

# Using `mk`

## Linking against shared libraries

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02/03/2023

# Toolchains

The toolchain: a set of software which constitutes a close environment for the development of further software

- ▶ a compiler (and related standard library)
- ▶ a linker
- ▶ basic tools for software development
- ▶ basic libraries for scientific development

All the software must be independent from the hosting OS (although it must be capable of talking with the specific kernel and with the CPU instruction set); if this is achieved, the software set will be portable on a large variety of computers, provided that the OS and the architecture is the same.

How do I confine my work to a specific toolchain?

We use the Bash environmental variables to define paths for executables and libraries; the tool to manage these variables is commonly called the environment module system.

There are two main module systems, the one we use is named Lmod (the other is TCL Environment Modules).

A module is basically a set of instructions that define a specific environment for a specific software: where are the executables, where are its libraries, where are the header files, ... If the software is built inside a toolchain, the installation and the environment will be portable (in the previous sense).

The specific module is “loaded” and can be “unloaded” as well when not needed.

The module system can define a hierarchy: a module may need another one, and the system automatically handles these dependencies.

Initialization of mk

```
$ source /u/sw/etc/bash.bashrc
```

```
$ module avail
```

```
----- /u/sw/modules/toolchains -----  
gcc-glibc/11.2.0 (D)
```

Choice of the toolchain

```
$ module load gcc-glibc/11.2.0
```

Inside the toolchain I can find a lot of packages

```
$ module avail
```

Now a specific software package can be selected: usually many other requested modules will be automatically loaded

```
$ module avail
```

```
----- /u/sw/pkgs/toolchains/gcc-glibc/11.2.0/modules -----  
R/4.1.0                gsl/2.7                (L)      pybind11/2.6.2  
adol-c/2.7.2           (L)      hdf5/1.12.0        (L)      qhull/2020.2        (L)  
arpack/3.8.0           (L)      hypre/2.22.0       (L)      qrupdate/1.1.2      (L)  
blacs/1.1              (L)      lis/2.0.30         (L)      scalapack/2.1.0     (L)  
boost/1.76.0           (L)      matio/1.5.21       (L)      scipy/1.7.0         (L)  
cgal/5.3               (L)      metis/5.1.0        (L)      scotch/6.1.1        (L)  
dakota/6.15.0          (L)      mumps/5.4.0        (L)      suitesparse/5.10.1  (L)  
dealii/9.3.1           (L)      netcdf/4.8.0       (L)      superlu/5.3.0       (L)  
eigen/3.3.9            (L)      octave/6.2.0       (L)      tbb/2021.3.0        (L)  
fenics/2019.1.0        (L)      openblas/0.3.15    (L)      trilinos/13.0.1     (L)  
fftw/3.3.9             (L)      p4est/2.3.2        (L)      vtk/9.0.3           (L)  
glpk/5.0               (L)      petsc/3.15.1       (L)
```

The module system takes care of the integrity of the definitions and does not permit bad cross-coupling (e.g. libraries with an incompatible libc).

To unload all the loaded modules:

```
$ module purge
```

The module system takes care of defining the environment variable `LD_LIBRARY_PATH` so the loader can find newly loaded libraries.

The user is responsible of passing compiler and linker flags when compiling, to do so they must know where libraries and headers are located.

The module system provides variables to make it easy to find headers and libraries of loaded modules

```
$ module load eigen
```

```
$ module list
```

Currently Loaded Modules:

1) gcc-glibc/11.2.0    2) eigen/3.3.9

```
$ echo ${mkEigenInc}
```

```
/u/sw/pkgs/.../eigen/3.3.9/include/eigen3
```

General naming scheme:

- ▶ Installation path: "mk" + Modulename + "Prefix", e.g. `${mkOctavePrefix}`
- ▶ Headers: "mk" + Modulename + "Inc", e.g. `${mkEigenInc}`
- ▶ Libraries: "mk" + Modulename + "Lib", e.g. `${mkSuitesparseLib}`

## How to use a third-party library

Basic compile/link flags:

```
$ g++ -I${mkLibrarynameInc} -c main.cpp
```

```
$ g++ -L${mkLibrarynameLib} -llibraryname main.o -o main
```

**Warning:** by mistake, one can include headers and link against libraries related to different installations/versions of the same library! The compile, link and loading phase may succeed, but the executable may crash, resulting in a very subtle yet painful error to debug!

## Using shared libraries

We need to distinguish the bare *use* of a shared library and how to develop a library. The latter aspect will be covered in a later lecture.

Furthermore, in the latter case we need to distinguish between the **development** phase (*i.e.* the library is not yet available to others) and the **release** phase (*i.e.* when you make your library available to others).



# Shared libraries in Linux/Unix

In discussing shared libraries we need first to distinguish between the linking phase of the compilation process and the loading of the executable.

We will treat the linking aspects later on, yet to fully understand how the handling of shared libraries (and the selection of the correct version) works on Linux (and generally in POSIX-Unix systems) we need to understand the difference between *version* and *release* and the corresponding naming scheme.

## Versions and releases

The *version* is a symbol (typically a number) by which we indicate a set of instances of a library with a common public interface and functionality.

Within a version, one may have several releases, typically indicated by one or more numbers (major and minor or bug-fix). A new release is issued to fix bugs or improve a library without changes in its public interface. So a code linked against version 1, release 1 of a library should work (in principle) when you update the library to version 1, release 2.

Normally version and releases are separated by a dot in the library name: `libfftw3.so.3.3.9` is version 3, release 3.9 of the `fftw3` library (The Fastest Fourier Transform in the West).

## Naming scheme of shared libraries (Linux/Unix)

We give some nomenclature used when describing a shared library

- ▶ Link name. It's the name used in the linking stage when you use the `-lmylib` option. It is of the form `libmylib.so`. The normal search rules apply. Remember that it is also possible to give the full path of the library instead of the `-l` option.
- ▶ soname (shared object name). It's the name looked after by the *loader*. Normally it is formed by the link name followed by the version. For instance `libfftw3.so.3`. It is *fully qualified* if it contains the full path of the library.
- ▶ real name. It's the name of the actual file that stores the library. For instance `libfftw3.so.3.3.9`

## How does it work?

The command `ldd` lists the shared libraries used by an object file.

For example:

```
$ ldd ${mkOctavePrefix}/lib/octave/6.2.0/liboctave.so
...
libfftw3.so.3 => /full/path/to/libfftw3.so.3
...
```

It means that the version of Octave I have has been linked (by its developers) against version 3 of the `libfftw3` library, as indicated by the soname.

The **loader** searches the occurrence of this library in special directories (we will discuss about it later) and has indeed found `/u/sw/pkg.../fftw/3.3.9/lib/libfftw3.so.3` (full qualified name). This is the library used if I launch octave in my computer.

Which release? Well, let's take a closer look at the file

```
$ ls -l ${mkFftwLib}/libfftw3.so.3
/full/path/to/libfftw3.so.3 -> libfftw3.so.3.3.9
```

I am in fact using release 3.9 of version 3.

## Got it?

The executable (octave) contains the information on which shared library to load, including version information (its soname). This part has been taken care by the developers of Octave. When I launch the program the loader looks in special directories, among which `/usr/lib` for a file that matches the soname. This file is typically a symbolic link to the real file containing the library.

If I have a new release of `fftw3` version 3, let's say 3.4.1, I just need to place the corresponding shared library file, reset the symbolic links and automatically octave will use the new release (this is what `apt` does when installing a new update in a Debian/Ubuntu system, for example).

No need to recompile anything!

## Another nice thing about shared libraries

A shared library may depend on another shared library. This information may be encoded when creating the library (just as for an executable, we will see it later on).

For instance

```
$ ldd /usr/lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/libumfpack.so.5
...
libblas.so.3 => /lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/libblas.so.3
...
```

The UMFPACK library is linked against version 3 of the BLAS library.

This prevents using incorrect version of libraries. Moreover, when creating an executable that needs UMFPACK I have to indicate only `-lumfpack`!

**Note:** This is not true for static libraries: you have to list all dependencies.

## How to link against a shared library

It is now sufficient to proceed as usual

```
g++ -I${mkFFtwInc} -c main.cpp  
g++ -L${mkFFtwLib} -lfftw3 main.o -o main
```

The linker finds `libfftw3.so`, controls the symbols it provides and verifies if the library contains a soname (if not the link name is assumed to be also the soname).  
Indeed `libfftw3.so` provides a soname. If we wish we can check it:

```
$ objdump libx.so.1.3 -p | grep SONAME  
SONAME    libfftw3.so.3
```

(of course this has been taken care by the library developers).

Being `libfftw3.so` a shared library the linker does not resolve the symbols by integrating the corresponding code in the executable. Instead, it inserts the information about the soname of the library:

```
$ ldd main  
libfftw3.so.3 => /full/path/to/libfftw3.so.3
```

The loader can then do its job now!

In conclusion, linking with a shared library is not more complicated than linking with a static one.

**Remember:** By default if the linker finds both the static and shared version of a library it gives precedence to the shared one. If you want to be sure to link with the static version you need to use the `-static` linker option.



## Where does the loader search for shared libraries?

It looks in `/lib`, `/usr/lib`, in all the directories contained in `/etc/ld.conf` and in all `.conf` contained in the `/etc/ld.conf.d/` directory (so the search strategy is different than that of the linker!)

If I want to permanently add a directory in the search path of the loader I need to add it to `/etc/ld.conf`, or add a conf file in the `/etc/ld.conf.d/` directory with the name of the directory, and then launch `ldconfig`).

The command `ldconfig` rebuilds the data base of the shared libraries and should be called every time one adds a new library (of course `apt` does it for you, and moreover `ldconfig` is launched at every boot of the computer).

**Note:** all this operations require you act as superuser, for instance with the `sudo` command.

## Alternative ways of directing the loader

- ▶ Setting the environment variable `LD_LIBRARY_PATH`. If it contains a comma-separated list of directory names the loader will first look for libraries on these directories (analogous to `PATH` for executables):

```
export LD_LIBRARY_PATH+=:dir1:dir2
```

- ▶ With the special flag `-Wl,-rpath=directory` during the compilation of the executable, for instance

```
g++ main.cpp -o main -Wl,-rpath=/opt/lib -L. -lsmall
```

Here the loader will look in `/opt/lib` before the standard directories. You can use also relative paths.

- ▶ Launching the command `sudo ldconfig -n directory` which adds `directory` to the loader search path (superuser privileges are required). This addition remains valid until the next reboot of the computer. **Note:** prefer the other alternatives!

## How to build a shared library?

We will dedicate another lecture to this issue, where we will also show how to handle shared libraries and symbols dynamically. For the moment we need to know only the following:

- ▶ When building a shared library we need to pass the option `-shared` to the linker
- ▶ Object code used in a shared library must be *position independent* (compiler option `-fPIC`)

Basic build of a shared library starting from an object file:

```
$ g++ -shared -Wl,-soname,libutility.so \  
    utility.o -o libutility.so
```

## Code used for the exercise

For the following exercises we will be using some code from the `LinearAlgebra/IML_Eigen` example.

The code is available here: `https://github.com/pacs-course/pacs-examples/tree/master/Labs/2023/02-compile`

## Exercise 1: compiler and linker options

- ▶ Compile `Utilities.cpp` and make it a shared library named `liblinearalgebra.so`
- ▶ Compile `test.cpp` and make an executable binary linked against `liblinearalgebra.so`

## Exercise 2: a simple Bash script to automate repetitive operations

Create a simple Bash script to build the library and executable of Exercise 1 without typing the same commands every time.

# Make and makefiles

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# Controlling the compilation process

The compilation process requires to assemble data from different interrelated sources:

- ▶ A translation unit may depend on several header files;
- ▶ Several compilation units may make up a library;
- ▶ The executable may depend on libraries, as well as source, header and object files.

The use of **make** helps to automatize this process by defining *prerequisite-to-target* rules.



# What is in fact make making?

The **make** utility is a tool to produce files according to user defined, or predefined,) rules.

It is mainly used in conjunction with the **compilation process**, yet it can be extended to any context where files are produced from other files according to a well defined rule.

The rules are written on a file, usually called **makefile** or **Makefile**, but you can specify another file using the **-f** option.).

# The basic layout of a makefile

Let's start with the simplest of Makefiles:

```
hello:
```

```
<TAB> echo "Hello, World"
```

A Makefile consists of a set of rules. A rule generally looks like this:

```
target1: prerequisites1
```

```
<TAB> command
```

```
target2: prerequisites2
```

```
<TAB> command
```

```
<TAB> command
```

The `<TAB>` symbol indicates the **tab keystroke** (the one normally at the upper-left side of your keyboard). You will not see it, of course, since it translates to a series of spaces yet it **MUST** be there, as it identifies the lines containing **commands**.

**Make sure your editor is not configured to replace tabs with spaces, when editing a Makefile.**

## Some nomenclature

- ▶ A **target** is either the name of a file that has to be generated (e.g. executables or object files), or the name of an **action** to be carried out (*phony target*).
- ▶ A **prerequisite** is a file or an action required to produce the target. More prerequisites are separated by a space.
- ▶ A **command** is the statement (e.g. a shell command or an executable) that make launches whenever the target is out-of-date w.r.t. the prerequisites. A command line ALWAYS starts with a <TAB>;
- ▶ A **rule** is a list of commands, each on its own line;
- ▶ A **directive** is the full set of instructions that indicate how to make a specific target.

## How does it work?

Launching `make target1` (or simply `make` if `target1` is the first target) the command operates **recursively**, using the following algorithm:

- ▶ Launch `make` using as target the prerequisites of `target1`;
- ▶ *Return* if no rule for the current target is found;
- ▶ Check whether the target file has *an earlier modification date* than any of the prerequisites: if so **run the command(s) associated to the rule**.

Not finding any rule for a target is an error.

## Simplifying your making: variables

In a makefile you can define variables

```
OBJECTS = pippo.o toto.o foo.o \  
main.o  
SOURCES = pippo.c toto.c foo.c \  
main.c  
EXEC = main  
  
$(EXEC) : $(OBJECTS)  
    g++ $(OBJECTS) -o $(EXEC)
```

Note: the `\` at the end of a line indicates that the content continues in the next line.

## Other ways of setting variables

```
CPPFLAGS += -DNDEBUG  
LDLIBS += -llapack
```

In the first line, CPPFLAGS will be set to -DNDEBUG only if **not already set**. In the second line -llapack will be added to the existing content of LDLIBS.

Variables may be specified at the moment of launching the command, and that specification takes the precedence:

```
make all CPPFLAGS=-O3 LDLIBS=-ldl
```

make will make target **all** with CPPFLAGS=-O3 and LDLIBS=-ldl -llapack.

## Passing variables as arguments of make

We have already seen that `make` can take a variable as argument, which will override the macro definition in the file. Just remember of using quotes when necessary:

```
make CXXFLAGS="-O3 -Wall"
```

will override any definition of `CXXFLAGS` in the makefile. but you can also do

```
make CXXFLAGS+="-O3 -Wall"
```

and add `-O3 -Wall` to the possible `CXXFLAGS` defined in the makefile. **Very useful!**

## Getting variables from the environment

make imports variable from the working environment. If you set (using bash shell)

```
>export CXX=clang++
```

and the Makefile does not redefine CXX, the value clang++ will be used.

This is the feature used in the Makefiles of the examples for the PACS course to define some variables importing the value of environment variables set by the module system.

If you want to see the environment (exported) variable currently set, do

```
>env
```



## Manipulating variables

Make provides a huge set of tools to manipulate or interrogate variables

```
SRCS=main.cpp other.cpp
OBJS = $(SRCS:.cpp=.o)
HEADERS=$(wildcard *.hpp)
```

You can substitute substrings, or use wildcards to select particular files in the working directory.

In the example `OBJS` is obtained by replacing `.cpp` with `.o` to all files in `SRCS`, while `HEADERS` collects all files with extension `hpp` in the current directory.

The `wildcard` statement indicates that `*` has to be considered as wildcard. Not always necessary, but it is safer to use it.

## Calling shell commands

A rule may contain long commands. You can split a long command using `\`. You can use bash shell commands as a rule:

```
all:
    for i in $(wildcard *.c) do \
cc -c $$i; done
```

compiles all the file `*.c` in your directory. Please note the use of the wildcard specifier (*not really needed in this case*) and the use of the `$$` to indicate a *shell variable*.

Normally make echoes the commands. The commands in a rule may be made silent (no echoing) by prefixing them with `@`.

```
clean:
    @rm *.o *.a
```

## Letting 'make' deduce the rules

A very interesting feature of make are **implicit** in-built rules: make already knows how to create certain targets! For instance, make has and **implicit rules** for updating a '.o' file from a correspondingly '.cpp' or '.C' file. Example, if main.cpp is present and we have just

```
main: main.cpp
```

then make main will launch

```
$(CXX) $(CPPFLAGS) $(CXXFLAGS) $(LDFLAGS) -o main main.cpp $(LDLIBS)
```

automatically!

Here, variables CXX, CPPFLAGS and CXXFLAGS etc. are **predefined variables** whose default values may be **changed by the user**.

## Using implicit rules

```
CXX=clang++
OPTFLAGS=-g this is not a Makefile var.
CPPFLAGS=-DHAS_FLOAT -I./include
CXXFLAGS=$(OPTFLAGS) -Wall
LDFLAGS=$(OPTFLAGS)
LDLIBS=-L/mylibdir -lmylib
LINK.o = $(CXX) $(LDFLAGS) $(TARGET_ARCH)
main: main.o other.o
other.o: other.cpp ./include/other.hpp
```

make will look if in the current directory and if it finds a main.o or other.o newer than main, it will produce main by calling the implicit rule. The same apply for other.o and main.o.

## Main variables for implicit rules

CXX	the c++ compiler (g++)
CPPFLAGS	Options for the C preprocessor
CXXFLAGS	Options for the C++ compiler
CCFLAGS	Options for the C compiler
FFLAGS	Options for the Fortran compiler
LDFLAGS	Options for the linker (not for indicating libraries!)
LDLIBS	To indicate libraries to be loaded
LINK.o	The command used for the linking stage
TARGET_ARCH	The target architecture

The macro `LINK.o` the command for calling the linker on object files \*.o. By default it is equal to cc, i.e. it uses the C linker) as linker! If you are using C++ it's better to change it so that it loads the standard library, by setting

```
LINK.o = $(CXX) $(LDFLAGS) $(TARGET_ARCH)
```

## Other useful implicit variables

RM	Command to remove files (rm -f)
CC	The C compiler (gcc)
FC	The Fortran compiler (gfortran)
CPP	The C preprocessor (\$(CC) -E)
AR	The command to produce static library (ar)
ARFLAGS	The flags for AR (rv)

## Common Preprocessor options in CPPFLAGS

-I<dirname>	Add <dirname> to the directories to search for included (header) files
-D<Macro>	Define pre-processor variable <Macro>
-D<Macro=value>	Provide value to pre-processor variable <Macro>
-DNDEBUG	Activate the NDEBUG cpp variable, used to indicate that the code should be optimized.

## Common c++ compiler options in CXXFLAGS

<code>-g</code>	Activate debugging (it implies <code>=O0</code> )
<code>-O[0-3]</code>	Optimization level (0 none, 3 maximal)
<code>-Og</code>	Perform only optimizations that allow reasonable debugging
<code>-Ofast</code>	Perform also optimizations that don't comply with IEEE standard (implies <code>-O3</code> )
<code>-fPIC</code>	Generate position-independent code suitable for use in a shared library
<code>-fpic</code>	Another version of <code>-fPIC</code>
<code>-std=[standard]</code>	Use a specific standard. Possible [standard] may be <code>c++11</code> or <code>c++14</code> or <code>c++17</code>
<code>-Wall</code>	Activate (almost) all warnings
<code>-pedantic</code>	Be pedantic, warn about use of compiler extensions to the standard



## Common linker options in LDFLAGS

<code>-O&lt;lev&gt;</code>	Optimization level (usually the same used for compilation)
<code>-shared</code>	Create a shared library
<code>-static</code>	Link only with static libraries (use with care!)
<code>-dynamic</code>	Link only with dynamic libraries (use with care!)
<code>-e</code>	Create an executable (the default in Linux and Windows systems)
<code>-Wl,-rpath=&lt;dir&gt;</code>	Set the loader to look also in <dir> for dynamic (shared) libraries
<code>-o &lt;output&gt;</code>	The name of the produced file (executable or shared lib)

## Common linker options in LDLIBS

<code>-L&lt;dir&gt;</code>	Consider also <code>&lt;dir&gt;</code> as directory where to search for libraries
<code>-l&lt;name&gt;</code>	Link with library <code>lib&lt;name&gt;.so</code> or <code>lib&lt;name&gt;.a</code>
<code>&lt;libname&gt;</code>	Link with library <code>&lt;libname&gt;</code> (alternative way to link a library)

## Using the compiler to find prerequisites

The main compilers (like gnu and LVM compilers) have a set of nice option `-M`, `-MM`, `-MP`, `-MT` ... that exploits the preprocessor to generate a file of prerequisites by examining a source file. An example of usage of `-MM`

```
make.dep: $(SRCS)
$(RM) make.dep
for f in $(SRCS); do \
$(CXX) $(CPPFLAGS) -MM $$f >> make.dep;
done

-include make.dep
```

Here `$(SRCS)` is a variable containing a list of source files. Note the `-` to avoid make to stop with error if `make.dep` is still missing.

## List of Implicit rules

If you want to see the current rules type

```
make -p -n -f /dev/null >rules.txt
```

The file contains the default rule (you have launched make on the null device)

```
make -p -n -f Makefile >rules.txt
```

will give the rules after processing your Makefile.

## Phony targets

A target is called **phony** when it is not associated to any prerequisite but it expresses an **action**. It may be useful (but not compulsory) to indicate the targets that are phony, so make avoids searching for a file with the name of the target. You can di the **special variable** `.PHONY`:

```
.PHONY: all clean distclean
```

Now `all` (often used as first target), `clean` (normally used to clean temporary files but leaving executables untouched), `distclean` (used to clean all temporaries, executables etc..) are phony targets.

## Use of phony targets

```
clean:  
    $(RM) *.o  
distclean:clean  
    $(RM) main
```

Using a phony target as prerequisites means **running its associated rule**.

## A more complex example

```
CXXFLAGS = -g
SRCS=main.cpp other.cpp
OBJS = $(SRCS:.cpp=.o)
HEADERS=$(wildcard *.hpp)
EXEC=main
.PHONY=all
all: $(EXEC)
clean:
    $(RM) $(EXEC) $(OBJS) results.dat
$(EXEC): $(OBJS)
$(OBJS): $(SRCS) $(HEADERS)
```

## Where to search prerequisites?

Make search the prerequisites in your the directory where the makefile resides. If you want to extend the search use the spacial variable `VPATH`

```
VPATH= ./includes /myhome/includes
```

tells make to search prerequisites also in the directories indicated. If you want to be more precise you may use the directive `vpath`:

```
vpath %.hpp ./include
```

tells make to search files ending with `.hpp` in `./include`.



## Including other makefiles

The **include** directive tells 'make' to suspend reading the current makefile and read one or more other makefiles before continuing. The directive is a line in the makefile that looks like this:

```
include FILENAME
```

If FILENAME is empty, nothing is included an error is issued and make stops

If you want instead make to ignore the error, prefix the command with a -:

```
-include FILENAME
```

## The result

The `-MM` option scans the source files given in input and looks for dependencies, in particular included header files, **excluding system header files**. The other options mentioned before (they all start with `-M`) may operate differently. Here is the result of an example

```
readParameters.o: readParameters.cpp GetPot.hpp \  
readParameters.hpp parameters.hpp  
parameters.o: parameters.cpp parameters.hpp  
main.o: main.cpp readParameters.hpp parameters.hpp \  
GetPot.hpp gnuplot-iostream.hpp
```

All those dependencies has been found automatically starting from `readParameters.cpp`, `parameters.cpp`, `main.cpp`. It's a great simplification. There is also an external utility, called `makedepend`, which may be used for the same purpose (but I prefer the compiler option).

## Useful options of make

Many make options may be given either in short or long form (use `man make` to see the manual).

- ▶ `-j N` Compile in parallel using N processes.
- ▶ `-d` Give some more detail (a little verbose)
- ▶ `-B` Unconditionally make all targets.
- ▶ `make MACRO=VALUE` Replace VALUE as the value of the variable MACRO. It overrides internal definitions.
- ▶ `-f filename`. Input is taken from filename (instead of Makefile)
- ▶ `-n` or `-just-print`. Prints the commands that will normally be executed, without executing them.
- ▶ `make -p -f/dev/null` Prints the database and does not execute any Makefile (`/dev/null` in a Unix system is the null file: an empty file) . Useful to see the inbuilt macros.

## More advanced stuff: Launching make from make

The MAKE macro is put automatically equal to the make command. It is used to run another instance of make (sub-make) from the makefile

...

optimised:

```
$(MAKE) CXXFLAGS="-O3 -Wall" all
```

other:

```
$(MAKE) -C subdir
```

Here, make optimised launches make CXXFLAGS="-O3 -Wall", while make other launches make in the directory subdir (equivalent to cd subdir; \$(MAKE)).

Note: using the MAKE macro instead of writing simply make is usually better, as the macro exports exported variables.

## More advanced stuff: Exported variables

When running a sub-make you may want to export variable defined in the external make to the sub-make. This may be important if the sub-make uses another Makefile.

You may use the export directive:

`export` -> all variables will be exported

`export variable` -> variable will be exported

`export variable=value` -> you can also give a value

`unexport variable` -> this variable is not exported

`unexport` -> all variable are unexported

## More advanced stuff: special variables

Make has a lot of **predefined** and **automatic variables**, which may be used in **implicit rules** and are useful in **user defined rules**.

```
OBJS=main.o a.o b.o c.o d.o
main : $(OBJS)
$(CXX) -o $@ $^
%.pdf:%.tex
pdflatex $<
%.o:%.cpp
$(CXX) $(CXXFLAGS) $(CPPFLAGS) -c $<
```

But the first and last rule are **not necessary**. make already knows them (**implicit rules**)!. We will talk them soon.

# Explanations

- CXX is a **predefined variable** that contains the name of the c++ compiler, by default is g++, but you can change it, for instance with CXX=clang++. Also CXXFLAGS and CPPFLAGS are predefined variables, by default empty.
- The command `%.o:%.C` introduces a **user-defined rule** to convert files named something.C into something.o.
- `$<` is an **automatic variable** that indicates the prerequisite of a target. `$@` indicates instead the name of the target.

There are more automatic variables, you find the list in the gnu make manual.

# The main automatic variables

These variable may be used when writing a rule

`$@` File name of the target of a rule

`$<` The first prerequisite

`$?` The name of all prerequisites newer than the target

`^` The names of all prerequisites, with spaces among them

`*` The stem with which an **implicit rule** matches.

if the target pattern is `%.o` and the target is `src/pippo.c` then the stem is `src/pippo`

**But we will see soon that things may be made simpler with implicit rules!**



## More advanced stuff: Pattern substitution

Sometimes some names are repeated with just the suffix changed. You may use the so called **static pattern rule** technique to avoid repetitions:

```
objects = foo.o bar.o
all: $(objects)
$(objects): %.o: %.c
    $(CC) -c $(CFLAGS) $< -o $@
```

The string `%.o: %.c` means *replace the suffix .o with .c*.

I recall that `$<` and `$@` are the **automatic variables** that hold the name of the prerequisite and of the target, respectively.

## More advanced stuff: Conditionals

It is possible to have conditional constructs

```
main: $(OBJECTS)
ifneq ($(CC),gcc )
    $(CC) -o main $(OBJECTS) $(LIBS_FOR_GCC)
else
    $(CC) -o main $(OBJECTS) $(NORMAL_LIBS)
endif
```

## Adv. Stuff: Calling bash variables inside Makefiles

Another example of calling shell commands in a Makefile

```
dist: $(SRCS)
    for X in $(SRCS) ; do \
sed 's/AUTHOR/Luca/g' $$X \
> tmp.dir/$$X ; done
```

A shell variable X is recalled by using \$\$X.

In this example make dist will loop on all files whose name is in SRCS and replace any occurrence of AUTHOR with Luca, writing the result in a file with the same name but in another directory.

The unix shell (and bash in particular) has dozens of very powerful commands that may make life easier... but this would be another lecture...

## What more

A lot. Current version of make support **multiple target per rule**, a full set of **functions** and the capability of working with files residing in different directories.

Much more that can be said in a short course. Yet, you do not need to know all that if you want to start using make! Already with the basic stuff you can simplify your (programming) life.

And if you want to know more

The make utility is rather old. It has been born with the UNIX operative system in the 80's. It has evolved a lot since.

The most used version (the one I have followed in this lecture) is *GNU make*, developed by the Free Software Foundation. More info on

<http://www.gnu.org/software/make>

There is also a book:

*GNU Make: A Program for Directing Recompilation* by Richard M. Stallman, Roland McGrath and Paul D. Smith, Free Software Foundation.

which is a pretty-printed version of the manual available on line at the site indicated above.

## For the real gurus

The make utility is the basic utility for software developers. Other utilities may help you to develop portable programs and to assist you to compilations on different architectures, and handle automatic search for libraries etc.

In particular the **autotools utilities**.

You find the manual in <http://sourceware.org/autobook/>.

An alternative to autotools is cmake.

But for small projects writing your Makefile directly is often simpler.

## Exercise 3: a Makefile

Create a Makefile that works as the Bash script in Exercise 3.