

# C Coding Standards for EECS 381

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- **Introduction**

- *Each software organization will have its own coding standards or "style guide" for how code should be written for ease of reading and maintenance. You should expect to have to learn and follow the coding standards for whichever organization you find yourself in. For this course, you must follow this set of coding standards.*

- **The Concept of Single Point of Maintenance**

- *Programs get modified as they are developed, debugged, corrected, and revised to add new features. High-quality code makes modifications easier by having single points of maintenance instead of multiple places in the code that have to be changed.*
  - Why program constants or parameters are named as symbols or const variables: Change the single definition, recompile, and the change takes place everywhere that name is used.
  - Why functions are used instead of duplicated code. Change the single function, rebuild, and that aspect of the program's behavior changes everywhere that function is used.
- *Many of these coding standards support single point of maintenance.*

- **The Concept of Coding Reliability**

- *Many bugs can be prevented by coding in a simple, clear, and consistent style that follows idioms and patterns that experienced programmers have developed.*
- *Many of these coding standards improve coding reliability.*

- **The Concept of Not Looking Clueless**

- *\* Most of these coding standards are based on the wisdom of the "gurus" of programming. But some of them address common student errors that professionals would rarely make, and so are unlikely to appear in industry standards. The worst of these are marked with a leading asterisk (like this item). If you don't want to look clueless, you should especially pay attention to these items.*

- **C compiler options for this course**

- *Set compiler options to require function prototypes, the 1999 Standard, and treat non-standard code as pedantic errors (for gcc and clang). The course assumes only C89 features except for C99's // comments and declare-anywhere - see course materials.*
  - use -std=c99 to specify the dialect
  - in gcc: -std=c99 -pedantic-errors -Wmissing-prototypes -Wall
  - in Xcode LLVM/clang: select c99, add -pedantic-errors to other C flags

- **Names, Types, Variables, and Constants**

- **Names**

- *\* Take names seriously - they are a major way to communicate your design intent to the future human reader (either yourself or somebody else).*
  - Poor names are a major obstacle to understanding code.
- *Do not use cute or humorous names, especially if they don't help communicate the purpose of the code.*
  - Bad: `delete victim; // there is no "victim" here`
  - Better: `delete node_ptr; // there is a node that we are deleting`
  - Bad: `zap(); // sure, it's cute, but what does it do?`
  - Better: `clear_pointers(); // ok - this function clears some pointers.`
- *Don't start variable or function names or #define symbols with underscores.*
  - Leading underscores are reserved for the implementation - break this rule, and you risk name collisions leading to confusing errors.
- *Use an initial upper-case name for your own types (enums, classes, structs, typedef names).*
  - e.g. `struct Thing`, not `struct thing`.
  - Standard Library symbols are almost all initial lower-case, so this is an easy way to distinguish your types from Standard types.
  - The initial upper-case makes the distinction between type names and variable names obvious.
- *Distinguish enum names with a final "\_e", as in `Fruits_e`;*
- *The values for an enum type must be all upper case.*
- *Distinguish typedef names with a final "\_t", as in `Thing_list_t`;*
- *\* Preprocessor symbols defined with #define must be all upper case.*
  - Bad: `#define collection_h`
  - Good: `#define COLLECTION_H`
- *Use typedef to provide a more meaningful, shorter, or detail-hiding name for a type.*
  - Little value if the typedef name is as verbose as the type.
  - Bad: `typedef struct Thing * Thing_struct_ptr_t;`
  - Good: `typedef struct Thing * Thing_ptr_t;`
- *Use variable names that do not have to be documented or explained - longer is usually better.*
  - Worst: `x;`
  - Bad: `bsl;`
  - Good: `binding_set_list;`
- *Single letter conventional variable names are OK for very local, temporary purposes.*
  - OK:

```
for(int i = 0; i < n_elements; i++)
    sum = x[i];

y = m * x + b;
```
- *Don't ever use easily confused single-letter variable names - don't rely on the font!*
  - Lower-case L (l), upper-case i (I) are too easily confused with each other and the digit one.

- Similarly with upper-case O and digit zero.
- *Use upper/lower mixed case or underscores to improve readability of explanatory names.*
  - Bad: `void processallnonzerodata();`
  - Good: `void ProcessAllNonZeroData();`
  - Good: `void process_all_non_zero_data();`
- *Don't include implementation details such as variable type information in variable names - prefer to emphasize purpose instead.*
  - Bad: `int count_int;`
  - Bad: `const char * ptr_to_const_chars;`
  - Better: `int count;`
  - Better: `const char * input_ptr;`
  - How to tell: What if I need to change the variable type to a similar but different type? E.g. long ints, wide characters. Would it be important to change the variable names to match? If so, implementation details are exposed in the variable names.
- **Numeric types**
  - *Avoid declaring or using unsigned integers; they are seriously error prone and have no compensating advantage.*
    - While they can never be negative, nothing prevents computing a value that is mathematically negative, but gets represented as a large positive value instead.
    - E.g. `for(unsigned int i = 0; i < n; ++i)` is pointless and does nothing helpful and just makes a subtraction error possible.
    - If a number should never be negative, either test it explicitly, or document as an invariant with an assertion.
    - Major exception (not relevant to this course): if bitwise manipulations need to be done (e.g. for hardware control) using unsigned ints for the bit patterns may be more consistent across platforms than signed ints.
  - *To interface with Standard Library functions, use `size_t` or casts; do not explicitly declare an unsigned integer type.*
    - The only case for using unsigned integers is to interface with Standard Library functions that return `size_t` values that traditionally are defined as unsigned to allow a larger possible size. But never declare such variables as "unsigned int"; instead:
      - Declare and use `size_t` variables to hold the values, as in:
        - `size_t len = strlen(s);`
      - or (preferred) cast between `size_t` values and int values, as in:
        - `int len = (int) strlen(s);`
  - *Prefer double to float.*
    - Only use of float: if memory space needs to be saved, or required by an API.
    - Note that in C89 (at least) float argument values are automatically converted to double in function calls.
  - *\* Do not assume that two float or double values will compare equal even if mathematically they should.*
    - Only case where they will: small to moderately large integer values have been assigned (as opposed to computed and then assigned).
    - Otherwise, code should test for a range of values rather than strict equality.
- **Enum types**

- *\* Prefer to use an enumerated type instead of arbitrary numeric code values.*
  - The names in the enumeration express the meaning directly and clearly.
  - Do not use an enumeration if the result is greater program complexity.
    - E.g. translating command strings into enums which are then used to select the relevant code for the command simply doubles the complexity of command-selection code.
- *Give the type a name starting with an upper-case letter terminated with "\_e" or similar.*
- *The names for the values should be all upper case - this is because the names have file scope and we need a reminder that they are a form of constant whose value is present everywhere in the file after the declaration, similar conceptually to a #define symbol which is also written in all upper case.*
- *Always store and pass enum values in the enum type, even though they convert freely to ints.*
  - Keep it in the enum type to maintain the clear and direct meaning.
- *Prefer to use the default for how enum values are assigned by the compiler*
  - Bad: `enum Fruit_e {APPLE = 0, ORANGE, PEAR, BANANA};` // Why? This is the default!
    - Not relying on the default when it is suitable indicates either ignorance or confusion.
  - Bad: `enum Fruit_e {APPLE = 3, ORANGE, PEAR, BANANA};` // Potential fatal confusion!
    - There needs to be a VERY GOOD reason to override the compiler-assigned values.
  - Good: `enum Fruit_e {APPLE, ORANGE, PEAR, BANANA};` // Let the compiler keep track!
- *Understand and use how I/O works with enum values*
  - Enums are written as integer values
  - To read an enum value, read an int, check if for the maximum and minimum valid values, and then assign with a cast to the enumerated type.
- *\* Don't do arithmetic to determine an enum value - this undermines the purpose of the enum type and results in obscure and error-prone code. Often a switch statement is a better choice, especially if the enum value represents a state.*
  - Bad:

```
State_e new_state = old_state + 1;
// what does this mean? Can it go out of range?
```
  - Good:

```
State_e new_state;
switch(old_state) { // obvious what is happening here
    case START:
        new_state = INITIALIZE;
        break;
    case INITIALIZE:
        new_state = OPEN_CONNECTION;
        break;
    case OPEN_CONNECTION:
        new_state = START_TRANSMISSION;
        break;
}
// etc
```

- **Named constants and "magic numbers"**



- In some situations, a string literal is a “magic string” in that it might have to be changed for correct program functioning (e.g a string containing a scanf format). However, output text strings can help make code understandable if it appears as literal strings in place rather than in a block of named constants. See discussion below under "Output text string constants - in place, or in named constants?"
- *\* A name or symbol for a constant that is a simple synonym for the constant's value is **stupid**. The purpose of naming constants is to convey their role or meaning independently of their value; often, the same concept might have a different value at some point in the future.*
  - Criterion for a useful symbol: Could you meaningfully change the value without changing the name?
  - Bad: `#define TWO 2 // what else could it be? 3? This is stupid!`
  - Bad: `#define X 4 // what is this? Can't tell from this name!`
  - Good: `#define MAX_INPUT_SIZE 255 // the maximum input size, currently this value`
  - Good: `#define ASPECT_RATIO = 16./ 9.; // We can tell what this is!`
- *In C, a preprocessor macro with `#define` is the idiom for defining a constant and giving it a symbolic name. Declaring and initializing a `const` variable is the idiom in C++, which will work most of the time, but not always, in C. This is subtle - a strict C89 or C90 Standard C compiler treats an initialized `const` variable as a variable that can't be modified, not as a true constant with the same behavior as a literal constant. This was fixed in C99 and C++.*
  - Example in C89:
    - `const int my_size_c = 42;`
    - `/* invalid in C89 because my_size_c is not a literal constant */`
    - `int my_array[my_size_c];`
    - `#define MY_SIZE 42`
    - `/* preprocessor substitutes in "42", now there is a literal constant */`
    - `int my_array[MY_SIZE];`
- *Distinguish names for constants that are declared variables. Choose and maintain a style such as a final "\_c" or a leading lower-case 'k' followed by an upper-case letter .*
  - Bad: `ymax = screen_h_size; // no clue that right-hand-side is a constant`
  - Good: `const int kScreen_h_size = 1024;`
  - Good: `const int screen_h_size_c = 1024;`
  - Good: `const char * const error_msg_c = "Error encountered!";`
- *\* Preprocessor symbols defined with `#define` must be all upper case.*
  - Bad: `#define collection_h`
  - Good: `#define COLLECTION_H`
  - Bad: `#define pi 3.14159265`
  - Good: `#define PI 3.14159265`
- *Global constants defined as `const` variables at file-scope or externally linked (program-scope) are not global variables - restrictions on global variables do not apply.*
  - Read-only, with a single definition, does not present any maintenance or debugging problem, and helps ensure consistency.
  - Be sure they are fully non-modifiable - e.g. `const char * const` for pointers to string literals.
  - If file-scope, best to give them internal linkage.

- Declare `static` in C.
- File-scope `const` variables are automatically internally linked by default in C++.
- If program-scope, follow global variable guidelines:
  - Put only `extern` declarations in a header file.
  - Put definition and initialization in a `.c` or `.cpp` file that `#includes` the header file.
- *Don't #define fake bool symbols in an effort to "fix" C's lack of a boolean type.*
  - The `bool` type was added to C++ because the zero/non-zero rule for `false/true` in C was not expressive enough. Trying to correct this problem in C with defining fake bool values is a bad idea.
  - Bad:
    - ```
#define TRUE 1
#define FALSE 0
```
  - Some conditions and Standard functions return values that are true in the non-zero sense will not necessarily be `== 1`. So comparing them to a `TRUE` value of 1 would fail. The true/false meaning of non-zero/zero is part of the definition of the C language and should be used by the programmer. See the section on "Idiomatic C"
- **Global variables**
  - *Definition: A global variable is any variable that is declared outside of a function - its scope is either the remainder of the file in which the declaration appears (internal linkage) or program-wide (external linkage). In either case, it is a global variable.*
  - *\* In this course, global variables can be used only where specifically authorized.*
    - This restriction and the required usage are justified in the following rules for where and why global variables should or shouldn't be used.
  - *Global variables should never be used simply to avoid defining function parameters.*
    - Experience shows that passing information through parameters and returned values actually simplifies program design and debugging - global variables used for this purpose are a common source of difficult-to-find bugs.
  - *Global variables are acceptable only when they substantially simplify the information handling in a program. Specifically, they are acceptable only when:*
    - Conceptually, only one instance of the variable makes sense - it is holding information that is unique and applicable to the entire program.
      - E.g. the standard I/O streams are global variables.
    - They have distinctive and meaningful names.
    - They are modified only in one or two conceptually obvious places, and are read-only elsewhere.
    - They are used at widely different points in a function call hierarchy, making passing the values via arguments or returned values extremely cumbersome.
    - Their linkage is carefully handled to avoid ambiguity and restrict access if possible.
      - i.e. C++ methodology is followed.
      - Internal linkage if possible.
  - *Global constants defined as `const` variables at file-scope or externally linked (program-scope) are not global variables - these restrictions do not apply. See above on constants.*
    - Read-only, with a single definition, does not present any maintenance or debugging problem, and helps ensure consistency.
- **String literal constants**
  - *String literal constants can be given names either as a preprocessor symbol with `#define`, or as a `const char *` `const` variable declared and initialized at file scope.*
    - ```
#define PROMPT "Enter command"
```

- `const char * const prompt_msg = "Enter command";`
- *\* Prefer to declare and define as pointers to constants rather than initialized arrays of char:*
  - Bad: `const char message[] = "Goodbye, cruel world!";`
    - Requires extra storage for the array, plus time to copy the literal into the array.
    - `message` is an array sized big enough to hold the string which is copied in at initialization, even though the string has already been stored in memory.
  - Good: `const char * const message = "Goodbye, cruel world!";`
    - Simply sets a pointer to the string literal already stored in memory.
    - `message` is a constant pointer to constant characters - neither the pointer nor the characters can be changed.
- **Output text string constants - in place, or in named constants?**
  - *Output statements often contain constant text that labels or documents the output.*
    - `printf("x = %d, y = %d\n", x, y);`
  - *Sometimes these might be very lengthy:*
    - `printf("%d autosomes were detected during %d auto-hybridization processes at %lf degrees\n", na, nah, temp);`
  - *In this course, you can do either one of the following with output text constants, with pros and cons:*
    - Code the output text constants in place, in the output statement itself:
      - `printf("%d autosomes were detected during %d auto-hybridization processes at %lf degrees\n", na, nah, temp);`
      - Pros: Output statements are more self-explanatory because you can see the output text right there. Overall code structure is simplest.
      - Cons: If messages duplicated, now have a problem because of no single point of maintenance. In a real application, if you need to change the messages (e.g. to translate into another language), you have to find and modify messages all over the code.
    - Define the text in one or more constants that are defined at the top of the source code file:
      - `const char * const out1_txt_c = "autosomes were detected during";`  
`const char * const out2_txt_c = "auto-hybridization processes at";`  
`const char * const out3_txt_c = "degrees\n";`
      - ...
      - `printf("%d %s %d %s %lf %s", na, out1_txt_c, nah, out2_txt_c, temp, out3_txt_c);`
      - or
      - `const char * const out_fmt_c = "%d autosomes were detected during %d auto-hybridization processes at %lf degrees\n";`
      - ...
      - `printf(out_fmt_c, na, nah, temp);`
      - Pros: No problem with duplicated messages - just use the same constant. Messages are all in one place for easy modification.
      - Cons: Code structure is now a lot more complicated. Unless names of constants are extremely descriptive, you can't tell much about the output from looking at the output statement.
    - It is your choice which approach to use in your code. You can also use a sensible consistent combination of both approaches. For example, if the same message is used more than once, define the text as a constant; otherwise, define the text in place.
- **Macros (Preprocessor)**
  - *In this course, avoid defining anything except the simplest macros.*
    - Constants and include guards are about all that you should be doing in this course.

- *All symbols defined with #define must be ALL\_UPPER\_CASE.*
  - A critical reminder that a macro is involved.

- **Idiomatic C**

- *Use the Standard macro NULL to refer to a pointer value of zero (in C only)*
  - Note: a Standard definition of NULL is simply zero:
    - #define NULL 0
- *Take advantage of the definition of non-zero as true, zero as false, when testing pointers or integer values.*
  - Clumsy:
    - if(ptr != NULL) or if(ptr == NULL)
    - if(flag != 0) or if(flag == 0)
  - Better:
    - if(ptr) or if(!ptr)
    - if(flag) or if(!flag)
- *Take advantage of how C-strings are designed to work well with pointers with the terminating null byte providing a built-in sentinel that can be tested by a loop condition.*
  - Bad:
    - ```
void string_copy(char * dest, const char * src)
{
    size_t i, len = strlen(src);
    for(i = 0; i < len; i++)
        dest[i] = src[i];
    dest[i] = '\0';
}
```
  - Good:
    - ```
void string_copy(char * dest, const char * src)
{
    while(*dest++ = *src++);
}
```
  - Best: Use the Standard Library strcpy function - which may be optimized for the architecture.
- *Write for statements in their conventional form if possible.*
  - Good - the conventional, most common form:
    - for(i = 0; i < n; i++) // correct for almost all cases
  - Bad:
    - for(i = 1; i <= n; i++) // confusing - what is this about?
    - for(i = n; i > 0; i--) // better be a good reason for this!
    - for(i = -1; i <= n; i++) // totally confusing!
- *Use the assert macro liberally to help document invariants and help catch programming errors. But remember the effects of #define NDEBUG and their implications:*
  - ONLY for programming errors - not for run-time errors to be reported to the user.
  - NEVER to test for successful resource allocation (e.g. from malloc).
  - Do not do "real work" (such as assigning a variable) in the assertion - it will disappear if NDEBUG is defined.

- **Designing functions**
  - *Use functions freely to improve the clarity and organization of the code.*
    - Modern machines are very efficient for function calls, so avoiding function calls is rarely required for performance.
      - If it is, prefer inline functions to get both performance and clarity.
  - *Define functions that correspond to the conceptual pieces of work to be done, even if only called once or from one place.*
    - Clarify the code structure, making coding, debugging, maintenance, easier.
    - E.g. in a spell-checking program, create a function that processes a document by calling a function that processes a line of the document that in turn calls a function that finds each word in the line.
  - *\* Use functions to avoid duplicating code.*
    - Copy-paste coding means copy-pasting bugs and multiplying debugging and modification effort.
    - Concept: *Single point of maintenance.* If you have to debug or modify, you want one place to do it.
    - How do you tell whether duplicated code should be turned into a function? Move duplicated code into a function if:
      - The code is non-trivial - getting a single point of maintenance is likely to be worthwhile.
      - What the code does can be separated from the context - you can write a function with simple parameters and return value that does the work for each place the duplicated code appears.
      - The result is less total code with the complexity appearing only in a single place - the function - giving a single point of maintenance.
  - *\* Don't clutter code with tiny trivial functions that add no value to clarity or maintainability.*
    - Putting code in a function should add value to the code in some way, either by avoiding code duplication, hiding implementation details, or expressing a concept about the program behavior. If there are no details to put in one place or to hide, or concept being expressed, the function is distracting and pointless. Why make the reader find the definition just to discover the same code could have been written in place with no problem?
    - Bad - no value added by the presence of a function compared to writing the same code in place:
      - ```
void print_not_found_error_message(void)
{
    printf("Specified data item was not found\n");
}
```
    - Not quite as bad - a little bit of value added, by calling a "cleanup" function, but still very little value added:
      - ```
void print_not_found_error_message(void)
{
    printf("Specified data item was not found\n");
    clear_rest_of_input_line();
}
```
    - Better - a general function that expresses a concept for how all error messages will be handled:
      - ```
void print_error_message(const char * msg_ptr)
{
    printf("%s\n", msg_ptr);
    clear_rest_of_input_line();
}
```
  - *If functions are used (or should be used) only within a module, give them internal linkage and keep their declarations out of the header file.*
    - Do not put the prototype in a header file; declare and define in the .c file as static.

- *For functions that might encounter an error condition, return an error value from the function, and the calling code should always check the returned value for the error value before continuing.*
  - If a pointer is returned, a NULL value is usually the best error code value.
  - Otherwise, return an int, where zero means "no error" and non-zero means an error - this allows the simplest and cleanest checking code.
    - ```
if(do_something()) {
    /* handle the error here */
}
/* OK if here */
```
- *\* Avoid Swiss-Army functions that do different things based on a switching parameter.*
  - Bad:

```
void use_tool(/* parameters */, int operation)
{
    if(operation == 1)
        /* act like a corkscrew */
    else if(operation == 2)
        /* act like a screwdriver */
    else if(operation == 3)
        /* act like a big knife */
    else if(operation == 4)
        /* act like a small knife */
    etc
}
```
  - The problem is that you can't tell by reading the call what is going on - you have to know how the switching parameter works, and what the other parameters mean depending on the switching parameter, etc. Separate functions for separate operations are almost always better.
    - Especially bad if the resulting code is almost as long or longer than separate functions with good names would be.
    - Using an enum for the switching parameter helps only slightly because it clutters the rest of the program.
  - Could be justified if:
    - The switch parameter is very simple (like true/false only).
    - The behavior controlled by the switching parameter is conceptually very simple (like turning output on or off).
    - The switched-function is considerably smaller, simpler, and re-uses code much better than separate functions would.
    - The function call is **always** commented with an explanation of the switching parameter value.

- **Code structure**

- *Put function prototypes and struct declarations in the header file if they are part of the module interface, or at the beginning of the implementation file if not.*
  - This ensures that the function definitions can appear in a meaningful and human-readable order - e.g. from top-level down to lowest-level.
  - See Layout discussion.
- *\* Declare variables in the narrowest possible scope.*
  - Note that {} defines a block with a new nested scope in if, while, for, do-while statements, or even all by itself.
  - Declare variables within a if/for/while block where possible.
    - But beware possible inefficiency if a function has to be called to initialize the variable.
  - If a group of variables is only needed in a portion of the code in a function, consider creating a block for that portion and declare the variables at the start of the block.
    - Especially if the function is long or complex.
    - Note that if the portion of the code is controlled by a conditional or iteration, the appropriate block might already be present.

- **Bad:**

```
void foo()
{
    int i = 0;
    int j = 1;
    int k = 2;
    int m = 3;
    int n = 4;
    /* lots of code using only i, j, k */
    /* some code using m and n */
}
```

- **Better:**

```
void foo()
{
    int i = 0;
    int j = 1;
    int k = 2;
    /* lots of code using only i, j, k */
    {
        int m = 3;
        int n = 4;
        /* some code using m and n */
    }
}
```

- *\* Prefer "flat" code to nested code.*

- Deeply nested code is hard to read and fragile to modify. Prefer a code organization of a "flat" series of condition-controlled short code segments. This may require re-arranging the logic, but the result is simpler and easier to work with.

- **Bad:**

```
if(...) {
    ...
    if(...) {
        ...
        if(...) {
            ...
            if(...) {
                ...
            }
        }
    }
}
```

```

        ...
    }
    ...
}
... // I'm lost - just when does this code execute?
}

```

- Better:

```

if(...) {
    ...
}
else if(...) {
    ...
}
else if (...) {
    ...
}
etc

```

- The misguided "single point of return" guideline usually results in deeply nested conditional code. Such code can usually be rewritten as a simple series of conditionals each controlling a block of code that ends with a return. This works especially well if the conditions are checking for error situations.

Usually good:

```

if(...) {
    ...
    return;
}
if(...) {
    ...
    return;
}
if (...) {
    ...
    return;
}
...
return;

```

- *\* Prefer using a switch statement to if-else-if constructions to select actions depending on the value of a single variable.*
  - Generally results in simpler, clearer, and faster code than the equivalent series of if-else if statements.
    - Exceptions: switch statement cannot be used if strings or floating point values are being tested.
    - Not a good choice if ranges of integer values are being tested.
  - Always include a default case with an appropriate action (e.g. an error message or assertion).
  - Terminate each case with a break statement unless you deliberately want to arrange "drop through" to the next case; if so, you must comment on it.
- *Arrange iterative or performance-critical code to minimize function calls that might not be optimized away.*
  - Be aware of what iterative code implies ... what has to be done each time around a loop?
  - Often, the compiler cannot tell whether the code will result in a function computing a different value during execution, and so will not attempt to replace multiple calls with a single call.
  - Bad: strlen gets called every time around the loop - and what does it do?

```

void make_upper(char * s)
{
    size_t i;
    for(i = 0; i < strlen(s); i++)
        s[i] = toupper(s[i]);
}

```

- Better: compute the length of the string only once before starting the loop.

```
void make_upper(char * s)
{
    size_t i, n = strlen(s);
    for(i = 0; i < n; i++)
        s[i] = toupper(s[i]);
}
```

- Best - take advantage of how C-strings work - no need to compute length of string; we have to access each character anyway, so just stop at the end.

```
void make_upper(char * s)
{
    for(; *s; s++)
        *s = toupper(*s);
}
```

Or

```
void make_upper(char * s)
{
    while(*s = toupper(*s))
        s++;
}
```

- *Do not use the "short circuit evaluation" feature of the logical operators && and || as a way to specify flow of control that could be expressed more explicitly with if-else.*
  - Using short-circuit evaluation for flow of control is an hold-over from early non-optimizing compilers and less expressive languages. Modern compilers will generate optimized code either way, so there is no advantage to making your reader solve a logic problem to discover the sequence of program activity. Note that short-circuit evaluation is not a logic principle, but an old optimization trick.
  - How to tell:
    - If the values being combined are simple booleans (or the C equivalent) or calls to simple functions with no side-effects that return boolean values (often called *predicates*), then the expression is a purely logical combination, and letting short-circuit evaluation happen is natural and causes no problems.
    - If the values being combined with logical operators are return values from functions that do real work or have side effects (such as I/O), then understanding the flow of control becomes more complex; be more clear by rearranging the code to use explicit if-else structures.
- *Prefer for statements over while statements if indexing through an array or counting - doing an operation a certain number of times.*
  - This puts all of the information about the iteration's bounds in a single place, making the code easier to get right.
  - Never modify the looping variable in the body of the loop.
- *Remember that the for statement is actually very general - sometimes you can get more compact and simple code using for instead of while even if no counting or indexing is involved.*
  - e.g. it is easy to traverse a linked-list with a for statement.
- *Use break statements or empty loop bodies if the code is simpler and clearer.*
- *Organize input loops so that there is a only a single input statement, and its success/fail status controls the loop, and the results of the input are used only if the input operation was successful.*
  - In C/C++ the idiom is to place the input operation in the condition of a while loop.
    - A "priming read" - where the input operation appears twice, once before the loop, and then again in the loop - is a non-idiomatic anachronism from other languages - do not use in C or C++ code.
  - Check for the correct result of a successful input operation before using the data.

- Note that testing the return value of `fscanf` for non-zero will not distinguish EOF or a partial success from a fully successful read.
- If using `scanf` or `fscanf`, simply compare the returned value to the number of format items; if equal, read succeeded; if unequal, read failed.
- Do not control an `scanf/fscanf` input loop based only on detecting EOF.
  - Input might have failed for some other reason, but bogus results will still be used, and EOF may never happen in the situation.
  - Bad -
 

```
while (fscanf(infile, "%d", &x)) {
    /* use x */
}
```

 /\* EOF will look like a successful read of an integer \*/
  - Bad -
 

```
while (fscanf(infile, "%d", &x) != EOF) {
    /* use x */
}
```

 /\* loop might never terminate! \*/
  - Good - use data only if read was truly successful; diagnose situation if not:
 

```
while (fscanf(infile, "%d", &x) == 1) {
    /* use x */
}
```

 if(!feof(infile))
 /\* not end of file - something else was wrong \*/
- If only character or string data is being read, normally only EOF will cause the input to fail, so separate check to diagnose EOF is optional.
- ***Ensure that input or data brought into the program cannot overflow the array or memory block in which it is to be stored.***
  - A basic and essential security and reliability precaution.
  - Assume user or file input can contain arbitrarily long random strings, and write code that can handle it safely and reliably, even if it simply ignores over-length input.
  - Use functions and facilities that specify explicit maximum lengths for input.

- **Using the Standard Library**

- *\* Don't recode the wheel - know and use the Standard Library functions.*

- You can assume that the Standard Library is well-debugged and optimized for the platform.
- If it seems at all likely that another programmer has needed what you need, look it up and see if it is in the Standard Library.
- Unnecessary DIY coding wastes both coding time and debugging time.
  - E.g. why write, test, and debug code that reads characters until the first non-whitespace character and then reads and stores it, when `scanf(" %c", &char_var);` will do it for you?
- If there is a reason why the obvious Standard Library function can not be used, comment your own function with an explanation.

- *\* Understand what Standard Library functions do, and trust them to do it correctly.*

- Don't waste time writing code that only makes sense if the Standard Library is defective.

- Bad: (hard-coded constants used for brevity)

```
char str[51];
int result;
for(i = 0; i < 51; i++)
    str[i] = '\0'; /* lets make sure str is completely empty, just in case ... */
result = scanf("%50s", str);
if(result != 1) /* check and return an error code just in case this failed somehow, */
    return 1;
str[50] = '\0'; /* lets make sure str is properly terminated, just in case ... */
assert(strlen(str) <= 50); // check that we didn't overflow the array, just in case ... */
```

- Good: (hard-coded constants used for brevity)

```
char str[51];
scanf("%50s", str); /* will always succeed in this course unless something is grossly wrong */
/* str is good to go */
```

- *\* Do not write functions that do nothing more than simply wrap a Standard Library function.*

- Assume that your reader is (or should be) familiar with the Standard Library; this means that calling the Standard Library function directly will be more comprehensible than hiding the Standard function in your own idiosyncratic function that does little or nothing more than call the Standard function.
- See above about avoiding functions that add no value.
- Bad: /\* with reader's reactions shown \*/

```
...
    int i;
    if(read_int(&i)) { /* uh ... exactly what does that function do? */
...
/* let's find the function definition and check it out */

int read_int(int * iptr) {
    int result;
    result = scanf("%d", iptr);
    return result == 1;
}
/* gee - doesn't really do anything! */
/* why did the programmer bother with this function? */
```

- Good:

```
...
    int i;
    if(scanf("%d", &i) == 1) { /* no problem understanding this */
...

```

- *Do not use the memmove/memcpy/memset family of functions in this course.*

- Unless the rest of the code is completely free of inefficiency - "lipstick on a pig" otherwise.

- **Using dynamically allocated memory (malloc)**
  - *\* Where possible, use "automatic" function-local variables or arrays. Do not allocate memory with malloc if a local variable or array will work just as well.*
  - *In this course, use only malloc for allocating memory; do not use the other functions.*
    - Other Library functions such as calloc or realloc should not be used. Also, you may not use non-Standard library functions such as strdup that allocate memory.
    - Functions such as calloc and realloc are occasionally useful, but have more complex interfaces, hide some important details, and do very little more than you can do with your own code and malloc. malloc is the simplest and most basic memory allocation function; using only it will help you understand the concepts better.
  - *Do not apply a cast to the malloc call.*
    - C89 malloc returns a void\* which in C can be assigned to any pointer type, by definition.
    - The traditional cast is an anachronism left from pre-void\* days, when malloc returned a char\*. In C89, the cast suppresses an important warning if you forget to #include <stdlib.h>.
    - Bad:

```
int * p = (int *) malloc(n * sizeof(int));
```
    - Good:

```
int * p = malloc(n * sizeof(int));
```
  - *Always check the returned value of malloc to verify that memory allocation was successful before using the returned value.*
    - Take some positive action such as printing a message and calling exit.
  - *Design your code with a clear and explicit policy that states where and when the call to free will be for every call to malloc.*
    - Attempt to write the deallocation code immediately after the allocation code to avoid forgetting it.
  - *In this course, all allocated memory must be deallocated by the program before terminating.*
    - Represents the "clean up before quitting" philosophy - a good practice even if often not strictly necessary in modern OS environments.
    - Program must terminate with a return from main after deallocating all memory.
    - Only permitted exception: when the exit function is called because of memory allocation failure.

- **Header files should be a minimal declaration of the module interface.**
  - *See the header file guidelines document for more discussion and detail.*
  - *Program modules or re-usable components consist of a header (.h) file and an implementation (.c) file.*
  - *The header file should contain exactly the interface declarations required for another module (the client) to use the module or component, and no more.*
  - *Any declarations or definitions not strictly required as part of the interface should be in the implementation file, not the header file.*
  - *Arrange to have the minimum number of #includes in a header file.*
  - *Use forward/incomplete declarations of pointer types instead of #includes if possible.*
  - *The header file should be complete; it should compile correctly by itself.*
    - Create a .c file that contains nothing but an #include of the header file. This file should compile without errors.
- **Guidelines for #including header files in an implementation file.**
  - *The first #include in a .c file for a module should be the corresponding header file.*
  - *Project-specific includes (using double quotes) should appear before Standard Library or system includes (with angle brackets).*
  - *Always ensure that the relevant Standard Library header gets included even if the code happens to compile without it.*
    - This prevents platform-specific compile failures due to how the Standard doesn't say which Library headers have to include which other Library headers.
  - *Do not #include unnecessary header files.*
    - Causes serious problems with spurious coupling and slower compile times.
- **Using a project Utilities module in this course**
  - *Place in the Utilities module only functions, definitions, or declarations that are used by more than one module.*
    - Examples:
      - A typedef used throughout a project; a function that compares two struct type variables that is needed in two modules.
      - A #define constant needed in two different modules - gives a single point of maintenance.
  - *Do NOT use the Utilities module as a dumping ground for miscellaneous scraps of code!*
    - Project-specific code used by only one module should never be placed in the Utilities module.

- **Layout**

- *Arrange function definitions in a .c file in a human-readable order corresponding to the top-down functional decomposition or usage order of the module.*
  - The reader should be able to read the code in increasing order of detail to take advantage of the information-hiding value of functions. So the root(s) for the function call tree should be the first functions listed; leaf functions called only from one branch should appear before the start of the next branch; leaf functions called from all branches should appear last.
  - Don't make the reader rummage through the file trying to find functions listed in a haphazard order.
- *Use a consistent indenting scheme and curly brace scheme.*
  - Imitating Kernigan & Ritchie or Stroustrup is certainly one good approach.
- *Avoid excessively long lines - 80 characters is a traditional value.*
  - If lines won't fit on standard paper when printed in 10 pt font, they are too long.
  - Especially bad: long lines due to excessively nested code, which has other serious problems.
- *Be careful with leaving out optional curly braces, especially with if.*
  - Clear: a simple thing that also looks simple:

```
if(x == 3)
    foo(x);
```
  - But if we later add some more code to the if, it is just too easy to write:

```
if(x == 3)
    foo(x);
    zap();    /* uh ... why doesn't it work right? */
```
  - Uglier but more reliable when coding late at night:

```
if(x == 3) {
    foo(x);
}
```

- **Comments**

- *See the posted article on comments for more discussion and examples.*
- *Keep comments up-to-date; at least annotate or delete them if they are no longer valid.*
  - Obsolete comments suggest sloppy coding at best, and are often worse than none at all because they confuse and mislead, and cast doubt on all of the other comments. Out-of-date comments will be considered a major failure of code quality.
- *\* Comments should never simply paraphrase the code.*
  - You should assume that the reader knows the language at least as well as you do. The purpose of comments is to explain aspects of the code that will not be obvious to an experienced programmer just by looking at it.
- *Comments are for human readers, not the compiler, so place comments where they are most convenient and useful for the human who is looking at the code.*
  - This is almost always at the function definition, rather than the function declarations.
- *Each function prototype in a header file, and function definition in a .c file, should be preceded by a comment that states the purpose of the function and explains what it does.*
  - The function name and parameter names should well chosen, which will help explain how the function is used. If a value is returned, it is important to explain how it is determined - this will usually be less obvious than the role of well-named parameters.
- *In a .c file that has a block of function prototypes at the beginning, comments are not required for the function prototypes, but are required on the function definitions.*
  - The initial prototypes are declarations for the compiler, and enable the functions to be defined in a readable order, but the prototypes are inconveniently located for the human reader - comments there are wasted.

- *The purpose of constants should be commented, especially if they may need to be changed.*
  - E.g. a constant for the maximum length of an input line.
- *\* Comments should appear within a function to explain code whose purpose or operation is obscure or just not obvious.*
  - Comments should explain what is being done where the code will be less than completely obvious to the reader. A common student error is comment simple code, but then make no comment at all to explain a chunk of difficult and complicated code that obviously took a lot of work to get right. If it was hard for you to write, it will be hard for a reader to understand!