

11

The Power of Variable Names

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Related Topics

Routine names: Section 7.3

Class names: Section 6.2

General issues in using variables: Chapter 10

Formatting data declarations: “Laying Out Data Declarations” in Section 31.5

Documenting variables: “Commenting Data Declarations” in Section 32.5

AS IMPORTANT AS THE TOPIC OF GOOD NAMES IS to effective programming, I have never read a discussion that covered more than a handful of the dozens of considerations that go into creating good names. Many programming texts devote a few paragraphs to choosing abbreviations, spout a few platitudes, and expect you to fend for yourself. I intend to be guilty of the opposite, to inundate you with more information about good names than you will ever be able to use!

11.1 Considerations in Choosing Good Names

You can't give a variable a name the way you give a dog a name—because it's cute or it has a good sound. Unlike the dog and its name, which are different entities, a variable and a variable's name are essentially the same thing.

Consequently, the goodness or badness of a variable is largely determined by its name. Choose variable names with care.

Here's an example of code that uses bad variable names:

CODING HORROR

Java Example of Poor Variable Names

```
x = x - xx;
xxx = aretha + SalesTax( aretha );
x = x + LateFee( x1, x ) + xxx;
x = x + Interest( x1, x );
```

What's happening in this piece of code? What do *x1*, *xx*, and *xxx* mean? What does *aretha* mean? Suppose someone told you that the code computed a total customer bill based on an outstanding balance and a new set of purchases. Which variable would you use to print the customer's bill for just the new set of purchases?

Here's a different version of the same code that makes these questions easier to answer:

Java Example of Good Variable Names

```
balance = balance - lastPayment;
monthlyTotal = NewPurchases + SalesTax( newPurchases );
balance = balance + LateFee( customerID, balance ) + monthlyTotal;
balance = balance + Interest( customerID, balance );
```

In view of the contrast between these two pieces of code, a good variable name is readable, memorable, and appropriate. You can use several general rules of thumb to achieve these goals.

The Most Important Naming Consideration

KEY POINT

The most important consideration in naming a variable is that the name fully and accurately describe the entity the variable represents. An effective technique for coming up with a good name is to state in words what the variable represents. Often that statement itself is the best variable name. It's easy to read because it doesn't contain cryptic abbreviations, and it's unambiguous. Because it's a full

description of the entity, it won't be confused with something else. And it's easy to remember because the name is similar to the concept.

For a variable that represents the number of people on the U.S. Olympic team, you would create the name *numberOfPeopleOnTheUsOlympicTeam*.

A variable that represents the number of seats in a stadium would be *numberOfSeatsInTheStadium*. A variable that represents the maximum number of points scored by a country's team in any modern Olympics would be *maximumNumberOfPointsInModernOlympics*. A variable that contains the current interest rate is better named *rate* or *interestRate* than *r* or *x*. You get the idea.

Note two characteristics of these names. First, they're easy to decipher. In fact, they don't need to be deciphered at all because you can simply read them. But second, some of the names are long—too long to be practical. I'll get to the question of variable-name length shortly.

Here are several examples of variable names, good and bad:

Table 11-1. Examples of Good and Bad Variable Names

Purpose of Variable	Good Names, Good Descriptors	Bad Names, Poor Descriptors
Running total of checks written to date	<i>runningTotal</i> , <i>checkTotal</i> , <i>nChecks</i>	<i>written</i> , <i>ct</i> , <i>checks</i> , <i>CHKTTL</i> , <i>x</i> , <i>x1</i> , <i>x2</i>
Velocity of a bullet train	<i>velocity</i> , <i>trainVelocity</i> , <i>velocityInMph</i>	<i>velt</i> , <i>v</i> , <i>tv</i> , <i>x</i> , <i>x1</i> , <i>x2</i> , <i>train</i>
Current date	<i>currentDate</i> , <i>todaysDate</i>	<i>cd</i> , <i>current</i> , <i>c</i> , <i>x</i> , <i>x1</i> , <i>x2</i> , <i>date</i>
Lines per page	<i>linesPerPage</i>	<i>lpp</i> , <i>lines</i> , <i>l</i> , <i>x</i> , <i>x1</i> , <i>x2</i>

The names *currentDate* and *todaysDate* are good names because they fully and accurately describe the idea of "current date." In fact, they use the obvious words. Programmers sometimes overlook using the ordinary words, which is often the easiest solution. *cd* and *c* are poor names because they're too short and not at all descriptive. *current* is poor because it doesn't tell you what is current. *date* is almost a good name, but it's a poor name in the final analysis because the date involved isn't just any date, but the current date. *date* by itself gives no such indication. *x*, *x1*, and *x2* are poor names because they're always poor names—*x* traditionally represents an unknown quantity; if you don't want your variables to be unknown quantities, think of better names.

KEY POINT

Names should be as specific as possible. Names like *x*, *temp*, and *i* that are general enough to be used for more than one purpose are not as informative as they could be and are usually bad names.

Problem-Orientation

A good mnemonic name generally speaks to the problem rather than the solution. A good name tends to express the *what* more than the *how*. In general, if a name refers to some aspect of computing rather than to the problem, it's a *how* rather than a *what*. Avoid such a name in favor of a name that refers to the problem itself.

A record of employee data could be called *inputRec* or *employeeData*. *inputRec* is a computer term that refers to computing ideas—input and record. *employeeData* refers to the problem domain rather than the computing universe. Similarly, for a bit field indicating printer status, *bitFlag* is a more computerish name than *printerReady*. In an accounting application, *calcVal* is more computerish than *sum*.

Optimum Name Length

The optimum length for a name seems to be somewhere between the lengths of *x* and *maximumNumberOfPointsInModernOlympics*. Names that are too short don't convey enough meaning. The problem with names like *x1* and *x2* is that even if you can discover what *x* is, you won't know anything about the relationship between *x1* and *x2*. Names that are too long are hard to type and can obscure the visual structure of a program.

HARD DATA

Gorla, Benander, and Benander found that the effort required to debug a program was minimized when variables had names that averaged 10 to 16 characters (1990). Programs with names averaging 8 to 20 characters were almost as easy to debug. The guideline doesn't mean that you should try to make all of your variable names 9 to 15 or 10 to 16 characters long. It does mean that if you look over your code and see many names that are shorter, you should check to be sure that the names are as clear as they need to be.

You'll probably come out ahead by taking the Goldilocks-and-the-Three-Bears approach to naming variables:

Table 11-2. Variable Names That are Too Long, Too Short, and Just Right

Too long:	<i>numberOfPeopleOnTheUsOlympicTeam</i> <i>numberOfSeatsInTheStadium</i> <i>maximumNumberOfPointsInModernOlympics</i>
Too short:	<i>n</i> , <i>np</i> , <i>ntm</i> <i>n</i> , <i>ns</i> , <i>nsisd</i> <i>m</i> , <i>mp</i> , <i>max</i> , <i>points</i>
Just right:	<i>numTeamMembers</i> , <i>teamMemberCount</i>

numSeatsInStadium, seatCount
teamPointsMax, pointsRecord

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The Effect of Scope on Variable Names

119 **CROSS-REFERENCE** Scope
 120 is discussed in more detail
 121 in Section 10.4, “Scope.”

Are short variable names always bad? No, not always. When you give a variable a short name like *i*, the length itself says something about the variable—namely, that the variable is a scratch value with a limited scope of operation.

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A programmer reading such a variable should be able to assume that its value isn’t used outside a few lines of code. When you name a variable *i*, you’re saying, “This variable is a run-of-the-mill loop counter or array index and doesn’t have any significance outside these few lines of code.”

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A study by W. J. Hansen found that longer names are better for rarely used variables or global variables and shorter names are better for local variables or loop variables (Shneiderman 1980). Short names are subject to many problems, however, and some careful programmers avoid them altogether as a matter of defensive-programming policy.

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Use qualifiers on names that are in the global name space

If you have variables that are in the global namespace (named constants, class names, and so on), consider whether you need to adopt a convention for partitioning the global namespace and avoiding naming conflicts. In C++ and C#, you can use the *namespace* keyword to partition the global namespace.

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C++ Example of Using the namespace Keyword to Partition the Global Namespace

```
namespace UserInterfaceSubsystem {
    ...
    // lots of declarations
    ...
}

namespace DatabaseSubsystem {
    ...
    // lots of declarations
    ...
}
```

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If you declare an *Employee* class in both the *UserInterfaceSubsystem* and the *DatabaseSubsystem*, you can identify which you wanted to refer to by writing *UserInterfaceSubsystem::Employee* or *DatabaseSubsystem::Employee*. In Java, you can accomplish the same thing through the use of packages.

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153 In languages that don't support namespaces or packages, you can still use
154 naming conventions to partition the global name space. One convention is to
155 require that globally-visible classes be prefixed with subsystem mnemonic. Thus
156 the user interface employee class might become *uiEmployee*, and the database
157 employee class might become *dbEmployee*. This minimizes the risk of global-
158 namespace collisions.

159 Computed-Value Qualifiers in Variable Names

160 Many programs have variables that contain computed values: totals, averages,
161 maximums, and so on. If you modify a name with a qualifier like *Total*, *Sum*,
162 *Average*, *Max*, *Min*, *Record*, *String*, or *Pointer*, put the modifier at the end of the
163 name.

164 This practice offers several advantages. First, the most significant part of the
165 variable name, the part that gives the variable most of its meaning, is at the front,
166 so it's most prominent and gets read first. Second, by establishing this
167 convention, you avoid the confusion you might create if you were to use both
168 *totalRevenue* and *revenueTotal* in the same program. The names are semantically
169 equivalent, and the convention would prevent their being used as if they were
170 different. Third, a set of names like *revenueTotal*, *expenseTotal*,
171 *revenueAverage*, and *expenseAverage* has a pleasing symmetry. A set of names
172 like *totalRevenue*, *expenseTotal*, *revenueAverage*, and *averageExpense* doesn't
173 appeal to a sense of order. Finally, the consistency improves readability and
174 eases maintenance.

175 An exception to the rule that computed values go at the end of the name is the
176 customary position of the *Num* qualifier. Placed at the beginning of a variable
177 name, *Num* refers to a total. *numSales* is the total number of sales. Placed at the
178 end of the variable name, *Num* refers to an index. *saleNum* is the number of the
179 current sale. The *s* at the end of *numSales* is another tip-off about the difference
180 in meaning. But, because using *Num* so often creates confusion, it's probably
181 best to sidestep the whole issue by using *Count* or *Total* to refer to a total number
182 of sales and *Index* to refer to a specific sale. Thus, *salesCount* is the total number
183 of sales and *salesIndex* refers to a specific sale.

184 Common Opposites in Variable Names

185 **CROSS-REFERENCE** For
186 a similar list of opposites in
187 routine names, see "Provide
188 services in pairs with their
189 opposites" in Section 6.2.

Use opposites precisely. Using naming conventions for opposites helps
consistency, which helps readability. Pairs like *begin/end* are easy to understand
and remember. Pairs that depart from common-language opposites tend to be
hard to remember and are therefore confusing. Here are some common
opposites:

- 190 • begin/end
- 191 • first/last
- 192 • locked/unlocked
- 193 • min/max
- 194 • next/previous
- 195 • old/new
- 196 • opened/closed
- 197 • visible/invisible
- 198 • source/target
- 199 • source/destination (less common)
- 200 • up/down

201 11.2 Naming Specific Types of Data

202 In addition to the general considerations in naming data, special considerations
203 come up in the naming of specific kinds of data. This section describes
204 considerations specifically for loop variables, status variables, temporary
205 variables, boolean variables, enumerated types, and named constants.

206 Naming Loop Indexes

207 **CROSS-REFERENCE** For
208 details on loops, see Chapter
16, “Controlling Loops.”

Guidelines for naming variables in loops have arisen because loops are such a common feature of computer programming.

209 The names *i*, *j*, and *k* are customary:

210 Java Example of a Simple Loop Variable Name

```
211 for ( i = firstItem; i < lastItem; i++ ) {  
212     data[ i ] = 0;  
213 }
```

214 If a variable is to be used outside the loop, it should be given a more meaningful
215 name than *i*, *j*, or *k*. For example, if you are reading records from a file and need
216 to remember how many records you’ve read, a more meaningful name like
217 *recordCount* would be appropriate:

218 Java Example of a Good Descriptive Loop Variable Name

```
219 recordCount = 0;  
220 while ( moreScores() ) {
```

```

221     score[ recordCount ] = GetNextScore();
222     recordCount++;
223 }
224
225 // lines using recordCount
226 ...

```

If the loop is longer than a few lines, it's easy to forget what *i* is supposed to stand for, and you're better off giving the loop index a more meaningful name. Because code is so often changed, expanded, and copied into other programs, many experienced programmers avoid names like *i* altogether.

One common reason loops grow longer is that they're nested. If you have several nested loops, assign longer names to the loop variables to improve readability.

Java Example of Good Loop Names in a Nested Loop

```

233 for ( teamIndex = 0; teamIndex < teamCount; teamIndex++ ) {
234     for ( eventIndex = 0; eventIndex < eventCount[ teamIndex ]; eventIndex++ ) {
235         score[ teamIndex ][ eventIndex ] = 0;
236     }
237 }
238 }

```

Carefully chosen names for loop-index variables avoid the common problem of index cross talk: saying *i* when you mean *j* and *j* when you mean *i*. They also make array accesses clearer. `score[teamIndex][eventIndex]` is more informative than `score[i][j]`.

If you have to use *i*, *j*, and *k*, don't use them for anything other than loop indexes for simple loops—the convention is too well established, and breaking it to use them in other ways is confusing. The simplest way to avoid such problems is simply to think of more descriptive names than *i*, *j*, and *k*.

Naming Status Variables

Status variables describe the state of your program. The rest of this section gives some guidelines for naming them.

Think of a better name than flag for status variables

It's better to think of flags as status variables. A flag should never have *flag* in its name because that doesn't give you any clue about what the flag does. For clarity, flags should be assigned values and their values should be tested with enumerated types, named constants, or global variables that act as named constants. Here are some examples of flags with bad names:

CODING HORROR

C++ Examples of Cryptic Flags

```

256 if ( flag ) ...
257

```



```

258 if ( statusFlag & 0x0F ) ...
259 if ( printFlag == 16 ) ...
260 if ( computeFlag == 0 ) ...
261
262 flag = 0x1;
263 statusFlag = 0x80;
264 printFlag = 16;
265 computeFlag = 0;

```

Statements like *statusFlag = 0x80* give you no clue about what the code does unless you wrote the code or have documentation that tells you both what *statusFlag* is and what *0x80* represents. Here are equivalent code examples that are clearer:

270 C++ Examples of Better Use of Status Variables

```

271 if ( dataReady ) ...
272 if ( characterType & PRINTABLE_CHAR ) ...
273 if ( reportType == ReportType_Annual ) ...
274 if ( recalcNeeded == True ) ...
275
276 dataReady = True;
277 characterType = CONTROL_CHARACTER;
278 reportType = ReportType_Annual;
279 recalcNeeded = False;

```

Clearly, *characterType = CONTROL_CHARACTER*, from the second code example, is more meaningful than *statusFlag = 0x80*, from the first. Likewise, the conditional *if (reportType == ReportType_Annual)* is clearer than *if (printFlag == 16)*. The second example shows that you can use this approach with enumerated types as well as predefined named constants. Here's how you could use named constants and enumerated types to set up the values used in the example:

287 Declaring Status Variables in C++

```

288 // values for CharacterType
289 const int LETTER = 0x01;
290 const int DIGIT = 0x02;
291 const int PUNCTUATION = 0x04;
292 const int LINE_DRAW = 0x08;
293 const int PRINTABLE_CHAR = ( LETTER | DIGIT | PUNCTUATION | LINE_DRAW );
294
295 const int CONTROL_CHARACTER = 0x80;
296
297 // values for ReportType
298 enum ReportType {
299     ReportType_Daily,
300     ReportType_Monthly,

```

```

301     ReportType_Quarterly,
302     ReportType_Annual,
303     ReportType_All
304 };

```

305 When you find yourself “figuring out” a section of code, consider renaming the
 306 variables. It’s OK to figure out murder mysteries, but you shouldn’t need to
 307 figure out code. You should be able to read it.

308 Naming Temporary Variables

309 Temporary variables are used to hold intermediate results of calculations, as
 310 temporary placeholders, and to hold housekeeping values. They’re usually called
 311 *temp*, *x*, or some other vague and nondescriptive name. In general, temporary
 312 variables are a sign that the programmer does not yet fully understand the
 313 problem. Moreover, because the variables are officially given a “temporary”
 314 status, programmers tend to treat them more casually than other variables,
 315 increasing the chance of errors.

316 *Be leery of “temporary” variables*

317 It’s often necessary to preserve values temporarily. But in one way or another,
 318 most of the variables in your program are temporary. Calling a few of them
 319 temporary may indicate that you aren’t sure of their real purposes. Consider the
 320 following example.

321 C++ Example of an Uninformative “Temporary” Variable Name

```

322 // Compute roots of a quadratic equation.
323 // This assumes that (b^2-4*a*c) is positive.
324 temp = sqrt( b^2 - 4*a*c );
325 root[0] = ( -b + temp ) / ( 2 * a );
326 root[1] = ( -b - temp ) / ( 2 * a );

```

327 It’s fine to store the value of the expression $\sqrt{b^2 - 4 * a * c}$ in a variable,
 328 especially since it’s used in two places later. But the name *temp* doesn’t tell you
 329 anything about what the variable does. A better approach is shown in this
 330 example:

331 C++ Example with a “Temporary” Variable Name Replaced with a Real 332 Variable

```

333 // Compute roots of a quadratic equation.
334 // This assumes that (b^2-4*a*c) is positive.
335 discriminant = sqrt( b^2 - 4*a*c );
336 root[0] = ( -b + discriminant ) / ( 2 * a );
337 root[1] = ( -b - discriminant ) / ( 2 * a );

```

338 This is essentially the same code, but it’s improved with the use of an accurate,
 339 descriptive variable name.

Naming Boolean Variables

Here are a few guidelines to use in naming boolean variables:

Keep typical boolean names in mind

Here are some particularly useful boolean variable names:

- **done** Use *done* to indicate whether something is done. The variable can indicate whether a loop is done or some other operation is done. Set *done* to *False* before something is done, and set it to *True* when something is completed.
- **error** Use *error* to indicate that an error has occurred. Set the variable to *False* when no error has occurred and to *True* when an error has occurred.
- **found** Use *found* to indicate whether a value has been found. Set *found* to *False* when the value has not been found and to *True* once the value has been found. Use *found* when searching an array for a value, a file for an employee ID, a list of paychecks for a certain paycheck amount, and so on.
- **success** Use *success* to indicate whether an operation has been successful. Set the variable to *False* when an operation has failed and to *True* when an operation has succeeded. If you can, replace *success* with a more specific name that describes precisely what it means to be successful. If the program is successful when processing is complete, you might use *processingComplete* instead. If the program is successful when a value is found, you might use *found* instead.

Give boolean variables names that imply True or False

Names like *done* and *success* are good boolean names because the state is either *True* or *False*; something is done or it isn't; it's a success or it isn't. Names like *status* and *sourceFile*, on the other hand, are poor boolean names because they're not obviously *True* or *False*. What does it mean if *status* is *True*? Does it mean that something has a status? Everything has a status. Does *True* mean that the status of something is OK? Or does *False* mean that nothing has gone wrong? With a name like *status*, you can't tell.

For better results, replace *status* with a name like *error* or *statusOK*, and replace *sourceFile* with *sourceFileAvailable* or *sourceFileFound*, or whatever the variable represents.

Some programmers like to put *Is* in front of their boolean names. Then the variable name becomes a question: *isdone?* *isError?* *isFound?* *isProcessingComplete?* Answering the question with *True* or *False* provides the value of the variable. A benefit of this approach is that it won't work with vague names: *isStatus?* makes no sense at all.

Use positive boolean variable names

Negative names like *notFound*, *notdone*, and *notSuccessful* are difficult to read when they are negated—for example,

```
if not notFound
```

Such a name should be replaced by *found*, *done*, or *processingComplete* and then negated with an operator as appropriate. If what you’re looking for is found, you have *found* instead of *not notFound*.

Naming Enumerated Types

When you use an enumerated type, you can ensure that it’s clear that members of the type all belong to the same group by using a group prefix, such as *Color_*, *Planet_*, or *Month_*. Here are some examples of identifying elements of enumerated types using prefixes:

Visual Basic Example of Using a Suffix Naming Convention for Enumerated Types

```
Public Enum Color
    Color_Red
    Color_Green
    Color_Blue
End Enum

Public Enum Planet
    Planet_Earth
    Planet_Mars
    Planet_Venus
End Enum

Public Enum Month
    Month_January
    Month_February
    ...
    Month_December
End Enum
```

In addition, the enum type itself (*Color*, *Planet*, or *Month*) can be identified in various ways, including all caps or prefixes (*e_Color*, *e_Planet*, or *e_Month*). A person could argue that an enum is essentially a user-defined type, and so the name of the enum should be formatted the same as other user-defined types like classes. A different argument would be that enums are types, but they are also constants, so the enum type name should be formatted as constants. This book uses the convention of all caps for enumerated type names.

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417 **CROSS-REFERENCE** For
418 details on using named
419 constants, see Section 12.7,
420 “Named Constants.”

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Naming Constants

When naming constants, name the abstract entity the constant represents rather than the number the constant refers to. *FIVE* is a bad name for a constant (regardless of whether the value it represents is 5.0). *CYCLES_NEEDED* is a good name. *CYCLES_NEEDED* can equal 5.0 or 6.0. *FIVE* = 6.0 would be ridiculous. By the same token, *BAKERS_DOZEN* is a poor constant name; *DONUTS_MAX* is a good constant name.

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11.3 The Power of Naming Conventions

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Some programmers resist standards and conventions—and with good reason. Some standards and conventions are rigid and ineffective—destructive to creativity and program quality. This is unfortunate since effective standards are some of the most powerful tools at your disposal. This section discusses why, when, and how you should create your own standards for naming variables.

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Why Have Conventions?

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Conventions offer several specific benefits:

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- They let you take more for granted. By making one global decision rather than many local ones, you can concentrate on the more important characteristics of the code.
- They help you transfer knowledge across projects. Similarities in names give you an easier and more confident understanding of what unfamiliar variables are supposed to do.
- They help you learn code more quickly on a new project. Rather than learning that Anita’s code looks like this, Julia’s like that, and Kristin’s like something else, you can work with a more consistent set of code.
- They reduce name proliferation. Without naming conventions, you can easily call the same thing by two different names. For example, you might call total points both *pointTotal* and *totalPoints*. This might not be confusing to you when you write the code, but it can be enormously confusing to a new programmer who reads it later.
- They compensate for language weaknesses. You can use conventions to emulate named constants and enumerated types. The conventions can differentiate among local, class, and global data and can incorporate type information for types that aren’t supported by the compiler.
- They emphasize relationships among related items. If you use object data, the compiler takes care of this automatically. If your language doesn’t

451 support objects, you can supplement it with a naming convention. Names
452 like *address*, *phone*, and *name* don't indicate that the variables are related.
453 But suppose you decide that all employee-data variables should begin with
454 an *Employee* prefix. *employeeAddress*, *employeePhone*, and *employeeName*
455 leave no doubt that the variables are related. Programming conventions can
456 make up for the weakness of the language you're using.

457 KEY POINT

The key is that any convention at all is often better than no convention. The convention may be arbitrary. The power of naming conventions doesn't come from the specific convention chosen but from the fact that a convention exists, adding structure to the code and giving you fewer things to worry about.

461 When You Should Have a Naming Convention

462 There are no hard-and-fast rules for when you should establish a naming
463 convention, but here are a few cases in which conventions are worthwhile:

- 464 • When multiple programmers are working on a project
- 465 • When you plan to turn a program over to another programmer for
466 modifications and maintenance (which is nearly always)
- 467 • When your programs are reviewed by other programmers in your
468 organization
- 469 • When your program is so large that you can't hold the whole thing in your
470 brain at once and must think about it in pieces
- 471 • When the program will be long-lived enough that you might put it aside for
472 a few weeks or months before working on it again
- 473 • When you have a lot of unusual terms that are common on a project and
474 want to have standard terms or abbreviations to use in coding

475 KEY POINT

You always benefit from having some kind of naming convention. The considerations above should help you determine the extent of the convention to use on a particular project.

478 Degrees of Formality

479 Different conventions have different degrees of formality. An informal
480 convention might be as simple as the rule "Use meaningful names." Somewhat
481 more formal conventions are described in the next section. In general, the degree
482 of formality you need is dependent on the number of people working on a
483 program, the size of the program, and the program's expected life span. On tiny,
484 throwaway projects, a strict convention might be unnecessary overhead. On
485 larger projects in which several people are involved, either initially or over the
486 program's life span, formal conventions are an indispensable aid to readability.

479 **CROSS-REFERENCE** For
480 details on the differences in
481 formality in small and large
482 projects, see Chapter 27,
483 "How Program Size Affects
484 Construction."

11.4 Informal Naming Conventions

Most projects use relatively informal naming conventions such as the ones laid out in this section.

Guidelines for a Language-Independent Convention

Here are some guidelines for creating a language-independent convention:

Differentiate between variable names and routine names

A convention associated with Java programming is to begin variable and object names with lower case and routine names with upper case: *variableName* vs. *RoutineName()*.

Differentiate between classes and objects

The correspondence between class names and object names—or between types and variables of those types—can get tricky. There are several standard options, as shown in the following examples:

Option 1: Differentiating Types and Variables via Initial Capitalization

```
Widget widget;  
LongerWidget longerWidget;
```

Option 2: Differentiating Types and Variables via All Caps

```
WIDGET widget;  
LONGERWIDGET longerWidget
```

Option 3: Differentiating Types and Variables via the “t_” Prefix for Types

```
t_Widget Widget;  
t_LongerWidget LongerWidget;
```

Option 4: Differentiating Types and Variables via the “a” Prefix for Variables

```
Widget aWidget;  
LongerWidget aLongerWidget;
```

Option 5: Differentiating Types and Variables via Using More Specific Names for the Variables

```
Widget employeeWidget;  
LongerWidget fullEmployeeWidget;
```

KEY POINT

519 Each of these options has strengths and weaknesses.

520 Option 1 is a common convention in case-sensitive languages including C++ and
521 Java, but some programmers are uncomfortable differentiating names solely on
522 the basis of capitalization. Indeed, creating names that differ only in the
523 capitalization of the first letter in the name seems to provide too little
524 “psychological distance” and too small a visual distinction between the two
525 names.

526 The Option 1 approach can’t be applied consistently in mixed-language
527 environments if any of the languages are case insensitive. In Visual Basic, for
528 example,

529 Dim widget as Widget
530 will generate a syntax error, because *widget* and *Widget* are treated as the same
531 token.

532 Option 2 creates a more obvious distinction between the type name and the
533 variable name. For historical reasons, all caps are used to indicate constants in
534 C++ and Java, however, and the approach is subject to the same problems in
535 work in mixed-language environments that Option 1 is subject to.

536 Option 3 works adequately in all languages, but some programmers dislike the
537 idea of prefixes for aesthetic reasons.

538 Option 4 is sometimes used as an alternative to Option 3, but it has the drawback
539 of altering the name of every instance of a class instead of just the one class
540 name.

541 Option 5 requires more thought on a variable-by-variable basis. In most
542 instances, being forced to think of a specific name for a variable results in more
543 readable code. But sometimes a *widget* truly is just a generic *widget*, and in those
544 instances you’ll find yourself coming up with less-than-obvious names, like
545 *genericWidget*, which are arguably less readable. The code in this book uses
546 Option 5 because it’s the most understandable in situations in which the person
547 reading the code isn’t necessarily familiar with a less intuitive naming
548 convention.

549 In short, each of the available options involves tradeoffs. I tend to prefer Option
550 3 because it works across multiple languages, and I’d rather have the odd prefix
551 on the class name than on each and every object name. It’s also easy to extend
552 the convention consistently to named constants, enumerated types, and other
553 kinds of types if desired.

On balance, Option 3 is a little like Winston's Churchill's description of democracy: It has been said that democracy is the worst form of government that has been tried, except for all the others. Option 3 is a terrible naming convention, except for all the others that have been tried.

Identify global variables

One common programming problem is misuse of global variables. If you give all global variable names a `g_` prefix, for example, a programmer seeing the variable `g_RunningTotal` will know it's a global variable and treat it as such.

Identify member variables

Identify a class's member data. Make it clear that the variable isn't a local variable and that it isn't a global variable either. For example, you can identify class member variables with an `m_` prefix to indicate that it is member data.

Identify type definitions

Naming conventions for types serve two purposes: They explicitly identify a name as a type name, and they avoid naming clashes with variables. To meet those considerations, a prefix or suffix is a good approach. In C++, the customary approach is to use all uppercase letters for a type name—for example, `COLOR` and `MENU`. (This convention applies to *typedefs* and *structs*, not class names.) But this creates the possibility of confusion with named preprocessor constants. To avoid confusion, you can prefix the type names with `t_`, such as `t_Color` and `t_Menu`.

Identify named constants

Named constants need to be identified so that you can tell whether you're assigning a variable a value from another variable (whose value might change) or from a named constant. In Visual Basic you have the additional possibility that the value might be from a function. Visual Basic doesn't require function names to use parentheses, whereas in C++ even a function with no parameters uses parentheses.

One approach to naming constants is to use a prefix like `c_` for constant names. That would give you names like `c_RecsMax` or `c_LinesPerPageMax`. In C++ and Java, the convention is to use all uppercase letters, possibly with underscores to separate words, `RECSMAX` or `RECS_MAX` and `LINESPERPAGEMAX` or `LINES_PER_PAGE_MAX`.

Identify elements of enumerated types

Elements of enumerated types need to be identified for the same reasons that named constants do: to make it easy to tell that the name is for an enumerated type as opposed to a variable, named constant, or function. The standard approach applies; you can use all caps or an `e_` or `E_` prefix for the name of the

592 type itself, and use a prefix based on the specific type like *Color_* or *Planet_* for
593 the members of the type.

594 ***Identify input-only parameters in languages that don't enforce them***

595 Sometimes input parameters are accidentally modified. In languages such as
596 C++ and Visual Basic, you must indicate explicitly whether you want a value
597 that's been modified to be returned to the calling routine. This is indicated with
598 the ***, *&*, and *const* qualifiers in C++ or *ByRef* and *ByVal* in Visual Basic.

599 In other languages, if you modify an input variable it is returned whether you
600 like it or not. This is especially true when passing objects. In Java, for example,
601 all objects are passed "by value," but the contents of an object can be changed
602 within the called routine (Arnold, Gosling, Holmes 2000).

603 **CROSS-REFERENCE** Aug
604 mentioning a language with a
605 naming convention to make
606 up for limitations in the
607 language itself is an example
608 of programming *into* a
609 language instead of just
610 programming in it. For more
611 details on programming *into*
612 a language, see Section 34.4,
613 "Program Into Your
614 Language, Not In It."

In those languages, if you establish a naming convention in which input-only parameters are given an *Input* prefix, you'll know that an error has occurred when you see anything with an *Input* prefix on the left side of an equal sign. If you see *inputMax = inputMax + 1* you'll know it's a goof because the *Input* prefix indicates that the variable isn't supposed to be modified.

Format names to enhance readability

Two common techniques for increasing readability are using capitalization and spacing characters to separate words. For example, *GYMNASTICSPOINTTOTAL* is less readable than *gymnasticsPointTotal* or *gymnastics_point_total*. C++, Java, Visual Basic, and other languages allow for mixed uppercase and lowercase characters. C++, Java, Visual Basic, and other languages also allow the use of the underscore (*_*) separator.

Try not to mix these techniques; that makes code hard to read. If you make an honest attempt to use any of these readability techniques consistently, however, it will improve your code. People have managed to have zealous, blistering debates over fine points such as whether the first character in a name should be capitalized (*TotalPoints* vs. *totalPoints*), but as long as you're consistent, it won't make much difference. This book uses initial lower case because of the strength of the Java practice and to facilitate similarity in style across several languages.

Guidelines for Language-Specific Conventions

Follow the naming conventions of the language you're using. You can find books for most languages that describe style guidelines. Guidelines for C, C++, Java, and Visual Basic are provided in the sections below.

627

628 **FURTHER READING** For
629 more on Java programming
630 style, see *The Elements of*
631 *Java Style*, 2d ed.
(Vermeulen et al, 2000).

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642 **FURTHER READING** For
643 more on C++ programming
644 style, see *The Elements of*
C++ Style (Bumgardner,
Gray, and Misfeldt 2004).

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652 **FURTHER READING** The
653 classic book on C
programming style is *C*
654 *Programming Guidelines*
(Plum 1984).

655

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Java Conventions

In contrast with C and C++, Java style conventions have been well established since the beginning.

- *i* and *j* are integer indexes.
- Constants are in *ALL_CAPS* separated by underscores.
- Class and interface names capitalize the first letter of each word, including the first—for example, *ClassOrInterfaceName*.
- Variable and method names use lowercase for the first word, with the first letter of each following word capitalized—for example, *variableOrRoutineName*.
- The underscore is not used as a separator within names except for names in all caps.
- *get* and *set* prefixes are used for methods within a class that is currently a *Bean* or planned to become a *Bean* at a later time.

C++ Conventions

Here are the conventions that have grown up around C++ programming.

- *i* and *j* are integer indexes.
- *p* is a pointer.
- Constants, typedefs, and preprocessor macros are in *ALL_CAPS*.
- Class, variable and routine names are in *MixedUpperAndLowerCase()*.
- The underscore is not used as a separator within names, except for names in all caps and certain kinds of prefixes (such as to identify global variables).

As with C programming, this convention is far from standard, and different environments have standardized on different convention details.

C Conventions

Several naming conventions apply specifically to the C programming language. You may use these conventions in C, or you may adapt them to other languages.

- *c* and *ch* are character variables.
- *i* and *j* are integer indexes.
- *n* is a number of something.
- *p* is a pointer.
- *s* is a string.

- Preprocessor macros are in *ALL_CAPS*. This is usually extended to include typedefs as well.
- Variable and routine names are in *all_lower_case*.
- The underscore (`_`) character is used as a separator: *lower_case* is more readable than *lowercase*.

These are the conventions for generic, UNIX-style and Linux-style C programming, but C conventions are different in different environments. In Microsoft Windows, C programmers tend to use a form of the Hungarian naming convention and mixed uppercase and lowercase letters for variable names. On the Macintosh, C programmers tend to use mixed-case names for routines because the Macintosh toolbox and operating-system routines were originally designed for a Pascal interface.

Visual Basic Conventions

Visual Basic has not really established firm conventions. The next section recommends a convention for Visual Basic.

Mixed-Language Programming Considerations

When programming in a mixed-language environment, the naming conventions (as well as formatting conventions, documentation conventions, and other conventions) may be optimized for overall consistency and readability—even if that means going against convention for one of the languages that's part of the mix.

In this book, for example, variable names all begin with lower case, which is consistent with conventional Java programming practice and some but not all C++ conventions. This book formats all routine names with an initial capital letter, which follows the C++ convention; the Java convention would be to begin method names with lower case, but this book uses routine names that begin in uppercase across all languages for the sake of overall readability.

Sample Naming Conventions

The standard conventions above tend to ignore several important aspects of naming that were discussed over the past few pages—including variable scoping (private, class, or global), differentiating between class, object, routine, and variable names, and other issues.

The naming-convention guidelines can look complicated when they're strung across several pages. They don't need to be terribly complex, however, and you can adapt them to your needs. Variable names include three kinds of information:

- The contents of the variable (what it represents)
- The kind of data (named constant, primitive variable, user-defined type, or class)
- The scope of the variable (private, class, package, or global)

Here are examples of naming conventions for C, C++, Java, and Visual Basic that have been adapted from the guidelines presented earlier. These specific conventions aren't necessarily recommended, but they give you an idea of what an informal naming convention includes.

Table 11-3. Sample Naming Convention for C++, and Java

Entity	Description
<i>ClassName</i>	Class names are in mixed upper and lower case with an initial capital letter.
<i>TypeName</i>	Type definitions including enumerated types and typedefs use mixed upper and lower case with an initial capital letter
<i>EnumeratedTypes</i>	In addition to the rule above, enumerated types are always stated in the plural form.
<i>localVariable</i>	Local variables are in mixed uppercase and lowercase with an initial lower case letter. The name should be independent of the underlying data type and should refer to whatever the variable represents.
<i>RoutineName()</i>	Routines are in mixed uppercase and lowercase. (Good routine names are discussed in Section 5.2.)
<i>m_ClassVariable</i>	Member variables that are available to multiple routines within a class, but only within a class, are prefixed with an <i>m_</i> .
<i>g_GlobalVariable</i>	Global variables are prefixed with a <i>g_</i> .
<i>CONSTANT</i>	Named constants are in <i>ALL_CAPS</i> .
<i>MACRO</i>	Macros are in <i>ALL_CAPS</i> .
<i>Base_EnumeratedType</i>	Enumerated types are prefixed with a mnemonic for their base type stated in the singular—for example, <i>Color_Red</i> , <i>Color_Blue</i> .

Table 11-4. Sample Naming Convention for C

Entity	Description
<i>TypeName</i>	Type definitions use mixed upper and lower case with an initial capital letter
<i>GlobalRoutineName()</i>	Public routines are in mixed uppercase and lowercase.
<i>f_FileRoutineName()</i>	Routines that are private to a single module (file) are prefixed with an f-underscore.

<i>LocalVariable</i>	Local variables are in mixed uppercase and lowercase. The name should be independent of the underlying data type and should refer to whatever the variable represents.
<i>f_FileStaticVariable</i>	Module (file) variables are prefixed with an f-underscore.
<i>G_GLOBAL_GlobalVariable</i>	Global variables are prefixed with a G_ and a mnemonic of the module (file) that defines the variable in all uppercase—for example, <i>SCREEN_Dimensions</i> .
<i>LOCAL_CONSTANT</i>	Named constants that are private to a single routine or module (file) are in all uppercase—for example, <i>ROWS_MAX</i> .
<i>G_GLOBALCONSTANT</i>	Global named constants are in all uppercase and are prefixed with G_ and a mnemonic of the module (file) that defines the named constant in all uppercase—for example, <i>G_SCREEN_ROWS_MAX</i> .
<i>LOCALMACRO()</i>	Macro definitions that are private to a single routine or module (file) are in all uppercase.
<i>G_GLOBAL_MACRO()</i>	Global macro definitions are in all uppercase and are prefixed with G_ and a mnemonic of the module (file) that defines the macro in all uppercase—for example, <i>G_SCREEN_LOCATION()</i> .

Because Visual Basic is not case sensitive, special rules apply for differentiating between type names and variable names.

Table 11-5. Sample Naming Convention for Visual Basic

Entity	Description
<i>C_ClassName</i>	Class names are in mixed upper and lower case with an initial capital letter and a C_ prefix.
<i>T_TypeName</i>	Type definitions including enumerated types and typedefs used mixed upper and lower case with an initial capital letter and a T_ prefix.
<i>T_EnumeratedTypes</i>	In addition to the rule above, enumerated types are always stated in the plural form.
<i>localVariable</i>	Local variables are in mixed uppercase and lowercase with an initial lower case letter. The name should be independent of the underlying data type and should refer to whatever the variable represents.
<i>RoutineName()</i>	Routines are in mixed uppercase and lowercase. (Good routine names are discussed in Section 5.2.)
<i>m_ClassVariable</i>	Member variables that are available to multiple routines within a class, but only within a class, are prefixed with an m_.
<i>g_GlobalVariable</i>	Global variables are prefixed with a g_.

<i>CONSTANT</i>	Named constants are in <i>ALL_CAPS</i> .
<i>Base_EnumeratedType</i>	Enumerated types are prefixed with a mnemonic for their base type stated in the singular—for example, <i>Color_Red</i> , <i>Color_Blue</i> .

11.5 Standardized Prefixes

Standardizing prefixes for common meanings provides a terse but consistent and readable approach to naming data. The best known scheme for standardizing prefixes is the Hungarian naming convention, which is a set of detailed guidelines for naming variables and routines (not Hungarians!) that was widely used at one time in Microsoft Windows programming. Although the Hungarian naming convention is no longer in widespread use, the basic idea of standardizing on terse, precise abbreviations continues to have value.

Standardized Prefixes are composed of two parts: the user-defined–data type (UDT) abbreviation and the semantic prefix.

User-Defined–Type (UDT) Abbreviation

The UDT abbreviation identifies the data type of the object or variable being named. UDT abbreviations might refer to entities such as windows, screen regions, and fonts. A UDT abbreviation generally doesn’t refer to any of the predefined data types offered by the programming language.

UDTs are described with short codes that you create for a specific program and then standardize on for use in that program. The codes are mnemonics such as *wn* for windows and *scr* for screen regions. Here’s a sample list of UDTs that you might use in a program for a word processor:

Table 11-6. Sample of UDTs for a Word Processor

UDT Abbreviation	Meaning
<i>ch</i>	Character (a character not in the C++ sense, but in the sense of the data type a word-processing program would use to represent a character in a document)
<i>doc</i>	Document
<i>pa</i>	Paragraph
<i>scr</i>	Screen region
<i>sel</i>	Selection
<i>wn</i>	Window

When you use UDTs, you also define programming-language data types that use the same abbreviations as the UDTs. Thus, if you had the UDTs in the table above, you'd see data declarations like these:

```
CH    chCursorPosition;
SCR   scrUserWorkspace;
DOC   docActive
PA    firstPaActiveDocument;
PA    lastPaActiveDocument;
WN    wnMain;
```

These examples are from a word processor. For use on your own projects, you would create UDT abbreviations for the UDTs that are used most commonly within your environment.

Semantic Prefix

Semantic prefixes go a step beyond the UDT and describe how the variable or object is used. Unlike UDTs, which vary project to project, semantic prefixes are somewhat standard across projects. Table 11-7 shows a list of standard semantic prefixes.

Table 11-7. Semantic Prefixes

Semantic Prefix	Meaning
<i>c</i>	Count (as in the number of records, characters, and so on)
<i>first</i>	The first element that needs to be dealt with in an array. <i>first</i> is similar to <i>min</i> but relative to the current operation rather than to the array itself.
<i>g</i>	Global variable
<i>i</i>	Index into an array
<i>last</i>	The last element that needs to be dealt with in an array. <i>last</i> is the counterpart of <i>first</i> .
<i>lim</i>	The upper limit of elements that need to be dealt with in an array. <i>lim</i> is not a valid index. Like <i>last</i> , <i>lim</i> is used as a counterpart of <i>first</i> . Unlike <i>last</i> , <i>lim</i> represents a noninclusive upper bound on the array; <i>last</i> represents a final, legal element. Generally, <i>lim</i> equals <i>last</i> + 1.
<i>m</i>	Class-level variable
<i>max</i>	The absolute last element in an array or other kind of list. <i>max</i> refers to the array itself rather than to operations on the array.
<i>min</i>	The absolute first element in an array or other kind of list.
<i>p</i>	Pointer

Semantic prefixes are formatted in lowercase or mixed upper and lower case and are combined with the UDTs and with each other as needed. For example, the first paragraph in a document would be named *pa* to show that it's a paragraph and *first* to show that it's the first paragraph: *firstPa*. An index into the set of

paragraphs would be named *iPa*; *cPa* is the count, or the number of paragraphs. *firstPaActiveDocument* and *lastPaActiveDocument* are the first and last paragraphs in the current active document.

Advantages of Standardized Prefixes

KEY POINT

Standardized Prefixes give you all the general advantages of having a naming convention as well as several other advantages. Because so many names are standard, there are fewer names to remember in any single program or class.

Standardized Prefixes add precision to several areas of naming that tend to be imprecise. The precise distinctions between *min*, *first*, *last*, and *max* are particularly helpful.

Standardized Prefixes make names more compact. For example, you can use *cpa* for the count of paragraphs rather than *totalParagraphs*. You can use *ipa* to identify an index into an array of paragraphs rather than *indexParagraphs* or *paragraphsIndex*.

Finally, standardized Prefixes allow you to check types accurately when you're using abstract data types that your compiler can't necessarily check: *paReformat* = *docReformat* is probably wrong because *pa* and *doc* are different UDTs.

The main pitfall with standardized prefixes is neglecting to give the variable a meaningful name in addition to its prefix. If *ipa* unambiguously designates an index into an array of paragraphs, it is tempting not to make the name more descriptive, not to name it something more meaningful like *ipaActiveDocument*. Thus, readability is not as good as it would be with a more descriptive name.

Ultimately, this complaint about standardized prefixes is not a pitfall as much as a limitation. No technique is a silver bullet, and individual discipline and judgment will always be needed with any technique. *ipa* is a better variable name than *i*, which is at least a step in the right direction.

11.6 Creating Short Names That Are Readable

KEY POINT

The desire to use short variable names is in some ways a historical remnant of an earlier age of computing. Older languages like assembler, generic Basic, and Fortran limited variable names to two to eight characters and forced programmers to create short names. Early computing was more closely linked to mathematics, and it's use of terms like *i*, *j*, and *k* as the variables in summations and other equations. In modern languages like C++, Java, and Visual Basic, you

785 can create names of virtually any length; you have almost no reason to shorten
786 meaningful names.

787 If circumstances do require you to create short names, note that some methods of
788 shortening names are better than others. You can create good short variable
789 names by eliminating needless words, using short synonyms, and using other
790 abbreviation techniques. You can use any of several abbreviation strategies. It's
791 a good idea to be familiar with multiple techniques for abbreviating because no
792 single technique works well in all cases.

793 General Abbreviation Guidelines

794 Here are several guidelines for creating abbreviations. Some of them contradict
795 others, so don't try to use them all at the same time.

- 796 • Use standard abbreviations (the ones in common use, which are listed in a
797 dictionary).
- 798 • Remove all nonleading vowels. (*computer* becomes *cmptr*, and *screen*
799 becomes *scrn*. *apple* becomes *appl*, and *integer* becomes *intr*.)
- 800 • Remove articles: *and*, *or*, *the*, and so on.
- 801 • Use the first letter or first few letters of each word.
- 802 • Truncate after the first, second, or third (whichever is appropriate) letter of
803 each word.
- 804 • Keep the first and last letters of each word.
- 805 • Use every significant word in the name, up to a maximum of three words.
- 806 • Remove useless suffixes—*ing*, *ed*, and so on.
- 807 • Keep the most noticeable sound in each syllable.
- 808 • Iterate through these techniques until you abbreviate each variable name to
809 between 8 to 20 characters, or the number of characters to which your
810 language limits variable names.

811 Phonetic Abbreviations

812 Some people advocate creating abbreviations based on the sound of the words
813 rather than their spelling. Thus *skating* becomes *sk8ing*, *highlight* becomes *hilite*,
814 *before* becomes *b4*, *execute* becomes *xqt*, and so on. This seems too much like
815 asking people to figure out personalized license plates to me, and I don't
816 recommend it. As an exercise, figure out what these names mean:

ILV2SK8 *XMEQWK* *S2DTM8O* *NXTC* *TRMN8R*

Comments on Abbreviations

You can fall into several traps when creating abbreviations. Here are some rules for avoiding pitfalls:

Don't abbreviate by removing one character from a word

Typing one character is little extra work, and the one-character savings hardly justifies the loss in readability. It's like the calendars that have "Jun" and "Jul." You have to be in a big hurry to spell June as "Jun." With most one-letter deletions, it's hard to remember whether you removed the character. Either remove more than one character or spell out the word.

Abbreviate consistently

Always use the same abbreviation. For example, use *Num* everywhere or *No* everywhere, but don't use both. Similarly, don't abbreviate a word in some names and not in others. For instance, don't use the full word *Number* in some places and the abbreviation *Num* in others.

Create names that you can pronounce

Use *xPos* rather than *xPsm* and *needsComp* rather than *ndsCmptg*. Apply the telephone test—if you can't read your code to someone over the phone, rename your variables to be more distinctive (Kernighan and Plauger 1978).

Avoid combinations that result in mispronunciation

To refer to the end of *B*, favor *ENDB* over *BEND*. If you use a good separation technique, you won't need this guideline since *B-END*, *BEnd*, or *b_end* won't be mispronounced.

Use a thesaurus to resolve naming collisions

One problem in creating short names is naming collisions—names that abbreviate to the same thing. For example, if you're limited to three characters and you need to use *fired* and *full revenue disbursal* in the same area of a program, you might inadvertently abbreviate both to *frd*.

One easy way to avoid naming collisions is to use a different word with the same meaning, so a thesaurus is handy. In this example, *dismissed* might be substituted for *fired* and *complete revenue disbursal* might be substituted for *full revenue disbursal*. The three-letter abbreviations become *dsm* and *crd*, eliminating the naming collision.

Document extremely short names with translation tables in the code

In languages that allow only very short names, include a translation table to provide a reminder of the mnemonic content of the variables. Include the table as comments at the beginning of a block of code. Here's an example in Fortran:

Fortran Example of a Good Translation Table

```
C *****
C   Translation Table
C
C   Variable      Meaning
C   -----      -
C   XPOS          x-Coordinate Position (in meters)
C   YPOS          Y-Coordinate Position (in meters)
C   NDSCMP        Needs Computing (=0 if no computation is needed;
C                   =1 if computation is needed)
C   PTGTTL        Point Grand Total
C   PTVLMX        Point Value Maximum
C   PSCRMX        Possible Score Maximum
C *****
```

You might think that this technique is outdated, abut as recently as mid-2003 I worked with a client that had hundreds of thousands of lines of code written in RPG that was subject to a 6-character-variable-name limitation. These issues still come up from time to time.

Document all abbreviations in a project-level “Standard Abbreviations” document

Abbreviations in code create two general risks:

- A reader of the code might not understand the abbreviation
- Other programmers might use multiple abbreviations to refer to the same word, which creates needless confusion

To address both these potential problems, you can create a “Standard Abbreviations” document that captures all the coding abbreviations used on your project. The document can be a word processor document or a spreadsheet. On a very large project, it could be a database. The document is checked into version control and checked out anytime anyone creates a new abbreviation in the code. Entries in the document should be sorted by the full word, not the abbreviation.

This might seem like a lot of overhead, but aside from a small amount of startup-overhead, it really just sets up a mechanism that helps the project use abbreviations effectively. It addresses the first of the two general risks described above by documenting all abbreviations in use. The fact that a programmer can’t create a new abbreviation without the overhead of checking the Standard Abbreviations document out of version control, entering the abbreviation, and checking it back in *is a good thing*. It means that an abbreviation won’t be created unless it is so common that it’s worth the hassle of documenting it.

It addresses the second risk by reducing the likelihood that a programmer will create a redundant abbreviation. A programmer who wants to abbreviate

893 something will check out the abbreviations document and enter the new
894 abbreviation. If there is already an abbreviation for the word the programmer
895 wants to abbreviate, the programmer will notice that and will then use the
896 existing abbreviation instead of creating a new one.

897 The general issue illustrated by this guideline is the difference between write-
898 time convenience and read-time convenience. This approach clearly creates a
899 write-time *inconvenience*, but programmers over the lifetime of a system spend
900 far more time reading code than writing code. This approach increases read-time
901 convenience. By the time all the dust settles on a project, it might well also have
902 improved write-time convenience.

903 ***Remember that names matter more to the reader of the code than to the***
904 ***writer***

905 Read code of your own that you haven't seen for at least six months and notice
906 where you have to work to understand what the names mean. Resolve to change
907 the practices that cause confusion.

908 11.7 Kinds of Names to Avoid

909 Here are some kinds of variable names to avoid:

910 ***Avoid misleading names or abbreviations***

911 Be sure that a name is unambiguous. For example, *FALSE* is usually the opposite
912 of *TRUE* and would be a bad abbreviation for "Fig and Almond Season."

913 ***Avoid names with similar meanings***

914 If you can switch the names of two variables without hurting the program, you
915 need to rename both variables. For example, *input* and *inputValue*, *recordNum*
916 and *numRecords*, and *fileNumber* and *fileIndex* are so semantically similar that if
917 you use them in the same piece of code you'll easily confuse them and install
918 some subtle, hard-to-find errors.

919 **CROSS-REFERENCE** The
920 technical term for differences
921 like this is "psychological
922 distance." For details, see
923 "How "Psychological
924 Distance" Can Help" in
925 Section 23.4.

919 ***Avoid variables with different meanings but similar names***

920 If you have two variables with similar names and different meanings, try to
921 rename one of them or change your abbreviations. Avoid names like *clientRecs*
922 and *clientReps*. They're only one letter different from each other, and the letter is
923 hard to notice. Have at least two-letter differences between names, or put the
924 differences at the beginning or at the end. *clientRecords* and *clientReports* are
925 better than the original names.

926 ***Avoid names that sound similar, such as wrap and rap***

927 Homonyms get in the way when you try to discuss your code with others. One of
928 my pet peeves about Extreme Programming (Beck 2000) is its overly clever use

929 of the terms Goal Donor and Gold Owner, which are virtually indistinguishable
930 when spoken. You end up having conversations like this:

931 *I was just speaking with the Goal Donor—*

932 *Did you say “Gold Owner” or “Goal Donor?”*

933 *I said “Goal Donor.”*

934 *What?*

935 *GOAL - - - DONOR!*

936 *OK, Goal Donor. You don’t have to yell, Goll’ Darn it.*

937 *Did you say “Gold Donut?”*

938 Remember that the telephone test applies to similar sounding names just as it
939 does to oddly abbreviated names.

940 ***Avoid numerals in names***

941 If the numerals in a name are really significant, use an array instead of separate
942 variables. If an array is inappropriate, numerals are even more inappropriate. For
943 example, avoid *file1* and *file2*, or *total1* and *total2*. You can almost always think
944 of a better way to differentiate between two variables than by tacking a *1* or a *2*
945 onto the end of the name. I can’t say *never* use numerals, but you should be
946 desperate before you do.

947 ***Avoid misspelled words in names***

948 It’s hard enough to remember how words are supposed to be spelled. To require
949 people to remember “correct” misspellings is simply too much to ask. For
950 example, misspelling *highlight* as *hilite* to save three characters makes it
951 devilishly difficult for a reader to remember how *highlight* was misspelled. Was
952 it *highlite*? *hilite*? *hilight*? *hilit*? *jai-a-lai-t*? Who knows?

953 ***Avoid words that are commonly misspelled in English***

954 *Absense, acumulate, acsend, calender, concieve, defferred, definate,*
955 *independance, occassionally, prefered, reciept, superseed,* and many others are
956 common misspellings in English. Most English handbooks contain a list of
957 commonly misspelled words. Avoid using such words in your variable names.

958 ***Don’t differentiate variable names solely by capitalization***

959 If you’re programming in a case-sensitive language such as C++, you may be
960 tempted to use *frd* for *fired*, *FRD* for *final review duty*, and *Frd* for *full revenue*
961 *disbursal*. Avoid this practice. Although the names are unique, the association of

each with a particular meaning is arbitrary and confusing. *Frd* could just as easily be associated with *final review duty* and *FRD* with *full revenue disbursal*, and no logical rule will help you or anyone else to remember which is which.

Avoid multiple natural languages

In multi-national projects, enforce use of a single natural language for all code including class names, variable names, and so on. Reading another programmer's code can be a challenge; reading another programmer's code in Southeast Martian is impossible.

Avoid the names of standard types, variables, and routines

All programming-language guides contain lists of the language's reserved and predefined names. Read the list occasionally to make sure you're not stepping on the toes of the language you're using. For example, the following code fragment is legal in PL/I, but you would be a certifiable idiot to use it:

975

CODING HORROR

```
976     if if = then then
977         then = else;
          else else = if;
```

Don't use names that are totally unrelated to what the variables represent

Sprinkling names such as *margaret* and *pookie* throughout your program virtually guarantees that no one else will be able to understand it. Avoid your boyfriend's name, wife's name, favorite beer's name, or other clever (aka silly) names for variables, unless the program is really about your boyfriend, wife, or favorite beer. Even then, you would be wise to recognize that each of these might change, and that therefore the generic names *boyFriend*, *wife*, and *favoriteBeer* are superior!

Avoid names containing hard-to-read characters

Be aware that some characters look so similar that it's hard to tell them apart. If the only difference between two names is one of these characters, you might have a hard time telling the names apart. For example, try to circle the name that doesn't belong in each of the following sets:

<i>eyeChartl</i>	<i>eyeChartI</i>	<i>eyeChartl</i>
<i>TTLCONFUSION</i>	<i>TTLCONFUSION</i>	<i>TTLCONFUSION</i>
<i>hard2Read</i>	<i>hardZRead</i>	<i>hard2Read</i>
<i>GRANDTOTAL</i>	<i>GRANDTOTAL</i>	<i>6RANDTOTAL</i>
<i>ttl5</i>	<i>ttlS</i>	<i>ttlS</i>

Pairs that are hard to distinguish include (1 and l), (1 and I), (, and), (0 and O), (2 and Z), (; and :), (S and 5), and (G and 6).

Do details like these really matter? Indeed! Gerald Weinberg reports that in the 1970s, a comma was used in a Fortran *FORMAT* statement where a period should have been used. The result was that scientists miscalculated a spacecraft’s trajectory and lost a space probe—to the tune of \$1.6 billion (Weinberg 1983).

CROSS-REFERENCE For considerations in using data, see the checklist in Chapter 10, “General Issues in Using Variables.”

CHECKLIST: Naming Variables

General Naming Considerations

- ☐ Does the name fully and accurately describe what the variable represents?
- ☐ Does the name refer to the real-world problem rather than to the programming-language solution?
- ☐ Is the name long enough that you don’t have to puzzle it out?
- ☐ Are computed-value qualifiers, if any, at the end of the name?
- ☐ Does the name use *Count* or *Index* instead of *Num*?

Naming Specific Kinds Of Data

- ☐ Are loop index names meaningful (something other than *i*, *j*, or *k* if the loop is more than one or two lines long or is nested)?
- ☐ Have all “temporary” variables been renamed to something more meaningful?
- ☐ Are boolean variables named so that their meanings when they’re *True* are clear?
- ☐ Do enumerated-type names include a prefix or suffix that indicates the category—for example, *Color_* for *Color_Red*, *Color_Green*, *Color_Blue*, and so on?
- ☐ Are named constants named for the abstract entities they represent rather than the numbers they refer to?

Naming Conventions

- ☐ Does the convention distinguish among local, class, and global data?
- ☐ Does the convention distinguish among type names, named constants, enumerated types, and variables?
- ☐ Does the convention identify input-only parameters to routines in languages that don’t enforce them?
- ☐ Is the convention as compatible as possible with standard conventions for the language?
- ☐ Are names formatted for readability?

Short Names

- ☐ Does the code use long names (unless it’s necessary to use short ones)?

- 1028 ☐ Does the code avoid abbreviations that save only one character?
- 1029 ☐ Are all words abbreviated consistently?
- 1030 ☐ Are the names pronounceable?
- 1031 ☐ Are names that could be mispronounced avoided?
- 1032 ☐ Are short names documented in translation tables?

1033 **Common Naming Problems: Have You Avoided...**

- 1034 ☐ ...names that are misleading?
- 1035 ☐ ...names with similar meanings?
- 1036 ☐ ...names that are different by only one or two characters?
- 1037 ☐ ...names that sound similar?
- 1038 ☐ ...names that use numerals?
- 1039 ☐ ...names intentionally misspelled to make them shorter?
- 1040 ☐ ...names that are commonly misspelled in English?
- 1041 ☐ ...names that conflict with standard library-routine names or with predefined variable names?
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- 1043 ☐ ...totally arbitrary names?
- 1044 ☐ ...hard-to-read characters?
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1046 **Key Points**

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- Good variable names are a key element of program readability. Specific kinds of variables such as loop indexes and status variables require specific considerations.
 - Names should be as specific as possible. Names that are vague enough or general enough to be used for more than one purpose are usually bad names.
 - Naming conventions distinguish among local, class, and global data. They distinguish among type names, named constants, enumerated types, and variables.
 - Regardless of the kind of project you're working on, you should adopt a variable naming convention. The kind of convention you adopt depends on the size of your program and the number of people working on it.
 - Abbreviations are rarely needed with modern programming languages. If you do use abbreviations, keep track of abbreviations in a project dictionary or use the Standardized Prefixes approach.