

Programmer's Style Guide

A guide to writing usable and maintainable programs
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Introduction

People often tend to judge the quality of software only by the number of its functions, the beauty of its user interface or the ease of its utilization. But this is not the whole truth. Good software is more than that:

Good software is stable.

Well, actually this should be obvious: good software should have few bugs. (Oddly enough, some big and well-known software companies seem to be quite successful while not following this rule.) Of course, it is not possible to write 100% bug-free programs, but following a good coding style can save you from quite a few headaches.

Good software is fault tolerant.

This is even a higher aim than stability: not only that a program should not have bugs itself, but it should also be as tolerant as possible of failures of linked systems. A library function should always behave as reasonable as possible even when it is passed invalid parameters, and programs should give correct and meaningful error messages when the underlying software or hardware does not act like it should. Achieving this is not *that* hard, when you keep a few basic rules in mind.

Good software is reusable.

Some people think that reinventing the wheel over and over again is a basic requirement for a working software industry. However, other people don't. They try to build their code in a way that parts of it can be reused by other projects. But there are a few things to consider when you want your code to be *really* reusable.

Good software is maintainable.

Maintainability is not a question of simplicity. Even complex and powerful programs can be wonderfully maintainable, if you only take the necessary measures right from the start.

Good software is understandable.

What? Not only the original author of a program should be able to understand it, but everybody else looking at the code, too? Hey, that can't be right! That would mean that others can learn from my code! That others could even change my code, improve it, fix bugs, take over maintenance . . . but wait! Couldn't that be a good thing, too?

Of course, there are a lot of things to do when you want to write good software. One of these things is that you should follow some standards in your coding style. To propose such standards, is the purpose of this guide.

[Chapter 1 \[How to Implement\]](#), [page 3](#) deals with the proper way of implementing functions, not regarding naming conventions, code formatting and the like. Following the rules from this chapter will change how your software behaves, and make it more stable and fault tolerant.

[Chapter 2 \[How to Code\]](#), [page 4](#) contains recommendations on how to translate an algorithm into code of a computer language. Whether or not you follow these guidelines (which are about modularity, naming conventions and all that sort of stuff) will not necessarily have impact on the functionality of your software, but on the reusability and the maintainability.

[Chapter 3 \[How to Format\]](#), [page 6](#) gives you hints on the formatting of the code. This section deals with all the parts of the sourcecode that the compiler actually ignores, but help to make your software maintainable and understandable, like comments, whitespaces and indenting.

This text mainly concentrates of writing software in the C programming language, but most of the principles explained here can easily be translated to other languages.

This is not a replacement for the GNU Coding Standards (which you can find at <http://www.gnu.org/prep/standards.html>). This document does not deal with the specific issues about writing free software, and the very specific issues about writing software that should be incorporated into the GNU system. However, the above arguments

probably make clear that only free software can be *really* good software, and therefore it is recommended that you read the GNU Coding Standards, too. In any case this document tries to not contradict the GNU Coding Standards.

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1 How to Implement

1.1 Defensive programming

While it is good to believe that there is good in everybody, it is better to not rely on that.

Virtually every piece of code depends on underlying systems, either soft- or hardware. Software can have bugs, hardware can fail. Even your own code can have bugs. You can't do anything against that. But you can reduce the impact bugs and hardware failures have on the system.

1.1.1 Check the return values of the functions you call

Many functions provide return values that tell about success or failure of the function. If a function fails, react reasonably. Ignoring return values from a function can be like Russian roulette.

1.1.2 Check the validity of parameters in your functions

Every function you write (especially the external ones) carry the risk of being called with invalid parameters. A good function always behaves correct, even when it is called incorrectly.

If you use the glib library, the macros `g_return_if_fail()` and `g_return_val_if_fail()` provide a good way of checking parameters.

But what is correct behaviour when parameters make no sense? The answer is clear:

1.1.3 Return information about failure from your functions

Provide a means for the caller of your function to perceive failure. Make it possible to distinguish between different reasons of failure, if it could make sense for the caller to react differently. If your function fails, do not (besides the error code) return something that could look like a reasonable result (for example, if your function should return a pointer to a newly-allocated dynamic variable, always return a NULL pointer if it fails. Never return a random pointer, or a pointer to a improperly initialized data structure).

1.1.4 Expect the impossible

In a `switch` statement, always use `default`. If only specific cases are valid, place an assertion after the `default`.

If you use the glib library, use `g_assert_not_reached()`.

2 How to Code

2.1 Modularity

2.1.1 Be aware of the two levels of modularity

A program consists of different libraries, and a library consists of different object files (built from different source files). The following is not only true for the relationship between libraries, but also for the relationship between the different sources of a library, as well as the different sources of a program.

2.1.2 Make independent modules

If every module can be understood without reading the source of the other modules, people will understand the whole program better. If every module can be tested without relying on other modules, your code can get more stable. And, if every module can be debugged without digging through all the other code, you will be able to fix bugs much faster than otherwise.

Avoid circular dependencies in your modules. Avoid dependencies on too many other modules in a single module. Avoid modules that are tied together too strong.

2.1.3 Be clean in the headers

For C, the header files are the faces of your modules. If you put something in a header, you have to expect that people rely on it. Don't put implementation specific stuff in a header. Don't define structures in your header - define the structure in the main source, and simply put a type definition in the header, to make your structures opaque.

As every source file is a 'low-level module', every source file must have it's own header if it exports symbols that other source files of the same 'high-level module' (library or application) uses. Don't write a 'big' header file in which you define all symbols that are shared among your library or application, as that would make the internal dependency structure of your modules very unclear.

And, of course, protect all headers against multiple including.

2.1.4 Be clean with what you include

The `#include` preprocessor directives are a way of documenting dependencies. Don't include what you don't need. Explicitly include every header you directly depend on, even if it's implicitly included in another header.

Be careful to use `#include<...>` for system headers and headers that are external to your project and `#include "..."` for your own headers.

In header files, only include other headers when the code in this header needs the other header. Foreign headers you include in the header of your library have to be present on every system where your library should be used.

In source files, include all headers the source depends on, even those already included in the source's own header. This documents clearly what your source depends on.

2.1.5 Use the right order for includes

If your project has a global configuration file (like `autoconf`'s `config.h`), this must be included in every source file, and it must be included as the *very first* line of your code after comments, so that all other header files can react on the defines. `config.h` may only include `#define`'s. Nobody expects code in such a file. Don't include `config.h` in a

header file, unless you want to force all projects that use your header to have a `config.h`, too.

Next should be your source's own header file (where this source exports its external symbols). By putting no other includes before this, you implicitly check whether your header file is self-contained, i.e. if it contains all `#include`'s it needs to compile.

Then, include all needed header files that are external to your project, with the most usual ones first. Last, include the needed header files of the other modules of your project.

Never put any code before the `#include`'s. Nobody searches them somewhere else as at the very top of your source or header file.

2.1.6 Don't put code in header files

Nobody expects *real* code in files that end in `.h`.

2.1.7 Provide test code

When you write a module, you will write code to test it. That code is a part of the module. Put it in it's own file, document it, and make it a program that others can use to test if the module behaves correctly on their system. GNU Automake provides a very good means for running automatic tests when a program is built with `make check`.

2.2 Symbol names

2.2.1 Define and use a module prefix

Choose a prefix for a module, and use that prefix for all symbols in that module. If the module prefix is `'foo'`, then all public symbols of that module should start with `'foo_'`, and all private symbols with `'_foo_'`.

2.2.2 Name functions after the structure they operate on

If the module `foo` defines a structure `bar`, name the structure tag `'_foo_bar'`, define the structure tag in the main source, and define a type `'foo_bar'` in the header. Name all the functions operating on this structure beginning with `'foo_bar_'`. For example, name a function that frees the memory of the structure, `'foo_bar_free'`.

2.2.3 Make your private global symbols static

Well, that's the reason why we have static symbols anyway, isn't it?

3 How to Format

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