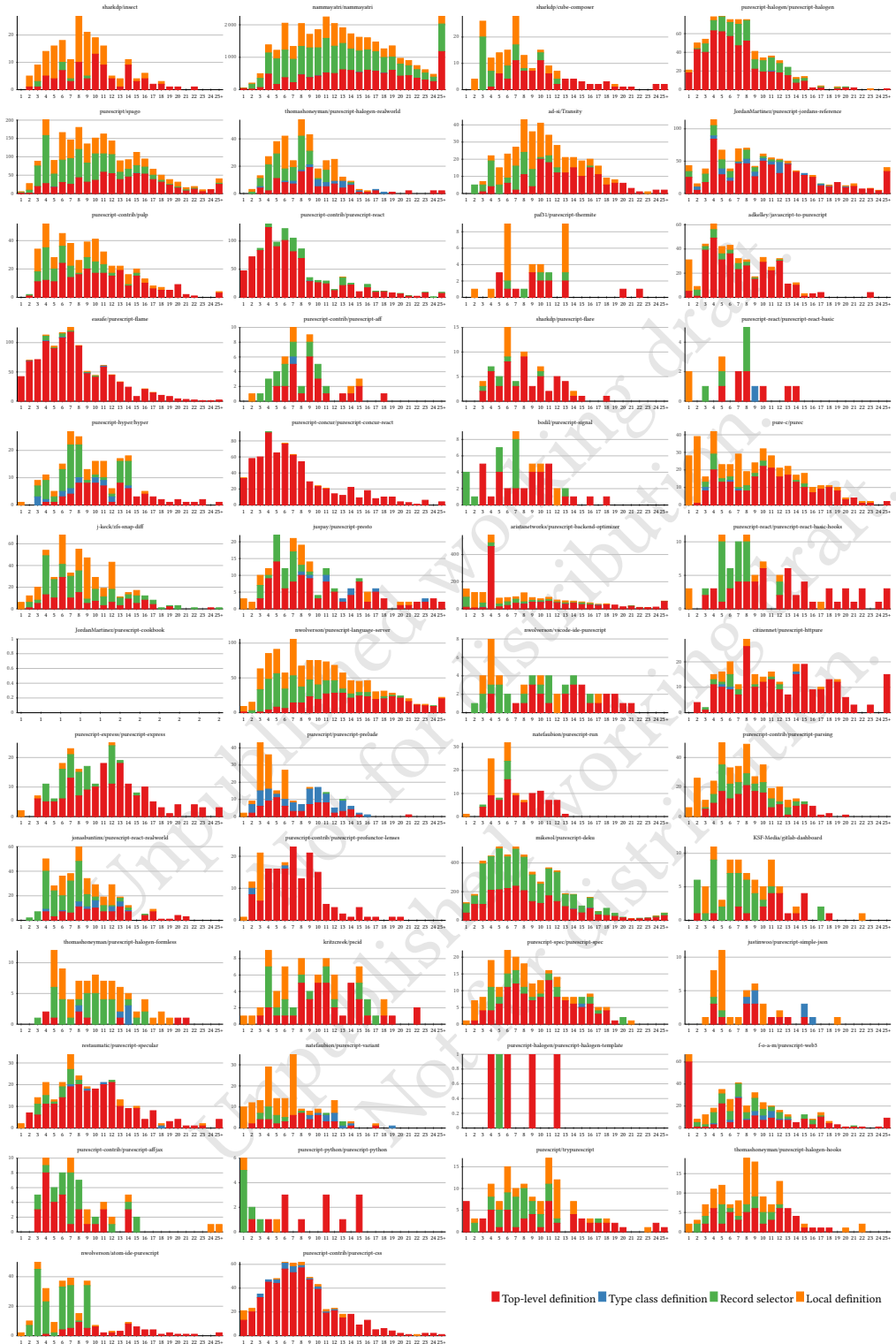




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A.8 Definition Name Length in PureScript





Received 20 February 2007; revised 12 March 2009; accepted 5 June 2009