

Introduction to RPM Packaging

SUSE Linux Enterprise
openSUSE

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In general, a pre-built, open source application is called a *package* and bundles all the binary, data, and configuration files required to run the application. A package also includes all the steps required to deploy the application on a system, typically in the form of a script. The script might generate data, start and stop system services, or manipulate files and directories. A script might also perform operations to upgrade existing software to a new version.

Because each operating system has its idiosyncrasies, a package is typically tailored to a specific system. Moreover, each operating system provides its own *package manager*, a special utility to add and remove packages from the system. SUSE-based systems – openSUSE and SUSE Linux Enterprise - use the RPM Package Manager. The package manager precludes partial and faulty installations and “uninstalls” by adding and removing the files in a package atomically. The package manager also maintains a manifest of all packages installed on the system and can validate the existence of prerequisites and co-requisites beforehand.

This document describes in detail how to create an RPM package on SUSE-based systems.

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1 What Is a Package

A package is a way of distributing software on Linux systems. A single application is distributed as one or more packages. Usually the main package contains the program, and in addition some optional or secondary packages.

On some platforms, applications are self-contained into a directory. This means installing an application is simply adding a directory, and uninstalling the application is simply removing this directory.

Linux systems tend to share as much of their components as possible. Partly this is the case because of some advantages of this philosophy. But mainly it happens because of the fact that in the Linux ecosystem, the whole universe is built by the same entity, except for a few 3rd party applications. This makes it easy to assume that a library is available for all applications to consume.

In a MacOS system, only the core comes from a single vendor, and all applications are provided by third party suppliers. It is therefore harder to make assumptions, and they tend to ship their own version of any depending component, with the exception of everything being documented as the “platform”.

1.1 Anatomy of a Package

As an example, we start with a well-known UNIX tool: rsync.

A package is an archive file:

```
rsync-3.1.2-1.5.x86_64.rpm
```

This archive file contains all files related to the application:

```
$ rpm -qpl rsync-3.1.2-1.5.x86_64.rpm

/etc/logrotate.d/rsync
/etc/rsyncd.conf
/etc/rsyncd.secrets
/etc/sysconfig/SuSEfirewall2.d/services/rsync-server
/etc/xinetd.d/rsync
/usr/bin/rsync
/usr/bin/rsyncstats
/usr/lib/systemd/system/rsyncd.service
/usr/sbin/rcrsyncd
/usr/sbin/rsyncd
```

```
/usr/share/doc/packages/rsync
/usr/share/doc/packages/rsync/COPYING
/usr/share/doc/packages/rsync/NEWS
/usr/share/doc/packages/rsync/README
/usr/share/doc/packages/rsync/tech_report.tex
/usr/share/man/man1/rsync.1.gz
/usr/share/man/man5/rsyncd.conf.5.gz
```

Additionally, it contains some extra metadata. This metadata should include but it is not limited to:

1. Name
2. Summary
3. Description
4. License
5. etc.

As an example, the metadata for rsync look as follows:

```
$ rpm -qpi rsync-3.1.2-1.5.x86_64.rpm

Name       : rsync
Version    : 3.1.2
Release    : 1.5
Architecture: x86_64
Install Date: Wed 26 Oct 2016 01:31:12 PM CEST
Group      : Productivity/Networking/Other
Size       : 636561
License    : GPL-3.0+
Signature  : RSA/SHA256, Mon 17 Oct 2016 02:32:40 AM CEST, Key ID b88b2fd43dbdc284
Source RPM : rsync-3.1.2-1.5.src.rpm
Build Date : Mon 17 Oct 2016 02:32:26 AM CEST
Build Host : lamb18
Relocations : (not relocatable)
Packager   : http://bugs.opensuse.org
Vendor     : openSUSE
URL        : http://rsync.samba.org/
Summary    : Versatile tool for fast incremental file transfer
Description :
Rsync is a fast and extraordinarily versatile file copying tool. It can copy locally, to/from another host over any remote shell, or to/from a remote rsync daemon. It offers a large number of options that control every aspect of its
```

behavior and permit very flexible specification of the set of files to be copied. It is famous for its delta-transfer algorithm, which reduces the amount of data sent over the network by sending only the differences between the source files and the existing files in the destination. Rsync is widely used for backups and mirroring and as an improved copy command for everyday use.
Distribution: openSUSE Tumbleweed

To get a list of additional packages which the respective package requires to be installed to work, use the command **Requires** as shown below:

```
$ rpm -qp --requires rsync-3.1.2-1.5.x86_64.rpm
/bin/sh
/usr/bin/perl
config(rsync) = 3.1.2-1.5
coreutils
diffutils
fillup
grep
libacl.so.1()(64bit)
libacl.so.1(ACL_1.0)(64bit)
libc.so.6()(64bit)
libc.so.6(GLIBC_2.10)(64bit)
libc.so.6(GLIBC_2.14)(64bit)
libc.so.6(GLIBC_2.15)(64bit)
libc.so.6(GLIBC_2.2.5)(64bit)
libc.so.6(GLIBC_2.3)(64bit)
libc.so.6(GLIBC_2.3.4)(64bit)
libc.so.6(GLIBC_2.4)(64bit)
libc.so.6(GLIBC_2.6)(64bit)
libc.so.6(GLIBC_2.7)(64bit)
libc.so.6(GLIBC_2.8)(64bit)
libpopt.so.0()(64bit)
libpopt.so.0(LIBPOPT_0)(64bit)
libslp.so.1()(64bit)
rpmLib(CompressedFileNames) <= 3.0.4-1
rpmLib(PayloadFilesHavePrefix) <= 4.0-1
rpmLib(PayloadIsLzma) <= 4.4.6-1
sed
systemd
```

As an example, a package may need a library, or an executable that is called during runtime.

To get a list of information the respective package provides for other packages to work, use the command **Provides** as shown below:

```
$ rpm -qp --provides rsync-3.1.2-1.5.x86_64.rpm
config(rsync) = 3.1.2-1.5
```

```
rsync = 3.1.2-1.5
rsync(x86-64) = 3.1.2-1.5
```

1.2 Installing Packages

When a package is installed, the content (or list of files) is placed on the system at the location of each file path relative to the root (`/`) directory.

Additionally, the metadata of the package (and the fact that it is installed) is recorded in a system-wide database located in `/var/lib/rpm`. This is managed by the `rpm` tool, the utility that manages packages at the lowest level.

Packages can be installed with the `rpm` tools:

```
$ rpm -U rsync-3.1.2-1.5.x86_64.rpm
```

When you do this, you can perform the same queries without specifying the `-p` option and using what is called the NVRA (name-version-release-architecture, `rsync-3.1.2-1.5.x86_64`) or a subset of it, for example, just the name (`rsync`).

```
$ rpm -q --provides rsync
```

The `rpm` tool will not help you if the dependencies of the package are not met at installation time. It will then refuse to install the package to avoid having the system in an inconsistent state. Features like automatically finding the required packages and retrieving them, are implemented in higher-level tools like `zypper`.

1.3 Dependency Matching

The section *Section 1.1, "Anatomy of a Package"* explains that a package contains a list of **Requires** and **Provides**. Those are not package names, but arbitrary symbols. A package can require or provide any string of text.

The main rule is that each package provides its own name. This means the `rsync` package **Provides: rsync**.

You have also learned that `rsync` requires `/bin/sh`. While this looks like a file name, in our context it is an arbitrary symbol and the meaning is given by the whole distribution. The reason why it does not require a package named `sh` instead is that it provides a layer of indirection that makes the system cohesive.

`/bin/sh` is a capability provided by the `bash` package. This allows `rsync` to depend on any shell implementation as long as it provides that symbol.

The distribution build system will scan all executables a package installs in a system and inject automatically those **Provides**. The packager does not need to take care of them.

The same is done with libraries. As an example, `rsync` does not depend on the `glibc` package. When `glibc` was built, the build system scanned the content, found `/lib64/libc.so.6` and injected a **Provides: libc.so.6()(64bit)** into the `glibc` metadata. In the case of shared libraries it is not so important where they are located, because the linker configuration takes care of that. When the `rsync` package was built (`glibc` needed to be installed at that point to build it), the build system scanned the executable `/usr/lib/rsync` and realized it was linked against `libc.so.6`:

```
$ ldd /usr/bin/rsync
linux-vdso.so.1 (0x00007ffccb34a000)
libacl.so.1 => /lib64/libacl.so.1 (0x00007fc406028000)
libpopt.so.0 => /usr/lib64/libpopt.so.0 (0x00007fc405e1b000)
libslp.so.1 => /usr/lib64/libslp.so.1 (0x00007fc405c02000)
libc.so.6 => /lib64/libc.so.6 (0x00007fc405863000)
libattr.so.1 => /lib64/libattr.so.1 (0x00007fc40565e000)
libcrypto.so.1.0.0 => /lib64/libcrypto.so.1.0.0 (0x00007fc4051c4000)
libpthread.so.0 => /lib64/libpthread.so.0 (0x00007fc404fa7000)
/lib64/ld-linux-x86-64.so.2 (0x00005653cd048000)
libdl.so.2 => /lib64/libdl.so.2 (0x00007fc404da3000)
libz.so.1 => /lib64/libz.so.1 (0x00007fc404b8d000)
```

Therefore, it injected **Requires: libc.so.6()(64bit)** to the `rsync` package.

Now compare it to other packaging systems. The package `musicplayer` requires `libsound`. `/usr/bin/musicplayer` links to `/usr/lib64/libsound.so.5`. At a later point in time, `musicplayer` is rebuilt against a newer `libsound`, which is not published. The user installs `musicplayer` without any issue because it only **Requires: libsound** (as in the package name). However, when the user tries to run it, he or she gets the following message:

```
$ musicplayer
error while loading shared libraries: libsound.so.7: cannot open shared object file: No
such file or directory
```

The layer of indirection of automatically injected dependencies prevents this manual work from keeping dependencies in synchronization. Packages only provide what they really carry (because provides are injected by advanced scanners). Packages only require what they really need (because requires are injected by scanning executables, scripts for shebangs, etc.).

This allows rpm based distributions to use these conventions highly cohesive. It makes upgrades less problematic and the danger of breaking your system nearly non-existent. At the same time, the conventions and indirections between **Provides** and **Requires** allow for packages to depend on more abstract capabilities, instead of specific package names (which sometimes get renamed, split, obsoleted, etc). For example, you can be sure the `vim` package provides `vi`.

There are also other dependencies with more advanced purposes: **Conflicts**, **Obsoletes**, etc. Their names let you easily understand what purposes they have.

1.4 Weak Dependencies

Not everything is as strict as you might think. Sometimes a package works better if another package is present. Sometimes a package enhances the functionality of another package, however in neither case they are required. For this purpose, packages can have the following dependencies:

- **Recommends**: a soft version of requires. If the recommended packages are not installed, the package will be installed anyway. Higher level tools however may pull automatically recommended packages based on user settings.
- The reverse of this dependency is **Supplements**. For example a package `spellchecker` could **Supplements** an `office-suite` package.
- **Suggests** and **Enhances**: the forward and backward version of Recommends and Supplements in a weaker version.

2 Working with Packages

For daily system administration and maintenance, the `rpm` tool does not suffice. You will quickly fall into what is commonly called the “dependency hell”. This means you download packages manually to quickly satisfy a dependency, but then you realize the new package implicates another dependency.

This problem is taken care of by a tool that implements a solver. The solver considers:

- The list of installed packages (and therefore all its dependencies)
- The list of available packages
- The user request (“install package foo”, “upgrade system”)

The solver performs an operation that finds the best solution to a problem that has many solutions. Therefore “best” is defined by policies, user settings, the distribution itself, etc.

On SUSE systems, the solver is implemented by the **libsolv** /> project (see more at <https://github.com/openSUSE/libsolv>). This engine implements both a satisfiability algorithm and an efficient way to represent the problem in memory. Originally it was developed by Michael Schroeder at SUSE, but today it powers also other distribution package managers, such as Fedora’s **dnf**.

The rest of the package manager includes:

- Handling of package repositories
- Checking the integrity of packages
- Fetching remote packages
- Reading and honoring user/system policies

In SUSE systems, this functionality is implemented by the **ZYpp** (see <https://en.opensuse.org/Portal:Libzypp>) library, which also includes a command-line tool called **zypper**. While tools like **YaST** (see <https://yast.github.io/>) also interact with **ZYpp**, on the console you will likely interact with **zypper**. The command

```
$ zypper install rsync-3.1.2-1.5.x86_64.rpm
```

will, unlike **rpm**, check what else your system is missing, retrieve it, and then install all the required packages in the right order. It will also warn you if another package conflicts with what you are installing, or if the operation has more than one solution, and ask you for your decision what to do.

But from where does the system “retrieve other packages”?

2.1 Repositories

zypper can install a package directly from an **rpm** file. If there is the need for installing dependencies or retrieving packages – for example when you upgrade a system - you will need a “library” of packages. This is what is called a repository. A repository is:

- A collection of packages
- A set of metadata files

The metadata is nothing more than the information present in the rpm file (Name, Description, Dependencies). The metadata allows the package manager to operate with the repository without having stored all rpm files locally. Every operation that is processed uses the given information of the package, and then the rpm files are retrieved on demand at installation time.

```
$ zypper lr

# | Alias          | Name          | Enabled | GPG Check | Refresh
--+-+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----
1 | non-oss        | NON-OSS       | Yes     | ( p) Yes  | Yes
2 | oss            | OSS           | Yes     | ( p) Yes  | Yes
3 | oss-update     | OSS Update    | Yes     | ( p) Yes  | Yes
4 | update-non-oss | Update Non-Oss | Yes     | ( p) Yes  | Yes
```

A system normally will have the following repositories:

- The base repository, which contains all the distribution packages
- Additional modules, add-on products or extensions
- An update repository for each base product or extension

Running list repositories with `-u` will display the URI of the repository:

```
zypper lr -u
          http://download.opensuse.org/update/leap/42.2/oss/.
```

If you visit the URI, you will see:

- a `x86_64` directory containing all architecture-dependent packages (this means ones that contain executables, shared libraries, etc)
- a `noarch` directory containing architecture-independent packages (this means ones containing data or scripts)
- a `repodata` directory, containing the metadata for all packages

The metadata for this type of repositories consists in a `repodata/repomd.xml` file index, which is signed (`repomd.xml.asc`) using a key already present in the original system. `repodata/repomd.xml` refers to other metadata file with their checksums. The most important file is `primary.xml` which contains all package dependencies.

If you have a directory with rpm packages, you can create the metadata for them using the `createrepo` tool. After that you can serve that repository via HTTP.

If you have a directory with rpms you want to use as repository, you don't need to add metadata. ZYpp allows to have a plain local directory as a repository, and will read the metadata directly from the rpm files into its cache.

2.1.1 Refreshing a Repository

You can refresh a repository with the command

```
$ zypper ref
```

While the base repository of the distribution is normally immutable, repositories like the one containing updates often get new content. The purpose of refreshing a repository is to get the up-to-date version of the metadata locally, so that all operations (solving, retrieval) match the current content of the repository.

If a repository is out of date, it means the local metadata represents a previous version of the repository content. You could try to solve this and fetch packages, but those packages may not exist on the repository anymore, and you will get an error at retrieval time.

The list of repositories of the system is kept in `/etc/zypp/repos.d`. **zypper** provides most of repository operations in a safer way than trying to update these files manually.

During refresh, metadata is cached locally at `/var/cache/zypp/raw` and converted to an efficient format for solving operations in `/var/cache/zypp/solv`.

2.1.2 Services

Services are a higher-level version of repositories. It is another index that lists repositories. When the system is subscribed to a service, refreshing the service will result in a new list of repositories, and the package manager will add new ones or remove obsolete ones.

Services are used for example on SUSE Linux Enterprise with the SUSE Customer Center (SCC). A customer is subscribed to a service provided by SCC using proper credentials. The customer, based on his or her entitlements, can “activate” a new product. SUSE Customer Center knows about those activations, and on service refresh, it will provide a new list of repositories that includes the new activated product.

Services can be installed remote (like SCC), or locally, via a plug-in, on the system. The package manager asks the plug-in for a list of repositories. It is up to the plug-in to build this list. This is normally used for integration with other systems. For example, the connectivity between **zypper** and Spacewalk respective SUSE Manager (see <https://www.suse.com/products/suse-manager/>) was originally implemented using a local plug-in.

2.1.3 Repository sources

If you are using SUSE Linux Enterprise, your repositories will appear after the **SUSEConnect** tool registers your product against the SUSE Customer Center at <https://scc.suse.com/login>.

If you are using openSUSE, the default installation will set up the base and update the repositories. Additionally, there is a lot of content published by the community on the build service projects or via projects like **packman** packman (see <http://packman.links2linux.org/>).

SUSE Linux Enterprise users can take advantage of the community content via the Package Hub at <https://packagehub.suse.com/>.

2.2 Other Package Manager Operations

You can use **zypper lu** to list updates, and **zypper up** to install them.

You can lock packages to avoid them being removed or pulled-in using **zypper addlock** or **zypper removelock**. You can also list active locks with **zypper locks**.

The distribution upgrade operation **dup** is used to do destructive upgrades. This means packages may be suggested for removal as dependencies like **Obsoletes** are taken into account. It is usually used to upgrade to major releases or to update rolling distributions like Tumbleweed (see <https://en.opensuse.org/Portal:Tumbleweed>). This command needs to be used with care.

2.3 Other Solvable Types (Products, Patterns, System)

The package manager solver loads all available and installed packages and cares for solving the dependencies. However, there are other entities similar to packages that also have dependencies.

2.3.1 Patterns

Patterns are used to install a collection of software in a comfortable way. For example you can install a working Laptop-oriented system with the command:

```
$ zypper install -t pattern laptop
```

But where do patterns come from? They do not exist on their own. The package manager creates them dynamically from packages named `patterns-XXXXXX` which have a special set of dependencies. Installing a pattern would actually install the package representing that pattern. The other way around is true, if you install the package representing the pattern, it will make the system look like the pattern is installed.

The command:

```
$ zypper info --provides patterns-openSUSE-laptop
```

reveals some detail behind patterns (equivalent to `rpm -q --provides patterns-openSUSE-laptop`).

2.3.2 Products

Similar to patterns, products can be queried with:

```
$ zypper search -t product
```

“Product” comes from a package called `XXXXXX-release` which has some special dependencies (`rpm -q --provides openSUSE-release`). The release package/product installs some information in `/etc/products.d` that is used by other tools to get information about the base and add-on products installed.

2.3.3 Patches

Patches are used for updates and described by the `updateinfo.xml` section of the metadata. They represent an entity that conflicts with older versions of one or more packages. Installing a patch does not install packages, but generates a conflict in the solver that ends with the affected version of packages being upgraded.

Patches also carry additional property, like the CVE (see <https://cve.mitre.org/> ) identifiers of the issues they fix or links to bug tracker incidents.

2.3.4 System

During solving, there is one entity providing dependencies that is used to match locale and hardware information. If you have a Wi-Fi card, the package manager will dynamically read `/sys/devices` and make this entity have provides like:

```
Provides :modalias(pci:v0000104Cd0000840[01]sv*sd*bc*sc*i*)
```

A package providing a Wi-Fi driver for some cards (for example, `wlan-kmp-default`), could have the following dependencies:

```
Supplements: modalias(kernel-default:pci:v0000104Cd0000840[01]sv*sd*bc*sc*i*)
Supplements: modalias(kernel-default:pci:v0000104Cd00009066sv*sd*bc*sc*i*)
Supplements: modalias(kernel-default:pci:v000010B7d00006000sv*sd*bc*sc*i*)
```

This results in the fact that, at solving time, if the hardware is present, the driver will be selected automatically.



Note: SUSE SolidDriver Program

This is one of the core features of the Kernel Module Packages (KMP) section of the SUSE SolidDriver Program (see https://drivers.suse.com/doc/SolidDriver/Kernel_Module_Packages.html). For more information about the SUSE SolidDriver Program and about KMP's, check the article “Using SLES and the SLE SDK to Build a Kernel Module Package (KMP)” at <https://www.suse.com/communities/blog/using-sles-and-the-sle-sdk-build-kernel-module-package-kmp/>.

Something similar is done with translation packages and the current configured system locale.



Important: All Information Comes from the Installed Packages

Be aware that all those types mentioned (Patterns, Products, System) are only present at solving time. Actually your system consists only of packages, and all information comes from the installed packages. Every operation on patches, patterns and products result in a package operation. The purpose behind is to make the package manager compatible with the lower level `rpm` tool.

3 Creating packages

When packages are created they provide a so called `.spec` file. A spec file defines the attributes of the package, explicit dependencies (others are injected as already mentioned), and how the content of the package is created. A very simple spec file would be:

```
Name:          mypackage
Version:       1.0
Release:       0
License:       MIT
Summary:       Dummy package
BuildRoot:     %{_tmppath}/%{name}-%{version}-build

%description
Dummy text

%install
mkdir -p %{buildroot}%{_datadir}/%{name}
touch %{buildroot}%{_datadir}/%{name}/CONTENT

%files
%defattr(-,root,root)
%{_datadir}/%{name}/CONTENT

%changelog
```

This spec file creates a directory `/usr/share/mypackage` and puts a dummy `CONTENT` file in it. spec files are heavily defined by macros that make sure that paths and values are specified by the distribution. Those macros are shipped by the base distribution and are located in `/usr/lib/rpm` and `/etc/rpm`. Other packages may contribute more macros. For example the macros defined in `/usr/lib/rpm/golang-macros.rb` are provided by the `golang-packaging` package and are useful to create packages that use the **Go** language.

3.1 Common Macros

When building spec files, you should be familiar with macros like `%{_prefix}`, `%{_datadir}`, `%{_mandir}`, `%{_libdir}`, `%{_bindir}`, etc... You can evaluate a macro as follows:

```
$ rpm --eval "%{_libdir}"
/usr/lib64
```

3.2 Sub-packages

Sometimes you will build multiple components from a single source that are independent of each other.

The sources for a package Office Suite may result in:

- A Word Processor
- A Spreadsheet
- Common libraries
- Development files

For this, you can declare subpackages, independent description and attributes sections for each component. The build section is common to all subpackages, and then again in the %files section, you will declare which files go to each subpackage. In this example, the subpackages could be:

- office-wordprocessor
- office-spreadsheet
- liboffice
- office-devel

3.3 Building with rpmbuild

You can build a package with the rpmbuild tool. It requires the spec file to be in a specific location. You can tweak the standard configuration to search spec files in the current directory:

```
$ cat ~/.rpmmacros
%topdir /space/packages
%builddir %{topdir}/build
%rpmdir %{topdir}/rpms
%_sourcedir %(echo $PWD)
%_specdir %(echo $PWD)
%_srcrpmdir %{topdir}/rpms
```

You can configure it so that built packages are saved in /space/packages. Make the tweaks according to your own preferences.

When this is set up, enter the following command:

```
$ rpmbuild -bb mypackage.spec
Executing(%install): /bin/sh -e /var/tmp/rpm-tmp.lVzwnj
+ umask 022
+ cd /space/packages/build
+ mkdir -p /home/duncan/rpmbuild/BUILDROOT/mypackage-1.0-0.x86_64/usr/share/mypackage
+ touch /home/duncan/rpmbuild/BUILDROOT/mypackage-1.0-0.x86_64/usr/share/mypackage/
CONTENT
+ /usr/lib/rpm/brp-compress
+ /usr/lib/rpm/brp-suse
Processing files: mypackage-1.0-0.x86_64
Provides: mypackage = 1.0-0 mypackage(x86-64) = 1.0-0
Requires(rpmlib): rpmlib(CompressedFileNames) <= 3.0.4-1 rpmlib(PayloadFilesHavePrefix)
<= 4.0-1
Checking for unpackaged file(s): /usr/lib/rpm/check-files /home/duncan/rpmbuild/
BUILDROOT/mypackage-1.0-0.x86_64
Wrote: /space/packages/rpms/x86_64/mypackage-1.0-0.x86_64.rpm
Executing(%clean): /bin/sh -e /var/tmp/rpm-tmp.0xLGri
+ umask 022
+ cd /space/packages/build
+ /usr/bin/rm -rf /home/duncan/rpmbuild/BUILDROOT/mypackage-1.0-0.x86_64
+ rm -rf filelists
```

Now you can verify the content of the package:

```
% rpm -qpl /space/packages/rpms/x86_64/mypackage-1.0-0.x86_64.rpm
/usr/share/mypackage/CONTENT
```

Everything that you put into the `%{buildroot}` did end up as content of the package.

The term “building a package” can have two meanings. One is assembling the package from existing content. You could build your application in Jenkins, take the built artifacts and use the spec file to package it.

However, where `rpm` excels is that you can build the application in the spec file itself, and use the distribution and dependencies to set up the build environment.

A common use case to illustrate this is the typical Linux application built with `configure && make && make install`. In the next example you build a package for `gqlplus` (see <http://gqlplus.sourceforge.net/> , an alternative client for Oracle databases).

Provided that you have readline and ncurses development headers, you can build this application by unpacking the TAR archive and performing the commands mentioned above. Some programs require an extra step with `autoconf` to generate the `configure` script. This is specific to building software and has nothing to do with packaging.

When you do `./configure` you need to pass the right `--prefix`. Macros can help here. You could use the command `configure --prefix=%{_prefix}`. However, there is a better macro called `%configure` which takes care and sets most of the configuration options (You can also try expanding it with `echo $(rpm --eval '%configure')`).

The package cannot build if some libraries are not present. A C compiler is there, but the basic build tools (`make`) are not available. That is what `BuildRequires` are for. They define what packages are needed for building - but not necessarily at runtime.

On the other hand, the original `oracle-instantclient-sqlplus` package is required at runtime, but you do not need it to build your package.

```
Name:          gqplus
Version:       1.15
Release:       0
License:       GPL-2.0
Summary:       A drop-in replacement for sqlplus, an Oracle SQL client
Url:           http://gqplus.sourceforge.net/
Group:         Productivity/Databases/Clients
Source0:       %{name}-%{version}.tar.bz2
BuildRequires: readline-devel
BuildRequires: ncurses-devel
BuildRequires: gcc make autoconf automake
BuildRoot:     %{_tmppath}/%{name}-%{version}-build
Requires:      oracle-instantclient-sqlplus
%description
GQLPlus is a drop-in replacement for sqlplus, an Oracle SQL client, for Unix and Unix-
like platforms. The difference between GQLPlus and sqlplus is command-line editing and
history, plus table-name and column-name completion.

%prep
%setup -q

%build
aclocal && autoconf
automake --add-missing
%configure
make %{?_smp_mflags}

%install
%makeinstall

%files
%defattr(-,root,root)
%doc ChangeLog README LICENSE
%{_bindir}/gqplus
```

```
%changelog
```

The **Source0** section specifies a source that you can refer later using the **%SOURCE0** or **%{S:0}** macros. You can have more than one source (**Source1**, etc).

The **prep** section uses the **%setup** macro (see <http://ftp.rpm.org/max-rpm/s1-rpm-inside-macros.html#S2-RPM-INSIDE-SETUP-MACRO> ) to unpack the sources. You could as well operate directly on the source files if you need to do something unconventional.

As we need **make install** to install the files inside **%{buildroot}**, we should call **make install DESTDIR=%{buildroot}**, but **%makeinstall** is a macro for that.

The **files** section list the files `rpmbuild` should expect to find inside the **%{buildroot}** macro that will be the content of the package.



Note: Not Needed at Runtime

You do not need to add a runtime **Requires** to the readline and ncurses libraries. Because the executable is linked against the ones installed by the `-devel` packages, it will be scanned and the right **Requires** will be injected:

```
$ rpm -qp --requires gqplus-1.15-0.x86_64.rpm
libc.so.6()(64bit)
...
libncurses.so.6()(64bit)
libreadline.so.7()(64bit)
oracle-instantclient-sqlplus
...
```

These symbols are provided by the right package, thus the solver will match them:

```
rpm -q --whatprovides 'libncurses.so.6()(64bit)'
libncurses6-6.0-19.1.x86_64
```

For more information on how to build packages for various types of software, visit the **openSUSE Packaging Guidelines** at https://en.opensuse.org/openSUSE:Packaging_guidelines .

3.4 Building in a Real Build Environment

Building this way means the build environment is your system. If a package is available in **BuildRequires**, you will have to install it on your system first.

If the software you are building links against some library only if it is available, even if you do not mention it in your **BuildRequires**, if that library is present in your system, it will taint the build and make the command **configure** find it.

The following section outlines what to do if you want to build against only the packages that are in the build requirements.

3.4.1 The Open Build Service

The **Open Build Service** at <http://openbuildservice.org/> allows to build packages for multiple distributions and architectures. Visit the **Materials** section of the Web site (see <http://openbuildservice.org/help/>) for a deeper introduction. For the package you are building, you can get an account at the **openSUSE Build Service** instance. Go to your “Home Project”, and click “Create New Package”. Upload the spec file and sources.

After that you need to configure some target distributions for your home project. That can be one base distribution, or another project. This shows the power by allowing building based on layers that can override things from previous layers.

Add the most popular (open)SUSE distributions (latest Leap and Tumbleweed) and your package will be built automatically. A repository will be published automatically and made available for public consumption.

Every time the sources change, the package will be rebuilt. If you have more packages in the same project, those will be rebuilt in the right order, and re-published.

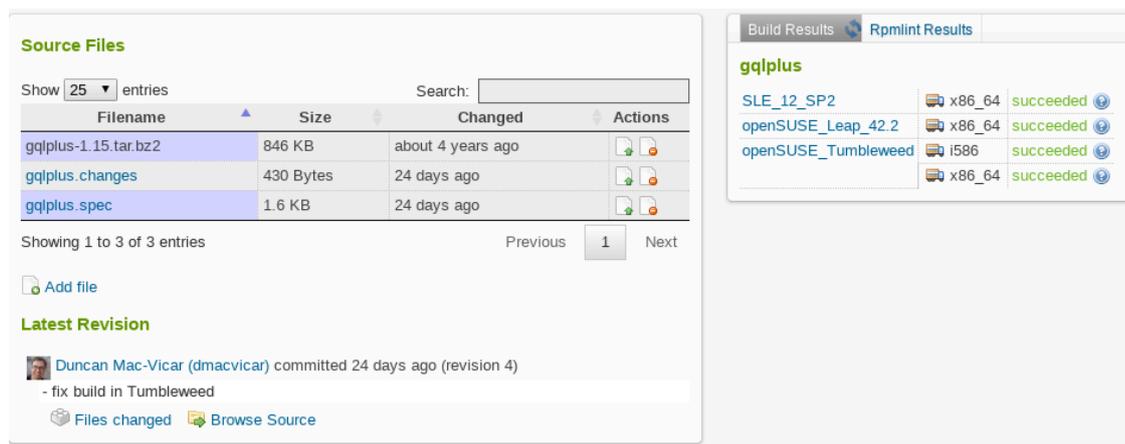


FIGURE 1: OPEN BUILD SERVICE OVERVIEW OF PACKAGES

The Open Build Service cannot only build packages, but also images from those packages. All SUSE products and the openSUSE distributions are built using the Open Build Service. Contributors submit new sources, and the Open Build Service takes care of assembling everything (and openQA later ensures that everything works).

3.4.2 Using the Open Build Service locally

With the `osc` tool you can checkout packages from the Open Build Service, make changes to them and resubmit them.

```
$ osc co home:dmacvicar gqlplus
A   home:dmacvicar
A   home:dmacvicar/gqlplus
A   home:dmacvicar/gqlplus/gqlplus-1.15.tar.bz2
A   home:dmacvicar/gqlplus/gqlplus.changes
A   home:dmacvicar/gqlplus/gqlplus.spec
At revision 4.
```

The most interesting feature is the ability to build packages or images locally. `osc` allows you to build in an isolated environment (either a chroot jail [see <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chroot>] or a virtual machine) by setting up that environment automatically using the **BuildRequires** of the spec file. It also allows you to build against a different distribution than the one you are running.

```
$ cd home:dmacvicar/gqlplus
$ osc build openSUSE_Leap_42.2
...
```

3.5 Improving the Package

When you build a package in the Open Build Service, you will find out that, in addition to the automated actions that inject dependencies, there are several checks being done to the package. These checks are very detailed. But this is the only way to ensure quality and consistency when a product is assembled from thousands of sources by hundreds of contributors.

The `spec-cleaner` tool can help you keeping your spec file in shape:

```
$ spec-cleaner -i gqlplus.spec
```

For example, it can help you converting **BuildRequires: foo-devel** dependencies to **BuildRequires: pkgconfig(foo)**. If a `-devel` package installs a `pkg-config` module, a **Provides: pkgconfig(foo)** is automatically injected. If the build process (`./configure` or `Makefile`) uses `pkg-config` to find the software, it makes more sense and it is closer to reality to depend on `pkgconfig(foo)` being present, regardless which `-devel` package provides it.

You can get more information about how to fix post-build checks in the openSUSE Packaging Checks page at https://en.opensuse.org/openSUSE:Packaging_checks ↗.

3.6 Changelogs

Until now you left the `%changelog` section empty. Some distributions write the history of the package to the changelog. SUSE-flavored distributions keep the changelog in a separate `.changes` file. To quickly generate or update it, you can use `osc vc` in the directory containing the spec file and the sources.

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