The Boost.Build System

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Abstract—Boost.Build is a new build system with unique approach to portability. This paper discusses the underlying requirements, the key design decisions, and the lessons learned during several years of development. We also review other contemporary build systems, and why they fail to meet the same requirements.

I. INTRODUCTION

For software projects using compiled languages (primarily C and C++), build system is the key element of infrastructure. Mature tools such as GNU Make [3] or GNU Automake [4] exist. However, those tools are relatively low level, and hard to master. They also have limited portability. For that reason, many software projects do custom work on build system level. One such project is C++ Boost [5].

C++ Boost is a popular collection of C++ libraries, many of which are either included in the next revision of the C++ Standard or planned for inclusion [6], [7]. This unique position attracts a lot of users, who, in turn, use a wide variety of operating systems and differently-configured environments. This differs from most commercial projects — which target a few platforms that are important from business perspective, and are built in a well-controlled environment. This is also different from most open-source projects — which tend to focus on GNU/Linux environment. Developers’ background also considerably differs — a person who is expert in C++ is not necessarily an expert in different operating systems.

This diversity in user and developer base lead to the following requirements for a build system:

1) “Write once, build everywhere”. If a library builds on one platform, it should be very likely that it builds on all other platforms supported by the build system. It follows that build description should be relatively high-level, and avoid any system- or compiler- specific details, such as file extensions, compiler options or command-line shell syntax details.

2) Extensibility. Adding support for a new compiler or a platform should not require changing build system core or build descriptions for individual libraries. Ideally, user would have to write a new module and provide it to the build system.

3) Multiple variants. The build system may not require that the build properties for the entire project are specified up-front, during special “configure” step, and then require that all build products be removed before changing build properties. Instead, it should be possible to change build properties without full rebuild. Such change may happen at three levels:

a) Between different parts of the project. The simplest example is compiling a specific source file with an additional compiler option. More complex example is building a specific module as a static library, and another as a shared library. It should be possible to change every aspect of the build process — even including the used compiler.

b) Between different builds. For example, one may originally build a project in release mode for testing and, after discovering a bug, wish to initiate a build in debug mode. It would be wasteful to remove the previously built object files, so the build system must arrange for debug and release products to be placed in different directories. The mechanism should not be restricted to just debug and release builds, but apply to any build properties.

c) Within one build. This means that one invocation of the build system may produce several variants of a build product — for example, static and shared versions of the same library.

This paper describes Boost.Build [8] — a build system developed to meet the above requirements. Section 2 will describe key concepts and mechanisms of Boost.Build. In section 3 we review the lessons learned during development as well as some unexpected drawbacks. Section 4 discusses other contemporary build tools, and why they could not be used. Section 5 summarizes the article and suggests future development directions.

II. DESIGN CONCEPTS

The best way to explain the key design elements of Boost.Build is by following a few steps of gradual refinements, starting from a classic tool — GNU Make. In GNU Make, a user directly defines a set of targets, where a target is an object that has:

• a name
• a set of dependency targets
• a command to build the target

Consider this example:

```plaintext
a.o: a.c
  g++ -o a.o -g a.c
```
Here, the name of the target is a.o, the only dependency is a target named a.c, and the command invokes the gcc compiler. Given the set of targets defined in a build description file (“buildfile” for short), GNU Make identifies targets that are out of date with respect to their dependencies, and invokes the commands specified for such targets. The description shown above has two problems. First, the names of the targets and the exact commands typically may vary depending on environment, and should not be hardcoded. This problem is typically solved using variables — in the example below, the OBJEXT and CFLAGS variables may be defined as appropriate for platform.

```
.a.${OBJEXT}: a.c
  g++ -o a.o $(CFLAGS) a.c
```

While this makes build description more flexible, it also makes it rather verbose, and hard to write. Second, depending on build variant and platform, even the set of targets may vary. For example, depending on platform and desired linking method, building a library might produce from 1 to 4 files. Obviously, conditionally defining 4 targets for every library is extremely cumbersome.

Modern build systems do not require that user describes concrete targets, but provide a set of `generator functions`, or `generators` for short. A generator is called with the name of primary target, a list of sources, and other parameters, and produces a set of concrete targets. Sometimes, these concrete targets are GNU Make targets. Sometimes, a different low-level build engine is used. For example, a library might be defined like this:

```
library(helper, helper.c)
```

This statement calls a function `library` that constructs the set of concrete targets that is suitable for the target platform — which may include the library file proper, import library, and various manifest files. The compiler and linker options are also derived from both the platform and the way the build system was configured. Thus, the user-written build description does not include any platform-specific details. Instead, such details are handled by the build system, which is separately maintained. Boost.Build also uses a similar description mechanism, but advances it further.

First key observation is that using generators is not sufficient to achieve portability. Requirements listed in section 1 include using different build properties for different parts of the project. This can be achieved using additional parameters to generators. But if the set of those parameters, or their values, is either incomplete, or depends on platform, the build description is not portable. To achieve the portability goals, Boost.Build defines a large set of build parameters with the following characteristics:

- Every generator accepts the same set of build parameters
- The names of build parameters and their values are the same everywhere

For example, every generator in Boost.Build accepts a parameter named `optimization`, with `none`, `speed` and `space` as possible values. Consequently, the example might be modified as follows:

```
library(helper, helper.c, 
  optimization=space)
```

This change addresses requirement 1 (“write once, build everywhere”).

The second key observation is that differences between platforms are so significant that creating a single generic generator such as `library` is hard. Obviously, small behaviour differences can be handled in an ad-hoc way — for example by introducing a global variable set by platform-specific code and checked by the generator. However, in existing tools there are dozens of such variables, with the generator still containing significant platform specific logic. More systematic approach is needed. To that end, Boost.Build allows several generators to exist, and uses a dispatching function to select the generator to use. In example below:

```
library(helper, helper.c, 
  link=shared)
```

the description written by the user looks the same as before. However, the `library` function is no longer responsible for constructing targets. Instead, it merely selects and invokes a platform-specific generator. This generator need only deal with a single platform, and can be easily implemented. The specific generator selection algorithm (that will be described below) allows new generators to be defined in platform-specific modules and automatically participate in generator selection, thereby addressing requirement 2 (“extensibility”). It should be noted that recursive calls are common — for example, the `library` generator might use the `object` generator. In Boost.Build, the dispatching function is also used for such recursive calls, allowing for fine-grained customization.

The third key observation is that if a build description is allowed to call a dispatching function when the build description is parsed, it severely limits the possibilities to further build the same part of a project with different properties. To address this issue Boost.Build introduces `metatargets` — which are essentially closure objects. Consider an example using the actual Boost.Build syntax:

```
lib helper : helper.cpp ;
```

This statement defines a closure of the dispatching function, binding the name and the sources list. If we invoke Boost.Build from the command line using the following command:

```
$ b2 toolset=gcc variant=debug
  link=shared
```

then the closure object will be called with the specified build parameters. The `toolset=gcc` and `link=shared` parameters uniquely specify a generator — `gcc.link.dll` — that is called to produce the concrete targets. In the example below, we request a two-variant build:

```
$ b2 toolset=gcc link=shared --
  toolset=msvc
```
In this case, the created closure object will be called twice, once with toolset=gcc and link=shared parameters, and once with toolset=msvc parameter. Different generators will be selected, and a substantially different set of concrete targets will be produced. The metatargets mechanism addresses requirement 3 (“multivariant builds”).

We have introduced the key design elements of Boost.Build. The remainder of this section describes in detail the most important mechanisms used to implement this design.

A. Requirements

It is uncommon for the entire project to be buildable for all possible build parameters. Requirements is a mechanism to restrict the possible build parameters for a specific metatarget. Simple requirement merely state that a given build parameter should always have a specific value for this metatarget. For example:

```
lib helper : helper.cpp
  : link=static ;
```

overrides the value of the link build parameter that was passed to the metatarget, and causes the concrete targets to be constructed as if link=static was passed. Conditional requirements override a build parameter if some other parameters have specific values. For example:

```
lib helper : helper.cpp
  : toolset=msvc:link=static ;
```

will override the link build parameter only if the toolset build parameter has the value of msvc. Finally, indirect conditional requirements specify that a user-provided function should be called to adjust build properties.

For convenience, a buildfile may specify project requirements that are automatically added to requirements of all metatargets in that buildfile.

B. Platform support

This section explains two mechanisms that facilitate easy support for new platforms — selection of generators by the dispatching function, and translation of build parameters into properties of concrete targets.

Let’s look again at the syntax used to declare a metatarget:

```
lib helper : helper.cpp ;
```

As said before, this creates a closure of the dispatching function, binding target name, list of sources, and — which we did not say before — the metatarget type, in this case lib. For the purpose of generator selection, Boost.Build maintains additional information about each generator — the metatarget type, and the set of required build parameters. For a concrete example, consider the following table:

| Generator   | Type | Required parameters |
|-------------|------|---------------------|
| gcc.link.dll | LIB  | toolset=gcc         |
| gcc.link    | EXE  | toolset=gcc         |
| msvc.link.dll | LIB | toolset=msvc |

When the dispatching function is called, it first selects the generators associated with the metatarget type. In our example, such generators are gcc.link.dll and msvc.link.dll. Then, required parameters of the selected generators are compared with the build parameters passed to the dispatching function. If any of the required parameters is not present, the generator is not considered. In our example, if toolset=gcc is passed to the dispatching function, then msvc.link.dll generator is discarded. All the remaining generators are called. If exactly one succeeds in generating targets, then the dispatching function returns. Otherwise, an ambiguity is reported and the build process stops. This selection mechanism allows additional generators to be easily added, without modifying core logic of the build system.

When a specific generator constructs a target, it should establish the exact path and name of the target, as well as the command to build it. All that typically depends on build parameters. Of course, a generator may use arbitrary logic to compute this information, but Boost.Build comes with convenient default behaviour. The target path is constructed using the values of build parameters. For example, a path might be bin/gcc/debug/. Some mechanisms are used to make the paths shorter — for example, for a few common parameter the path includes only the values, but not the names. Also, parameters that have default values are not included in path. Target name is constructed from the name of the corresponding metatarget. Boost.Build maintains a table, that is indexed by metatarget type and the value of the target-os build parameter, and gives suffix and prefix that should be added to metatarget name. The mechanism to construct updating command is the key to easy definition of new generators, and is illustrated below:

```
actions gcc.link.dll {
  g++ -shared $(OPTIONS)
}
flags gcc.link.dll OPTIONS : <profiling>on : -pg ;
```

First, a command template is defined — by convention, it has the same name as a generator. Command template may refer to variables, in this case OPTIONS. The second statement in the example establishes mapping between build parameters and variables that are replaced in command template. Given these declarations, a generator can create a new target specifying gcc.link.dll as command template for that target. All the flags statements for this command template are automatically processed. The flag statement above requests that if build parameter profiling has value on, then the -pg string be added to the OPTIONS variable. After all flag statements are processed, every reference to a variable in the command template is replaced by the variable’s value. This mechanism proved to be highly beneficial, because it allows to add support for a new build variable to any generator with a very localized change.

III. Current state and learned lessons

At this point Boost.Build is a mature tool that can be successfully used in production environment, and has already met its requirements. At the same time, it is being actively
developed. This section will describe the main issues that were discovered.

A. Metatarget-induced direction

In most existing build tools, buildfiles are written in some interpreted language, and are executed at build system startup, calling generators and constructing targets. Boost.Build differs from this model by creating closure objects that are called with proper build parameters at a later point. Furthermore, Boost.Build does not require that project be “configured”, with some of the build parameters fixed, before starting a build. Consequently, when a buildfile is executed it does not make sense to talk about “current” build parameters and no logic that depends on build parameters may be implemented as an \texttt{if}-statement on the top level of a buildfile. Rather, such logic must be implemented as functions that will be called by generators.

For many users, this trait cause understanding problems. We believe that this complexity directly follows from the requirement and key design elements, and cannot be fully eliminated. On the other hand, most users successfully adjusted to this model.

B. Code-level extension mechanisms

One of the goals of Boost.Build was simple description language. This lead to invention of concise syntax for many tasks. However, often no suitable programmatic interface was designed for the case when the concise syntax is not enough. In other words, there are many areas where build behaviour needs to be customized by the user, and there’s a wide spectrum of possible customization mechanisms — from a new build parameter to a new metatarget type. In a few cases, this spectrum is not evenly covered, and user has to choose between a very simple method that is not flexible enough, and an extremely complex solution.

One example is the conditional requirements syntax shown previously: \texttt{toolset=msvc:link=static}. This syntax is sufficient for the majority of cases, but does not support complex conditions — in fact, conditions using any logical operators except for “and”. Until indirect conditional requirements were introduced relatively late during development, users were forced to use a fairly verbose mechanism instead.

Another example is generators. It is very easy for user to declare a new generator that produces one output target from one input target. However, any conditional logic — such as creating an additional target depending on some build parameters — requires substantial complexity. While we have described generators as functions in this article, they are actually implemented as classes in certain programming language, which adds some overhead for just declaring a new generator. Furthermore, the implementation of the base generator classes was not designed for easy extensibility, so often, user had to reimplement significant amount of code.

We believe that issues of this kind have only small correlation with the key design choices, and can be eliminated. In fact, quite a few were already fixed as user report them.

C. User expectations

One unexpected issue during development was users’ expectations. It is safe to say that most users either have GNU Automake background, or are not experienced with command line tools, and these users have some specific, and often different, expectations.

For example, GNU Automake allows to change compiler by setting environment variables, such as \texttt{GXX}. Users often try the same with Boost.Build, and find that it has no effect. For another example, Boost.Build does not stop after a compile error, but builds other targets that do no depend on the failed one. At the end of the build, a summary of failures is printed. This small change proved problematic. Many users did not understand that the error was printed earlier, and interpreted the summary as the original error. And on some operating systems, finding an error in several thousand lines of build output is a problem itself. Developers on Microsoft Windows operating system usually expect that every tool checks system registry for all configuration. Consequently, they found it very unnatural when prior versions of Boost.Build required to specify compiler location in a configuration file. Finally, Boost.Build command line syntax is slightly unusual, having separate syntax for command line options, build parameters and arguments. Many users still try to use option’s syntax to specify build parameters.

Some of those issues are natural consequences of a different design and require users to adjust. But still, many issues are independent, and can be easily addressed. We recommend that design process for any project in an established area include explicit gathering of user expectation to avoid unnecessary differences in operation details.

IV. EXISTING SOLUTIONS

There are two build systems that are most commonly used today – the one integrated with Microsoft Visual Studio, and the Automake build system. However, neither of them is truly portable. Below, we review a few solutions that work across different platforms.

A. Eclipse CDT

The C/C++ Development Tooling (CDT) for the Eclipse Platform comes with its own build system[1]. The CDT build system keeps a repository of available tools, organized in named toolsets. For each tool, input and output file types are specified. Any project is required to specify the name and type of the target that should ultimately be built, and CDT automatically picks tools that can produce the desired final target from all files in the source folders. Each tool can have a set of options that are editable via user interface. Similar to Boost.Build, tool options may be specified on individual source folders or individual source files.

Let’s review how CDT build system can support the build system requirements described in section[1]:

- The “write once, build everywhere” requirements is not met. User can count on some functionality to be available everywhere — in particular shared and static libraries...
and predefined “debug” and “release” build variants. However, any further fine-tuning is done via options that are specific to each tool. Therefore, if building with a different compiler, the options has to be specified anew. CDT actually has an indirection level between the value of an option as displayed in user interface, and the command line flags used for compilation when that value is selected. Therefore, it would have been possible to implement a portable set of options, that every tools would translate into appropriate command line options. However, since such portable set is not defined, build descriptions in CDT are not portable.

- The extensibility requirement is poorly met. The only way to extend build system is via new tool definition, and it not possible to completely override the build process for a specific platform. Further, tool definition should be be included either in CDT core or in a separate Eclipse plugin, and cannot be easily packaged with a project. Tool definition uses an XML-based language, which appears to be inconvenient in practice.
- The multivariant requirement is partially met. CDT supports build configurations that include a complete set of options for all tools, and allows one to freely change build configuration every time a build is initialized. Each part of a complex project may use different build configuration. Note that this happens because a “project” in CDT terminology may only contain a single final target, so non-trivial user project has to be split into multiple CDT projects. It is not possible to build the same target in different configurations simultaneously. It is also not possible to build using arbitrary ad-hoc set of build parameters — one has to define a new configuration instead.

CDT has one unique feature — it has a mechanism to specify dependencies between build parameters. For example, 64-bit compilation can be enabled only if the chosen processor indeed supports 64-bit instructions. This feature can be worthwhile to implement in Boost.Build.

B. CMake

The CMake [?] tool is designed as a abstraction on top of existing “native” build systems. When invoked, CMake reads its buildfiles, and then generates secondary buildfiles using a selected “backend” build system – for example, GNU make. The project is then build when the user explicitly runs the secondary build system. Whenever CMake buildfiles are modified, or any build properties must change, the secondary buildfiles are regenerated. Such scheme improves build system speed for the case where a project is repeatedly build with the same settings.

Let’s review how CMake can support the build system requirements described in section [1]

- The “write once, build everywhere” requirement is not met. The points we have raised when discussing CDT equally apply to CMake.
- The extensibility requirement is not met. Platform-specific modules in CMake essentially specify variables used by CMake core, and it is not possible to completely replace generator [5]. Support for some platforms, for example, Microsoft Visual Studio, relies on special core functionality.
- The multivariant requirement is not met. CMake requires that a project is configured with specific set of properties, and requires reconfiguration for any change in properties. This appears to be result of an explicit design goal, meant to make it impossible to accidentally mix modules built with incompatible settings.

C. SCons

The SCons build tool[?], [?] is unique in two aspects.

First, it uses the Python language for buildfiles, as well as implementation language. In contrast, both Boost.Build and CMake use custom languages. On one hand, this means that the syntax is not as concise, due to punctuation and quoting rules of Python. On the other hand, the use of a mature and widely known programming language reduces learning curve, and simplifies many programming tasks. It also means there’s no language boundary between buildfiles and build system core.

Second, SCons uses cryptographic signatures to detect if a target should be rebuild. When a target is built, signature of content of all source files, as well as the command used to produce the file is stored. These signatures are recomputed on every build, and if they differ from the scored ones, the target is rebuild. This approach means that a change in command associated with a target will be detected, and cause a rebuild, while other build system can build different parts of project with incompatible commands.

For the simple usage, SCons provides a set of generators that can be called from buildfiles, for example Program and Library. The targets produced by those generators use globally specified build parameters. However, SCons also provides a mechanism called construction environment — explicitly created collection of build parameters. It is possible to invoke a generator in specified environment, consequently building different parts of projects with completely unrelated set of build properties. However, this mechanism does not allow to easily build one target with different properties. SCons does not assign different directories for target with different properties, so user is required to explicitly specify different names for final and intermediate targets.

Let’s review how SCons supports the requirements described in section [2]

- The “Write once, build everywhere” requirement is not met. The points we have raised when discussing CDT equally apply to SCons.
- The extensibility requirements is met. A platform specific code can completely replace standard generators if so desired.

The “generator” is used in the sense defined in this article. CMake documentation uses the word “generator” for an unrelated concept.
• The build variants requirements is partially met. Similar to CDT, SCons allow to explicitly define several build variants, and unlike CDT, all variants can be built simultaneously. However, SCons does not automatically place products for different parameters in different directories, so it is in general not possible to change any parameter between two build invocation without discarding previous build products.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

This paper has presented the requirements for the Boost.Build system and its key design decision, as well as reviewed some existing solutions. We believe that the main distinguishing characteristics of Boost.Build are:

• portable build properties, and associated mechanisms like requirements
• true multivariant builds, specifically the metatarget concept
• convenient extensibility, in the form of generator selection and flags mechanisms

While some design complexities were encountered, we believe that overall, Boost.Build is a step forward in the area of software construction.

There are two key areas of future development:

• Use of the Python language for implementation and build description. We find that Python has become sufficiently popular and well-supported and the benefits of using it will outweigh slightly more verbose syntax.

• IDE integration. Because Boost.Build does not rely on any legacy backend build tools, and because every metatarget can be repeatedly constructed with different, or same, build properties, it is particularly suitable for integrated development environments — making it possible to quickly determine what products must be rebuild as result of changes made by a user.

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