The Components of Software
Compiling Software from Source
Packaging Systems
Debian Package Management
Security Updates

COMP09024 Unix System Administration

Lecture 7: Software Installation, Configuration and Management

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7.1 The Components of Software

What is Software

'Software' is a wide term and covers a range of items:

- Executables, which may be:
 - Binaries (in 'machine code' for a particular CPU)
 - Scripts (written in a scripting language: sh, Perl or others
 - These may include command line programs, GUI-based applications and server or 'daemon' programs
- Libraries containing commonly used functions
- Data used by executables (eg word lists for spell checkers, brush shapes for image editors, etc)
- Documentation, including man pages
- Configuration and settings



Binaries and Executables

- All executable programs (binaries and scripts) must be executable by at least one user
- Binaries may be various formats most common in modern Unix is ELF (Executable and Linking Format)
- Binaries include code and data from the program itself
- They may also include additional library code added at compile time from, or dependent on dynamically linked code stored elsewhere
- Scripts begin with the hash-bang (or 'shebang') #!, immediately followed by the full path to the interpreter, eg /bin/sh, /usr/bin/awk, /usr/bin/python



Executables Directories

- Executables are usually stored in bin directories
- These may be found in various places:
 - /usr/local/sbin (local applications)
 - /usr/local/bin (local applications)
 - /usr/sbin (sysadmin executables)
 - /usr/bin
 - /sbin (sysadmin executables)
 - /bin
- The PATH environment variable specifies the search path for executables:

```
user@debian~$ echo $PATH /usr/local/sbin:/usr/bin:/sbin:/bin
```

- which shows where in the path an executable is found user@debian~\$ which ping /bin/ping
- When we execute ping in a shell, actually is /bin/ping the command executed!

Libraries

- Libraries are collections of commonly used routines
- Library code can be linked (statically) at build time
- Much more common is dynamically linking code:
 - Compiler notes which libraries (and versions) are required
 - When run, this code is loaded dynamically
 - Multiple programs can share a single copy of the library
- The dynamic linker (ld.so) loads libraries at run time
- 1dd shows a list of what libraries a program requires
- The LD_LIBRARY_PATH environment variable specifies a list of directories to search for dynamic libraries
- Libraries are stored in /lib, /usr/lib, /usr/local/lib (and possibly others)
- Libraries can also be found in subdirectories of these for particular architectures and operating systems

Documentation: man Pages

- /usr/share/man or /usr/man hold man pages
- This contains subdirectories for sections of the manual:
 - Executable programms and shell commands in man1
 - System calls (functions provided by the kernel) in man2
 - Library calls (functions within program libraries) in man3
 - Special files (usually found in /dev) in man4
 - File formats and conventions (eg /etc/passwd) in man5
 - Games in man 6
 - Macro packages and miscellaneous conventions in man7
 - System administration commands (usually only for root) in man8
 - Kernel routines in man9 (on Linux only)
- There may also be subdirectories for man pages in other languages (based on local names, eg es, de, sv, pt_BR)
- whereis locates both executables and man pages



Documentation: Formatting man Pages

- man pages sources are stored in a special format using man macros for the nroff text processor
- File suffix represents manual section
- Files may be compressed (eg with gzip)
- The man command then formats these for display (and paging) as appropriate
- These can also be formatted in other ways using nroff (or groff) with the man macro package
- For example, to format the bash (1) manual page in PostScript:

• Preformatted man pages may be cached in /var/cache/man/



Other Documentation

- Other documentation may take various forms
- info is a hyperlinked documentation system:
 - info pages are stored in .info files (possibly compressed) in /usr/share/info
 - These can be navigated with the info command
 - Widely used by GNU software (alongside man pages, usually)
- Configuration files may contain comments and example configurations
- Printable documentation and example configurations may be stored in subdirectories of /usr/share/doc/



Configuration Files

- Unix configuration files are generally text-based
- Configuration files are stored either directly in /etc or in a subdirectory
- Configuration for software may in complex cases be split across multiple files, by either:
 - Naming files numerically (they are read in order)
 - Including files from a master config file
- A common convention for multiple configuration files stored in a directory is to suffix the directory name with a .d
- Configuration files are normally well commented # is a common comment character, though not used in all cases
- Other 'configuration' files may include scripts for starting and stopping services



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Software Sources
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Build Configuration
Compiling and Installing
Makefiles and make

7.2 Compiling Software from Source

Software Sources

- Software can often be built from source
- This allows one version of the software bundle to be distributed, usable on multiple platforms
- But this requires compilation of binaries and correct installation by the system administrator
- Such bundles generally are in a single 'archive' file, usually compressed
- The steps to install are:
 - Unpack the sources
 - Configure appropriately for the target system
 - Ompile sources into executable code and libraries
 - Install software into the appropriate directories



Unpacking Sources

- The most common format for distributed sources is a compressed tar archive (with a .tar.gz or .tgz suffix)
- This can be uncompressed and unpacked in separate steps, but more usual is using (for example):

```
tar xzf software-1.2.3.tgz
```

- z indicates that the archive has been compressed with gzip
 —use j for bzip, and Z for compress
- This normally creates a subdirectory called (eg) software-1.2.3
- This directory will normally contain (among other things):
 - Documentation files such as README and/or INSTALL
 - Subdirectories for source code, documentation, etc



Build Configuration and ./configure

- Source code is designed to be built on many different types of Unix system (and sometimes even non-Unix systems)
- The next step is to configure the build system to use the appropriate system calls and library routines from the target system
- Usually, the autoconfigure system can determine such settings automatically
- This involves running the ./configure script
- Other manual settings may also be specified at this stage, for example:
 - ./configure -{}-prefix=/usr/local
- The output of this stage is a file called Makefile



Compiling

- Once the build environment is complete, the next stage is compiling
- Scripts (such as Perl, Python), web applications, or software which compiles into byte code for a virtual machine (such as Java or .NET programs) may not require this step
- Software in C (or C++) will require compiling however
- The C compiler may be called cc or gcc
- However the make command (on its own) will normally perform this step without manual intervention
- Other steps may be required to build libraries, documentation, or other components



Installing

- Finally the software can be installed to the appropriate location(s) using (usually) make install
- This may use the special install command, which copies a file (like cp), but also allows:
 - Specifying file owner and group owner
 - Specifying permissions
 - Stripping unrequired symbols
- This is normally the only step where root privileges are required



The make Command

- The build system uses a piece of software called make
- Uses Makefile to control building a piece of software
- The Makefile contains a list of 'targets' (the first in the file is the default) which can be given as arguments to make
- After each target and colon, dependencies are listed if dependencies have more recent timestamp than target, the target will be rebuilt
- After each target, an indented list of commands provides a 'recipe' or set of build instructions for that target
- Makefiles may use both variables and various wildcards to make the system easier to use
- make can be used for all kinds of project (eg these slides)



An Example Makefile

```
# a variable specifying the install directory
INSTDIR=/usr/local/bin
# first (default) target is hello
# depends on hello.c, build with gcc command shown
hello: hello.c
        acc -o hello hello.c
# 'install' target: depends on 'hello', and will
# build 'hello' first if 'hello.c' has changed
install: hello
        install -s -o root hello $(INSTDIR)
```

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Why Binary Packages' Debian Packaging Redhat Packaging

7.3 Packaging Systems

Binary Packaging

- While it's possible to compile an entire Unix system from source (eg LFS), this is difficult and slow
- Usually the OS can be installed from binary packages, which contain ready to use executables, libraries, etc
- There are a range of different package formats, some of which you may already have come across:
 - .deb packages are used by Debian and derivatives (eg Ubuntu and the ipkg format for embedded devices)
 - .rpm packages are used by RedHat and derivatives
 - .pkg packages are used by Solaris
 - .apk packages contains apps for the Android OS
- Such systems are designed to:
 - Note and resolve dependencies on other software
 - Preserve configuration from previous versions
 - Allow easy installation of all elements of software



Debian Packaging

- Based around the .deb file format:
- Includes dependency information of each package
- Allows for automatic or user-driven basic configuration, and labels configuration files to avoid overwriting or removal
- Allows pre/post install/removal scripts
- Allows cryptographic verification of packages
- The low-level package management tool is dpkg
- The APT (Advanced Packaging Tool) system is used
- Provides development tools for production of packages
- Used by the Debian distribution, but also derivatives such as Ubuntu, Linux Mint, and Knoppix
- The basis of a number of other package formats including ipkg (for embedded Unix) and wpkg (for Windows)

RedHat Packaging

- Uses the .rpm file format
- Includes dependency information in each package
- Allows scripts to be run pre/post installation
- Allows cryptographic verification of packages
- Low-level package management tool is rpm
- Higher level tools such as yum provide easier interaction with the system
- Developers make use of SPEC files to build packages
- Used by the RedHat distribution, and associated distributions such as Fedora, Novell, openSuSE



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7.4 Debian Package Management

The Package Repository

- Debian packages can be split into sets depending on:
 - Debian release
 - Repository
- Releases are the version of the distribution:
 - This could be names such as stable, testing ...
 - ...or codenames such as jessie, buster
 - Ubuntu uses other codenames: saucy, trusty etc
- Repositories classify software in other ways:
 - Debian 'freeness': main, contrib, non-free
 - Ubuntu support/licence: main, universe, ...



.deb Files

- .deb consists of two sets of files:
 - Control information (lists of files, config files, scripts)
 - Installation files (executables, config, libraries, docs)

 Other index files in the Debian archive also hold other information about each package — eg version, dependencies, description, size, and so on



The dpkg Command

- dpkg is the low level command for managing Debian packages
- It can take various flags to control its operation
- Previously a wide range of these were used, but most useful on modern systems are:
 - -i Install package
 - -1 lists installed packages
 - -r removes an installed package
 - ¬P purges an installed package (removes all files, including configuration files)
 - --configure configures a package
 - –S searches for a filename in installed packages
 - -L lists files in a package
- dpkg cannot:
 - Find or download software over the network
 - Resolve dependencies automatically



APT Commands

- APT was developed to improve manageability of packages
- It automatically resolves dependencies, and can download packages from a network repository
- apt-get updates, installs and removes packages:
 - update updates list of packages available
 - upgrade upgrades current packages
 - dist-upgrade upgrades to next release
 - install installs a package (and dependencies)
 - remove removes a package
 - purge removes a package and configuration
 - autoremove removes dependencies of old packages
- apt-cache accesses package lists and repositories:
 - show shows package details
 - search search for packages



Aptitude and Synaptic

- The aptitude command provides an alternative way to access some apt-get and apt-cache functionality
 - Subcommands include update, safe-upgrade, dist-upgrade, install, remove
- However used without arguments it provides a text-based GUI to APT
- Synaptic provides a full GUI-based package manager based on APT



Configuring APT

- Two main types of configuration are required for APT
- /etc/apt/sources.list lists the package repositories used, containing lines such as:

```
deb http://deb.debian.org/debian buster main
deb-src http://deb.debian.org/debian buster main
deb http://deb.debian.org/debian-security/ buster/updates main
deb-src http://deb.debian.org/debian-security/ buster/updates main
```

- /etc/apt also contains other configuration options for APT,
 which can be either in /etc/apt/apt.conf or files in subdirectories
- Documented in apt.conf(5) and elsewhere
- Example configuration:

```
Acquire::http::Proxy "http://146.191.228.22:9090/";
```

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Vulnerabilities Disclosure Updating Software

7.5 Security Updates

Vulnerabilities

- Software bugs are present in all systems
- Bugs which introduce a security weakness in software are known as vulnerabilities
- Vulnerabilities may be classified in various ways:
 - How the vulnerability has come about (buffer overflow; cross-site scripting; unvalidated input; injection; etc)
 - Consequences of the vulnerability (privilege escalation; information leakage; denial of service; code execution; etc)
 - Where the vulnerability can be exploited (remote, local)
- Some vulnerabilities (along with fixes or workarounds) are normally disclosed as soon as possible



Disclosure

- Disclosure is the process of publicising vulnerabilities
- Normally disclosure announcements include:
 - A brief description of the vulnerability
 - An idea of the seriousness of the vulnerability
 - Details on a workaround or applying a software update
- There are various fora for finding disclosures:
 - Industry wide databases/lists such as:
 - Bugtraq (http://www.securityfocus.com/archive/1)
 - Common Vulnerabilities and Exposures (http://cve.mitre.org/)
 - National Vulnerability Database (http://nvd.nist.gov/)
 - Per OS or distribution lists (eg Debian, Solaris)
 - Per-software product lists/pages (eg Apache, Linux, kernel)
- Best practice is subscribing to mailing lists and web sites appropriate for the software you manage



Updating Software

- The aim of tracking vulnerabilities and disclosures is to secure vulnerable systems
- This normally requires updating software
- Most organisations will have a policy on software updates (and security updates in particular)
- Security updates should be applied as soon as possible after disclosure is made
- On Debian, the following two commands (one after the other) apply updates to all installed packages

```
aptitude update aptitude upgrade
```

It is essential to do this on a regular basis



Summary

- Binaries, executables and (dynamic) libraries
- Documentation and man pages
- Configuration files
- Installing software from source code
- Configuration, building and installing
- make and Makefile
- Binary packages: .deb and .rpm
- Debian packages and dpkg
- APT commands and configuration
- Software vulnerabilities and disclosure
- Keeping up with disclosures and applying updates

