The Make Utility

Independent compilation

- Large programs are difficult to maintain
- Problem solved by breaking the program into separate files
- Different functions placed in different files
- The `main` function appears in only one file, conventionally known as `main.c`
- Advantages
  - Reduction in complexity of organizing the program
  - Reduction in time required for compilation
    - Each file is compiled separately
    - Only those files are recompiled that have been modified
- Compiler creates object files corresponding to each source file
- The object files are linked together to create the final executable
- Compilation time is reduced because linking is much faster than compilation
- Source files are compiled separately under Unix using the `-c` option to the compiler

```
gcc -c main.c
```

- The entire sequence of commands to create an executable can be specified as

```
gcc -c main.c
gcc -c func.c
gcc -o prog main.o func.o
```

Header files

- Used to keep information common to multiple source files
- Files need the same `#define` declarations and the same type declarations (`struct` and `typedef`)
- More convenient to declare these declarations in a single header file
- Header file can be used in all the files using `#include`
- Such a process avoids duplication and allows for easier modification since a constant or type declaration need only be changed in one place
- Guidelines for good header file usage
  - Header files should contain only
    - Constant definitions
    - Type declarations
    - Macro definitions
    - Extern declarations
    - Function prototypes

  - Header files should not contain
    * Any executable code
      · No function definitions
    * Definition of variables
      · Only exception is to declare variables
      · Every variable declaration should be an `extern` declaration
      · Inclusion of variable definitions in header file causes multiple definitions of the same symbol which is a linkage error

- Organization of header files
  - More a matter of style
  - Preferable to have a logical organization
  - By convention, the files have a suffix `.h` but it is not required by the C preprocessor
    * It is also recommended as some utilities (such as `make`) distinguish between C source files and header files using this convention
  - Advisable to split the header file into multiple header files for large projects
    * `const.h` – for constant definitions
    * `types.h` – for type definitions
    * `extern.h` – for external variable declarations
      · Common to define all global variables in the file `main.c`
  - Preferable order of inclusion
    * Include files in the following order

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "const.h"
#include "types.h"
#include "extern.h"
```

    * Important because types may need constants, and `extern` declarations may need types

- Preprocessor trickery
  - Alternative to defining all global variables in `main.c`
  - Use a preprocessor trick to cause `extern.h` to both declare and define global variables
  - The file of `extern` declarations has entries like

```
extern int x;
```

  - The variables are not defined in `main.c` or any other file; instead the lines of code shown below are placed in `main.c` (or the source file containing `main()`)

```
#define extern          /* Define extern to nothing */
#include "extern.h"
#undef extern           /* Revert to no change for safety  */
```

    * The first line defines `extern` to nothing or white space
    * This has the effect of deleting all occurrences of the word `extern` in the header file
    * Any `extern` declaration without the keyword `extern` is a definition
    * In all files except `main.c`, the variable `x` is qualified by `extern`, and the global variables are defined exactly once
  - Disadvantages of this technique
    * Global variables cannot be easily initialized at compile time
    * Initializations can be included with more preprocessor trickery but may not be worth the trouble

```
extern int x          /* no semicolon          */
#ifdef extern
    = 2               /* initialize            */
#endif
    ;                 /* end of declaration    */
```

  - This is the template to declare each variable

- Header files of function prototypes
  - Function prototypes need to be included to allow proper type checking
  - Prototypes are strongly recommended to remove the problem of [accidentally] using a function before it is defined
  - Omission of function prototypes loses all type checking of function arguments and may cause compiler or run-time errors
  - It is strongly recommended to maintain a header file containing a prototype for every function
  - No strict need to include prototypes in the files where the functions are defined but this is useful in checking that the declarations in the header file match the actual definitions
- Automatic generation of header files
  - Possible by using the `grep` and `sed` utilities to extract all function definitions
  - All you need to do is to extract the function definitions and add a semicolon at the end
  - Assumptions
    - Function definitions start at the first character of a line
    - The entire list of function parameters are on a single line

The Make Utility

- Utility to aid in the design and maintenance of multiple-file programs
- Relieves the programmer of the burden of remembering which files need recompilation
  - Examines the date of modification of files to see if they have changed
  - Recompiles the files if above is true
- Requires the use of a special file (called description file) in the directory, called `Makefile` or `makefile`
- Examines `Makefile` to determine the dependencies needed to build the executables
  - Sorts out dependency relations among files
  - Automatically recompiles only those files that have been changed after building the executable, and links them into the executable
- Based on non-procedural programming techniques, such as backtracking used in logic programming languages

The Makefile

- Used to make a *target* of the operation, using *prerequisites* or *dependents*; the dependents may have other files as prerequisites
- Sensitive to dependencies such as

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \text{source} & \Rightarrow & \text{object} \\ \text{object} & \Rightarrow & \text{executable} \end{array}$$

- Consists of two main types of lines described in the following general syntax

```
target :    dep1 dep2 dep3 ...    # Dependency line
            cmd                   # Command line
```

  1. Dependency lines
     - Also known as *rule lines*
     - Show the dependencies between files
     - Exactly one line long; use of backslash as the last character is allowed to extend the line
     - The dependencies must be satisfied, possibly by building them as targets in other entries, to build the current target
     - A single target may appear on multiple dependency lines; however, only one of them can be associated with commands
  2. Command lines
     - Commands to be executed to compile the files
     - Must be on a single line but the use of backslash as the last character of the line allows extended lines
     - Must begin with a tab as the first character on line[1]
     - tabs in the `Makefile` can be checked by the command

       `cat -v -t -e Makefile`

       * `-v` and `-e` options cause all tabs to appear as `^I`
       * `-e` option places a dollar sign at the end of each line to enable you to see any terminating white space
     - Multiple commands can be specified on successive lines to be executed in sequence
     - Multiple commands can be specified on same line if they are separated by a semicolon from each other

- Comments can be specified by the `#` sign and extend to the end of line
- Blank lines
  - Allowed in some places
  - Should not separate a dependency line from its commands
  - Should not separate lists of commands
- Targets without prerequisites
  - Must have a colon
  - Need not be filenames and if so, are always executed
    * `make` treats every non-existent target as out-of-date target
- A simple `Makefile`

```
CC      = gcc
CFLAGS  = -g
TARGET  = math
OBJS    = main.o square.o cube.o

$(TARGET): $(OBJS)
        $(CC) -o $(TARGET) $(OBJS)

main.o: main.c
        $(CC) $(CFLAGS) -c main.c
```

[1] Most important syntax rule of make

```
square.o: square.c
        $(CC) $(CFLAGS) -c square.c

cube.o: cube.c
        $(CC) $(CFLAGS) -c cube.c

clean:
        /bin/rm -f *.o $(TARGET)
```

- Dependency checking (using above `Makefile` as an example)
  - First target to be built is `math`
  - `make` checks to see if `math` exists in the current directory
  - If it exists, `make` checks `main.o`, `square.o`, and `cube.o` to see whether any of them are newer than `math`
  - The process in the above step is repeated for each of the `*.o` files as targets, checking their dependencies, using later entries in `Makefile`
  - Only after all the prerequisites have been verified and brought up-to-date, `make` will exit making sure that the file `math` is current
  - Order of checking dependencies is important, and chain of commands must be issued in the correct order
  - It should also be apparent by now why the target name (to the left of the colon) is the same as the filename resulting from the execution of a command
- Minimizing rebuilds
  - If some object files are used in multiple programs, they need to be compiled only once
- Invoking `make`
  - Any target in the `Makefile` can be built by using the command

    ```
    make target
    ```
  - Several targets can be specified in a single invocation of `make`

    ```
    make square.o cube.o
    ```
  - If target is not specified, `make` attempts to make the first available target in the `Makefile`

Macros

- Description file entries of the form

  ```
  NAME = text_string
  ```
- Can be referred to subsequently by `$(NAME)` or `${NAME}`
  - Parentheses or braces can be dispensed with for macros with single letter names
  - Preferable to use braces as it allows the use of parentheses exclusively for library modules
- Permit variation from one build to the next, for example, changing the `DEBUG_FLAG` from `-g` to `-O`
- Can be used anywhere in the `Makefile`, on both the dependency lines as well as the command lines
- Conceptually, the `make` utility expands macros before any other processing
- Conventionally, macro names are typed in all upper case letters

- A pound sign end the definition and starts a comment
- Macro definition can be continued on the next line by using backslash as the last character on the current line
- A macro definition with no string after the equal sign is assigned the null string
- Order of definition of macros is not important
  - Cannot redefine a macro once it has been defined in the same file
  - Macro must be defined before any dependency line in which it appears

Suffix rules

```
CC = gcc
CFLAGS = -g
TARGET = math
OBJS = main.o square.o cube.o
.SUFFIXES: .c .o

$(TARGET): $(OBJS)
$(CC) -o $@ $(OBJS)

.c.o:
$(CC) $(CFLAGS) -c $<

clean:
/bin/rm -f *.o $(TARGET)
```

Library archive

```
CC = gcc
CFLAGS = -g
TARGET = math
OBJS = main.o
LIBOBJS = square.o cube.o
LIBS = -lmymath
MYLIBS = libmymath.a
LIBPATH = .
.SUFFIXES: .c .o

$(TARGET): $(OBJS) $(MYLIBS)
$(CC) -o $@ -L. $(OBJS) $(LIBS)

$(MYLIBS): $(LIBOBJS)
ar -rs $@ $(LIBOBJS)

.c.o:
$(CC) $(CFLAGS) -c $<

clean:
/bin/rm -f *.o $(TARGET)
```

Creating shared objects

```
CC = gcc
CFLAGS = -g
TARGET = math
OBJS = main.o
LIBOBJS = square.o cube.o
LIB = mymath.so
.SUFFIXES: .c .o

$(TARGET): $(OBJS) $(LIB)
$(CC) -o $@ $(OBJS) $(LIB)

$(LIB): $(LIBOBJS)
$(CC) -G -o $(LIB) $(LIBOBJS)

square.o: square.c
$(CC) -fpic -c square.c

cube.o: cube.c
$(CC) -fpic -c cube.c

.c.o:
$(CC) $(CFLAGS) -c $<

clean:
/bin/rm -f *.o $(TARGET)
```