Systems 3

(Big) Program Organization

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These slides are based on previous lectures held by Alexander Holupirek, Roman Byshko, and especially Stefan Klinger.

Chapter Goals

- How to manage big programs?
- How to split/structure them into modules?
- How modules can be separated/made to interact?
- How to compile big programs (efficiently)?
- What happens behind the scenes?
- The use of header files.
- The use (and dangers) of macros.
- Portable code and conditional compilation.

An RPN calculator

We will build a **reverse polish notation** (RPN) calculator to discuss

- Function evaluation.
- Scoping rules.
- Splitting up a program in several source files.

Recall Infix notation vs. reverse polish notation:

Parentheses are not needed; the notation is unambiguous as long as we know how many operands each operator expects.

Calculator design using a stack

```
1 input: 1 2 - 4 5 + *

2 3 4 4 9 5 5 stack: 1 1 -1 -1 -1 -9
```

Program description

- Each operand arriving is pushed on the stack
- Once an operator arrives
 - Pop apt number of operands (e.g., two for binary operators)
 - Apply operator to them
 - Push the result back onto the stack
- The value on the top of the stack is popped and printed when the end of the input line is encountered.

Calculator program algorithm

Basic algorithm of our calculator (controlling main function):

```
while (next token is not EOF)
       if (is number)
            push it
       else if (is operator)
4
            pop operands
            do operation
6
            push result
       else if (is newline)
            pop and print top of stack
9
10
       else if (is character 'q')
            end program
       else
13
            error
```

Program design considerations

- A function for fetching the next input token.
- Pushing and popping a stack are trivial, but with error handling long enough to be put each in a separate function.

Where to put the stack? Who should access it directly?

- Keep it in main.
 - \rightarrow Pass the stack to the routines that push and pop it.
 - But main doesn't need to know about the stack internals, it only uses the interface (push and pop).
- Store the stack and its pointer in **external variables**, accessible to the **push** and **pop** functions **but not** main.

Possible program layout in one source file

```
[declarations req'd by main]
int main(void) { /* ... */ }

[declarations req'd by push and pop: stack buffer invisible for main]
void push(double f) { /* ... */ }

double pop(void) { /* ... */ }

[declarations req'd for parsing tokens: IO functions only available from here on]
int gettoken(double *) { /* ... */ }

[declaration for IO functions with pushback buffer]
int getch(void) { /* ... */ }

void ungetch(int) { /* ... */ }
```

Marginal note

- This ordering of objects is known as top-down design: Start with the coarse algorithm, implement details later.
- The opposed **bottom-up design** is way more usual in C programs: Define small building blocks, and combine into main at the end of the source.

Source code: Calculator main

```
#include <stdio.h> /* printf(3) */
  #include <stdlib.h> /* atof(3) */
  #define NUMBER '0' /* signal that a number was found */
5
6 int gettoken(double *); /* return value is operator, NUMBER, or EOF */
7 void push(double);
  double pop(void);
10 /* reverse polish calculator */
  int main(void)
12 {
       int type; /* kind of input token */
13
       double num:
14
15
       while ((type = gettoken(&num)) != EOF) {
16
17
           switch (type) {
40
41
      return 0;
42
43 }
```

```
switch (type) {
  case NUMBER:
       push(num);
19
       break:
  case '+':
       push(pop() + pop());
       break:
  case '*':
       push(pop() * pop());
       break:
26
  case '-':
       push(-pop() + pop());
       break;
  case '/':
       push(1 / pop() * pop());
       break:
32
  case '\n':
       printf("\t%.8g\n", pop());
       break;
35
  case 'q':
       return 0;
  default:
       printf("unknown: %c\n", type);
39
40
```

This implementation is **erroneous**!

Can you spot the problem?

- Order of evaluation of function arguments is unknown.
 - ⇒ Which pop() is run first?
 - ⇒ Which stack element will be 1st/2nd argument to an operator?
- For non-commutative operators (-, /), we must **enforce** that the top element on the stack is used as the second argument!

 Division by zero is an issue, but not a major problem for double values.

```
double num;

case '-':
    num = pop();
    push(pop() - num);
    break;
```

```
31 case '/':
32    num = pop();
33    if (num != 0.0)
34        push(pop() / num);
35    else
36        printf("error: zero divisor\n");
37    break;
```

Source code: Stack

- The **stack** itself and its fill factor (the **stack pointer**) are **shared** by push and pop
- Since they are defined outside any function, they are **external**.

```
#define MAXVAL 100
49 double val[MAXVAL]; /* the stack */
   int sp = 0; /* next free position */
51
   /* push x onto value stack */
   void push(double x)
54 {
       if (sp < MAXVAL)
55
           val[sp++] = x;
56
       else
57
           printf("can't push %g\n", x);
58
59 }
```

```
/* pop and return top value from stack */
double pop(void)

{
    if (sp > 0)
        return val[--sp];

    printf("stack empty\n");
    return 0.0;

}
```

- push and pop have been declared before main, but defined after it.
 - In between, the stack buffer was defined.
 - \Rightarrow main cannot see stack internals.
- An alternative would have been:

```
/* remove top-level declarations of push and pop before main */
int main(void) {
   int type;
   double num;
   extern void push(double);
   extern double pop(void);
   ...
```

■ Of course, the same holds for gettoken.

```
83 #include <ctype.h> /* In general: Bad style not to put #includes at the top! */
  #define MAXOP 32 /* max size of token */
  int getch(void); /* get the next character */
  void ungetch(int); /* push back one character, getch will return it next */
88
  /* gettoken: get next operator or numeric operand */
90 int gettoken(double *num)
91 {
      int i, c;
92
      93
      while (isblank(c = getch())) /* cf. isblank(3) */
94
95
      if (!isdigit(c) && c != '.')
96
                                    /* it's not a number, may be EOF */
97
          return c;
```

- If the function does not return here, then we know it's a number.
- ⇒ Start storing the digits into the buffer.

```
buf[0] = (char)c:
98
        i = 1; /* number of digits in buffer */
99
        while (isdigit(c = getch())) { /* collect integer part */
100
            if (i >= MAXOP) {
101
                 printf("gettoken: number too long!\n");
                return EOF:
103
104
            buf[i++] = (char)c;
105
106
        if (c == '.') {
107
            buf[i++] = (char)c;
108
            while (isdigit(c = getch())) { /* collect fraction part */
109
110
                 if (i >= MAXOP) {
                     printf("gettoken: number too long!\n");
111
                     return EOF;
112
113
                 buf[i++] = (char)c:
114
115
116
        buf[i] = '\0':
117
        if (c != EOF)
                            /* we have to deal with that character later! */
118
            ungetch(c);
119
        *num = atof(buf); /* store number in return parameter; cf. atof(3) */
120
                            /* signal that we have found a number */
        return NUMBER;
122 }
```

Can we do without ungetch?

It is often the case that a program cannot determine that it has read enough input until is has read too much.

Example Collecting the characters that make up a number

- Until the first non-digit is seen, the number may not be complete.
- But then the program has read one character too far.
- ⇒ We need to look ahead one character! "Un-read" the character if we do not want to **consume** it.

Implementation We use a static extern variable to store one pushed-back character.

- **EOF** indicates that no character has been pushed back.
- **getch** reads from this variable. If **EOF**, read from *stdin*.
- ungetch writes to that variable¹.

¹ungetc(3) declared in <stdio.h> un-gets a character from a given input stream

Source code: (un)getting characters

```
int back = EOF; /* Pushed back character, or EOF if none. */
129
int getch(void) /* Get a (possibly pushed back) character. */
131 {
        if (back != EOF) {
132
            int r = back;
133
134
            back = EOF:
135
            return r;
136
        return getchar();
137
138 }
139
140 void ungetch(int c) /* Push character back on input. */
141 {
142
        if (back != EOF) {
            printf("ungetch: can only push back one char\n");
143
            exit(1):
144
145
146
        back = c:
147
148
```

Program organisation in different files

Objective

- Divide the single source file into multiple files.
- Provide better isolation of conceptual modules.
- Allow for separate, faster compilation.

Separate compilation

- Recall that compilation is done in phases.
 - **1** Each source code file is **compiled** into object code.
 - 2 Object code files are **linked** into an executable (We have skipped some intermediate steps, *cf.* page **??**, and later)
- For generating object code, it is not necessary that all functions and variables are defined.

It is sufficient for them to be **declared** so that the compiler knows their size and lifetime!

Example Function **f** is not defined.

main.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int f(char const *);

int main(void)
{
    printf("%d\n", f("foo"));
}
```

```
$ gcc -c main.c
2 $ ls
3 main.c main.o
```

With -c the GCC only compiles to object code!

■ We are free to provide an implementation of f in a separate object file:

used.c

```
1 int f(char const *c)
      int i = 0;
      while (*c++)
4
          i++:
      return i;
```

```
$ gcc -c used.c
3 main.c main.o used.c used.o
```

With -c the compiler does not require a main function!

■ Then we **link the object files** to form an executable:

```
$ ld -o a.out -dynamic-linker /lib64/ld-linux-x86-64.so.2 /usr/lib/crt1.o /us
 /lib/crti.o main.o used.o -lc /usr/lib/crtn.o
 $ 1s
       main.c main.o used.c used.o
 $ ./a.out
6 3
```

- The linker is fed with all the **compiled object files** for your program, including libraries and C runtime system,
- checks that all symbols, and a main function are defined,
- and links everything onto one executable.

- Getting the linker's arguments right depends on a lot of factors, and is hard to get right.
- Luckily, GCC does that for you: When gcc is called without -c, and sees a compiled object file, it links to the resulting binary.

```
$ gcc main.o used.o #only linking, no compilation
 $ 1s
 a.out main.c main.o used.c used.o
4 $ ./a.out
5
```

(Actually, the gcc binary is a frontend to a bunch of relatively independent tools.)

Split the calculator into modules

- Use separate source files to better organize the code.
 - \blacksquare Function main \rightarrow calc.c
 - The stack \rightarrow stack.c
 - The parser \rightarrow token.c
- Each file needs to **declare** the symbols it uses from other files.
- We also use static to hide details which are conceptually local to the module.

calc.c

```
1 #define NUMBER '0'
  int gettoken(double *num);
  void push(double x);
  double pop(void);
6 int main(void)
7 { /* definition */ }
 stack.c
static double val[MAXVAL]:
  static int sp;
4 void push(double x)
  { /* definition */ }
 double pop(void)
  { /* definition */ }
```

Question

- What are the benefits?
- What are the drawbacks?

token.c

```
1 #define NUMBER '0'
2 static int back = EOF:
4 static int getch(void)
  { /* definition */ }
7 static void ungetch(int c)
  { /* definition */ }
10 int gettoken(double *num)
11 { /* definition */ }
```

This works just fine:

```
$ gcc -c calc.c # produces calc.o
 $ gcc -c token.c
 $ gcc -c stack.c
 $ gcc *.o # Note: no -c flag ⇒ linking
5 $ ./a.out <<< '42 23/'
          1.826087
```

- " Isolation of concepts \Rightarrow reusable code.
- If one module changes, only the depending files need **recompilation**.
- NUMBER is defined repeatedly.
- In fact, each file using, e.g., token.c must **repeat** the declarations of push and pop.
 - ⇒ Hard to maintain correctly!

Solution We have a **tool** do this for us:

- The C Preprocessor (cf. page 26) can #include a source file into another one.
- Put the shared declarations into a so called header file (suffix .h).
- #include this file in each .c file which uses these declarations.
- Also, #include this file in the defining source, to be warned about inconsistencies.
- ⇒ The header file serves as an interface description, listing the objects provided by a module.

Including source code

```
stack.h
                                           token.h
void push(double);
                                            #define NUMBER '0'
2 double pop(void);
                                          2 int gettoken(double *num);
 stack.c
                                           token.c
                                          1 #include "token.h"
 #include "stack.h"
 #include <stdio.h>
                                          2 #include <stdio.h>
                                            #include <stdlib.h>
 #define MAXVAL 100
                                            #include <ctype.h>
  static double val[MAXVAL];
 static int sp;
                                            #define MAXOP 32
8 void push(double x) { ... }
                                            static int back = EOF;
9 double pop(void) { ... }
                                            static int getch(void) { ... }
                                            static void ungetch(int c) { ... }
 calc.c
                                         12 int gettoken(double *num) { ... }
 #include <stdio.h>
 #include "token.h"
 #include "stack.h"
```

Difference between

- #include <file> look for include file in a standard list of system directories. Can be modified with GCC's -I flag.
- #include "file" look for file in the directory of the including file,
 fall back to a user defined list, then to the list used by #include<...>
- The <u>file</u>name **must not contain** any of >, \n, ", ', ~, /*.
- How to avoid loops?

```
$ cat foo.h

2 #include "bar.h"

3 $ cat bar.h

4 #include "foo.h"

5 $ cat main.c

6 #include "foo.h"

6 #include "foo.h"

5 | foo.h:1:17: error: #include nested too deeply

#include "bar.h"
```

⇒ We need to make sure that each header file is included only once!

The C Preprocessor

- As an early compilation phase, the preprocessor is called automatically by the compiler.
- The preprocessor **modifies the source** code before compilation.
 - Inclusion of named files (by #include).
 - Macro substitution (defined with #define).
 - Conditional compilation (cf. page 37).
- Documentation is available online² with the other GCC manuals, or via info cpp, and cpp(1).
- We have already discussed file inclusion (cf. page 25). Avoiding cyclic definitions is explained on page 39.

²https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-9.2.0/cpp/

A directive of the form

```
#define name token...
```

causes the preprocessor to replace *subsequent* occurrences of the **token** name with the given sequence of tokens.

CPP does not replace within string literals, or comments.

Warning CPP performs simple textual substitution only.

```
#include <stdio.h>
 #define x 1 + 2
 int main(void)
6
     printf("%d\n", 2*x);
      return 0:
9
```

```
$ gcc main.c
$ ./a.out
                         # yes: four!
```

- What has happened here?
- How can we solve this?

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Put the replacement text into parenthesis:

```
#include <stdio.h>
  #define x (1 + 2)
  int main(void)
6
      printf("%d\n", 2*x);
      return 0;
9
```

```
$ gcc main.c
2 $ ./a.out
```

■ You can have a look at the preprocessor output with gcc -E main.c, or you can run cpp as a standalone program.

Macros with arguments

A directive of the form

```
#define name( identifier[,identifier] ) token...
where there is no space between the name and the '(', is a macro definition with parameters given by the identifier list.
```

Example

```
#define isupper(c) ((c) >= 'A' && (c) <='Z')
```

- Why are there so many parenthesis?
- Why is there no; at the end?

Example Avoid the overhead of a function call \Rightarrow faster?

```
#define square(x) ((x) * (x))
double y = square(read_num_from(stdin));
```

What do you think?

Stringification

- When a macro parameter is used with a leading #, it is replaced with the literal text of the argument, converted to a string literal.
- This only works in the body of a macro definition.

```
#define SHOW(type) \
      printf("%s\t%zu\n", #type, sizeof(type))
                                                         $ gcc main.c
  int main(void)
                                                         $ ./a.out
                                                         int
      SHOW(int):
6
                                                       4 double
      SHOW(double);
      return 0:
```

Notes

- Macro definitions may be split into lines with \newline.
- Two consecutive string literals will be concatenated into one:

```
#define SHOW(type) printf(#type "\t%zu\n", sizeof(type))
```

Concatenation

- Normally, CPP operates at the granularity of C tokens.
 (That's why the input should be lexically valid C code)
- The ## operator allows to **concatenate** two tokens, when used in a macro body.

Example

```
struct command {
       char *name:
      void (*function) (void);
  };
4
  #define COMMAND(NAME) \
       { #NAME, NAME ## _command }
  struct command commands[] = {
       COMMAND(quit),
       COMMAND(help),
      COMMAND(calc),
     /* ... */
13
14 };
```

Careful with compound macros!

```
#include <stdio.h>
  #define SHOW(type) \
       count++: \
       printf("%d\t" #type "\t%zu\n", count, sizeof(type))
   int main(void)
       int count = 0;
       SHOW(int):
11
       SHOW(double);
12
13
       if (42 < 23)
14
           SHOW(char);
15
16
       return 0;
17
18
```

Question What will happen? Why? How to solve this?

Try braces around the macro's body:

```
#include <stdio.h>
  #define SHOW(type) {
           count++: \
           printf("%d\t" #type "\t%zu\n", count, sizeof(type)); \
   int main(void)
       int count = 0:
10
11
       if (42 < 23)
12
           SHOW(char);
13
14
       if (99 < 1)
15
           SHOW(double);
16
17
       else
           SHOW(float);
18
19
       return 0:
20
21
```

Question This won't even compile! Why?

Solution Make the compound a statement: Use a do-while block.

```
#include <stdio.h>
   #define SHOW(type) do {
           count++: \
           printf("%d\t" #type "\t%zu\n", count, sizeof(type)); \
       } while (0)
  int main(void)
       int count = 0;
10
11
       SHOW(int);
13
       if (42 < 23)
14
           SHOW(char);
15
16
       if (99 < 1)
17
           SHOW(double);
18
       else
19
           SHOW(float):
20
21
22
       return 0:
23
```

Predefined macros

Several macros are **predefined**. They cannot be undefined or redefined.

```
__LINE__ A decimal constant containing the current source line number.
```

- __FILE__ A string literal containing the name of the file being compiled.
- __DATE__ A string literal containing the date of compilation.
- __TIME__ A string literal containing the time of compilation.
- __STDC__ The constant 1. It is intended that this identifier be defined to be 1 only in standard-conforming implementations.

Example

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
  #include <stdlib.h>
3
  #define ASSERT(a) do { if (!(a)) { \
           fprintf(stderr, \
5
           __FILE__ ":%d: Assertion " #a " failed\n", __LINE__); \
6
           exit(1): \
       } } while (0)
8
10 int main(void)
11 {
           ASSERT(1 < 2):
12
           ASSERT(23 > 42);
13
14
15
           return 0;
16
```

```
1 $ gcc cpp5-assert.c
2 $ ./a.out
3 cpp5-assert.c:13: Assertion 23 > 42 failed
```

Conditional compilation

- Everything between #ifdef <u>name</u> and the respective #endif, is removed, unless macro <u>name</u> is defined.
 - Using #ifndef is the inverse.
- #if expr uses an arithmetic C expression over integer literals, arithmetic/boolean operators, and macros.
- There are also #elif expr and #else for the usual branching.

Example

```
#ifdef DEBUG
printf(stderr, "value x = %d\n", x);
#endif
```

This code is only compiled if the DEBUG macro is defined.

■ GCC understands the command line argument -Dmacro[=def], defining a macro with an optional definition, or int literal 1 if omitted.

Compile with debugging on:

```
1 $ gcc -DDEBUG main.c
```

Compile production code:

```
1 $ gcc main.c
```

Beware of **Heisenbugs** though!

Examples

Conditional compilation is heavily used to make code independent of compiler and platform:

```
1 #ifndef NULL.
 #ifdef __GNUG__
 #define NULL
                 null
4 #else
 #define NULL
                 0L
 #endif
7 #endif
```

- This is typical code, using compiler-defined macros to inspect language features.
- __GNUG__ is set when compiling C++ code.
- Sometimes one wants to re-implement an existing macro as function:

```
1 #ifdef abs
2 #undef abs
 #warning abs macro collides with abs() prototype, undefining
 #endif
 int abs(int j);
```

- **#undef** makes the preprocessor forget about the <u>named</u> macro.
- #warning message generates a compiler warning.

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Including header files only once

These are called **once-only headers**³. General idea:

- On first visit of a header file, define a macro with unique name.
- Next time, hide the headerfile contents, if the macro is defined.

stack.h:

```
#ifndef STACK_H_INCLUDED

#define STACK_H_INCLUDED

void push(double);
double pop(void);

#endif
```

- The macro name must be unique across all source files.
 - \Rightarrow At least include the file name, maybe use random strings as well⁴.
- Adapt all your header files accordingly.
- CPP does optimize: If the contents of an include file are entirely wrapped as described, it may omit scanning the file repeatedly.
 - Comments put outside the wrapper will not interfere with this optimization.

³https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-9.2.0/cpp/Once-Only-Headers.html
⁴try \$ mktemp -u XXXXXXXXXX, cf. mktemp(1)

Gory details

- Macro arguments are completely expanded before they are substituted into the macro body.
- After that substitution, the entire macro body is scanned again for macros to be expanded.
- Self-referential macros do not loop infinitely, the expansion simply stops before closing a loop. No warning is produced!

```
#define x (1 + y)
                                             1 (1 + (2 * x))
#define y (2 * x)
                                 gives
                                             (2 * (1 + y))
```

■ Certainly a **good read**: Section 3.10 Macro Pitfalls⁵ in the CPP manual.

⁵https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-9.2.0/cpp/Macro-Pitfalls.html

Building big programs

■ The Calculator project consists of various source files:

```
$ 1s calc.c stack.c stack.h token.c token.h
```

Compilation by hand is cumbersome:

```
$ gcc -c calc.c
$ gcc -c stack.c
$ gcc -c token.c
$ ls
calc.c calc.o stack.c stack.h stack.o token.c token.h token.o
$ gcc calc.o stack.o token.o
```

- Of course, we could simply gcc *.c to just compile every C-file, but:
- After a modification, is it really necessary to recompile all sources?

make

make is a tool that helps manage dependencies between your sources:

- Generates commands required for compiling the project.
- Resolves dependencies.
- Clears up temporary files.
- Minimize build time, *e.g.*, on recompilation.
- May parallelise compilation steps, exploiting multiple CPUs.
- Does other things while you sleep.

Documentation

- info make
- Online⁶.

⁶https://www.gnu.org/software/make/manual/

make is controlled by a Makefile

- Usually named Makefile, residing in the source directory.
- A Makefile typically contains several **rules** of the form:

- The <u>target</u> is the thing **to be created**, usually a file.
- The <u>prerequisites</u> are the things that are required to build the <u>target</u>. Usually, these are provided files, or <u>target</u>s to be made by other rules.
- The <u>recipe</u> lines, each **indented with a tab**, contain the commands to execute for building the target.
- make calculates the order in which to build the targets. Goal is the first target in the Makefile, or the ones specified on the command line.
- For convenience, make supports variables.
 - Definition: <u>name</u> = <u>value</u>, although there are many other forms.
 - Usage: (\underline{name}) or $\{\underline{name}\}^7$.

⁷I prefer the latter, to distinguish from function calls, as described later

```
CFLAGS = -std=c99 -g -Wall -Wextra -Wpedantic -Wbad-function-cast \
            -Wconversion -Wwrite-strings -Wstrict-prototypes
4 calc: calc.o stack.o token.o

→ gcc -o calc calc.o stack.o token.o

7 calc.o: calc.c stack.h token.h
      gcc -c ${CFLAGS} calc.c
9
10 stack.o:stack.c stack.h
      gcc -c ${CFLAGS} stack.c
13 token.o:token.c token.h
14 \longrightarrow gcc -c  {CFLAGS} token.c
```

```
$ make

gcc -c -std=c99 -g -Wall -Wextra -Wpedantic -Wbad-function-cast -Wconve
rsion -Wwrite-strings -Wstrict-prototypes calc.c

gcc -c -std=c99 -g -Wall -Wextra -Wpedantic -Wbad-function-cast -Wconve
rsion -Wwrite-strings -Wstrict-prototypes stack.c

gcc -c -std=c99 -g -Wall -Wextra -Wpedantic -Wbad-function-cast -Wconve
rsion -Wwrite-strings -Wstrict-prototypes token.c

gcc -o calc calc.o stack.o token.o
```

Recompilation and updates

Run make again:

```
$ make
make: 'calc' is up to date.
```

- make investigates the timestamps of the files required to build the target.
- make only recompiles the outdated parts of your project.
- You can update the timestamp of a file by touching it:

```
$ touch stack.c

$ make

gcc -c -std=c99 -g -Wall -Wextra -Wpedantic -Wbad-function-cast -Wconve
rsion -Wwrite-strings -Wstrict-prototypes stack.c

gcc -o calc calc.o stack.o token.o
```

Speedup Command line flag $-j\underline{n}$ tells make to run up to \underline{n} jobs in parallel⁸.

⁸cf. the nproc(1) command

Phony targets

- A target is not required to be a file, it may just be an abstract concept of a target: A phony target.
- These are declared in the Makefile with the .PHONY "target", and are not expected to create a file of that name.



- make all builds the entire project, maybe containing multiple programs.
 - Should be the default target, so that just make works as well.
 - .PHONY pseudo-target is never used as default.
- make clean removes generated files, but keeps the final program(s).
- make distclean should leave only what's needed for distribution.

Note These names are just agreed-upon conventions, *cf. GNU Coding Standards*⁹.

⁹https://www.gnu.org/prep/standards/html_node/Standard-Targets.html

Advanced Makefile for the Calculator

```
1 CFLAGS = -std=c99 -g -Wall -Wextra -Wpedantic -Wbad-function-cast ...
2 SRC = $(wildcard *.c)
  OBJ = $(patsubst %.c, %.o, ${SRC})
4
  .PHONY: all clean distclean
6
7 all:
           calc
8 clean:
   \longrightarrow rm -f ${OBJ}
10
11 distclean: clean
12 \longrightarrow
       rm -f calc
13
14 calc: $(OBJ)
|15| \longrightarrow gcc -o \$0 \$ \{OBJ\}
16
17 %.o: %.c
| 18 | \longrightarrow  gcc -c CFLAGS -c 
19
20 calc.o: stack.h token.h
21 stack.o:stack.h
22 token.o:token.h
```