

The conversion procedure (.cpp to .exe) :-

1. PRE-PROCESSING

This is the very first stage through which a source code passes. In this stage the following tasks are done:

1. Macro substitution
2. Comments are stripped off
3. Expansion of the included files

To understand preprocessing better, you can compile the above 'print.c' program using flag -E, which will print the preprocessed output to stdout.

```
$ gcc -Wall -E print.c
```

Even better, you can use flag '-save-temps' as shown below. '-save-temps' flag instructs compiler to store the temporary intermediate files used by the gcc compiler in the current directory.

```
$ gcc -Wall -save-temps print.c -o print
```

So when we compile the program print.c with -save-temps flag we get the following intermediate files in the current directory (along with the print executable)

```
$ ls
print.i
print.s
print.o
```

The preprocessed output is stored in the temporary file that has the extension .i (i.e 'print.i' in this example)

Now, lets open print.i file and view the content.

```
$ vi print.i
.....
.....
.....
.....
# 840 "/usr/include/stdio.h" 3 4
extern FILE *popen (__const char *__command, __const char *__modes) ;
extern int pclose (FILE *__stream);
extern char *ctermid (char *__s) __attribute__ ((__nothrow__));

# 880 "/usr/include/stdio.h" 3 4
extern void flockfile (FILE *__stream) __attribute__ ((__nothrow__));
extern int ftrylockfile (FILE *__stream) __attribute__ ((__nothrow__));
extern void funlockfile (FILE *__stream) __attribute__ ((__nothrow__));

# 910 "/usr/include/stdio.h" 3 4
# 2 "print.c" 2

int main(void)
{
    printf("Hello World");
    return 0;
}
```

2. COMPILING

After the compiler is done with the pre-processor stage. The next step is to take `print.i` as input, compile it and produce an intermediate compiled output. The output file for this stage is '`print.s`'. The output present in `print.s` is assembly level instructions.

Open the `print.s` file in an editor and view the content.

```
$ vi print.s
.file "print.c"
.section .rodata
.LC0:
.string "Hello World"
.text
.globl main
.type main, @function
main:
.LFB0:
.cfi_startproc
pushq %rbp
.cfi_def_cfa_offset 16
movq %rsp, %rbp
.cfi_offset 0, -16
.cfi_def_cfa_register 0
movl $.LC0, %eax
movq %rax, %rdi
movl $0, %eax
call printf
movl $0, %eax
leave
ret
.cfi_endproc
.LFE0:
.size main, .-main
.ident "GCC: (Ubuntu 4.4.3-4ubuntu5) 4.4.3"
.section .note.GNU-stack,"",@progbits
```

Though I am not much into assembly level programming but a quick look concludes that this assembly level output is in some form of instructions which the assembler can understand and convert it into machine level language.

3. ASSEMBLY

At this stage the `print.s` file is taken as an input and an intermediate file `print.o` is produced. This file is also known as the object file.

This file is produced by the assembler that understands and converts a '`.s`' file with assembly instructions into a '`.o`' object file which contains machine level instructions. At this stage only the existing code is converted into machine language, the function calls like `printf()` are not resolved.

Since the output of this stage is a machine level file (print.o). So we cannot view the content of it. If you still try to open the print.o and view it, you'll see something that is totally not readable.

[illegible]

The only thing we can explain by looking at the `print.o` file is about the string `ELF`.

ELF stands for executable and linkable format.

This is a relatively new format for machine level object files and executable that are produced by gcc. Prior to this, a format known as a.out was used. ELF is said to be more sophisticated format than a.out (We might dig deeper into the ELF format in some other future article).

Note: If you compile your code without specifying the name of the output file, the output file produced has name 'a.out' but the format now have changed to ELF. It is just that the default executable file name remains the same.

4. LINKING

This is the final stage at which all the linking of function calls with their definitions are done. As discussed earlier, till this stage gcc doesn't know about the definition of functions like `printf()`. Until the compiler knows exactly where all of these functions are implemented, it simply uses a place-holder for the function call. It is at this stage, the definition of `printf()` is resolved and the actual address of the function `printf()` is plugged in.

The linker comes into action at this stage and does this task.

The linker also does some extra work; it combines some extra code to our program that is required when the program starts and when the program ends. For example, there is code which is standard for setting up the running environment like passing command line arguments, passing environment variables to every program. Similarly some standard code that is required to return the return value of the program to the system.

The above tasks of the compiler can be verified by a small experiment. Since now we already know that the linker converts .o file (print.o) to an executable file (print).

So if we compare the file sizes of both the print.o and print file, we'll see the difference.

```
$ size print.o
text    data    bss     dec     hex filename
  97      0      0      97      61 print.o

$ size print
text    data    bss     dec     hex filename
1181    520     16    1717    6b5 print
```

Through the size command we get a rough idea about how the size of the output file increases from an object file to an executable file. This is all because of that extra standard code that linker combines with our program.