

# Dependency Heaven: Conflict Resolution via Containerless Filesystem Virtualization

Anonymous Author(s)

## Abstract

Resolving dependency versioning conflicts in applications is a long-standing problem in software development and deployment. Containers have become a popular way to address this problem, allowing programs to be distributed in a portable fashion and to run them under strict security constraints. Due to the popularity of this approach, its use has started to extend beyond its original aim, with users often creating containers bundling entire Linux distributions to run mundane executables, incurring hidden performance and maintenance costs. This paper presents an alternative approach to the problem of versioning resolution applied to locally-installed applications, through a virtualization tool integrated into the core of a Linux distribution. This tool multiplexes the root filesystem according to the dependencies of programs executed without need for management of containers or images, including support for third-party packages like those installed by programming language package managers such as Python's PIP.

**CCS Concepts** • Software and its engineering → File systems management; Process management; Modules / packages; Virtual machines;

**Keywords** dependency resolution, software deployment, virtualization, containers

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## 1 Introduction

Dependency hell is an old problem that haunts users wishing to install programs depending on different and often conflicting versions of a given package. That is the case for non-versioned libraries that attempt to overwrite files from a

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previous installation, effectively preventing concurrent versions of that library from coexisting. The same is true for packages whose executable names does not change across releases; unless the user renames the existing executable files prior to the installation of a new version it is not possible to keep both installations around. The problem with that approach is that it breaks package managers, as the renamed files will not be featured in the package manager's database and, consequently, will not be tracked anymore. Further, unless executables depending on the renamed files are modified to reflect their new path, users need to define which executable to activate at a given time, usually through tricky management of symbolic links [23].

Besides the historical lack of support for seamlessly managing the installation and runtime execution of programs that depend on conflicting packages, operating systems face another problem: handling dependencies distributed by third-party software. A typical case is that of programming language modules: each programming language community packs and hosts modules according to their own format and enables their discovery and installation through special programs that many times are not properly integrated with the regular package manager. Examples include PIP, which manages Python packages, LuaRocks, which controls the installation and removal of Lua modules, CPAN, to control the installation of Perl packages, and RubyGems, which does the same for Ruby packages. Orchestrating dependencies managed by such a variety of programs can be quite complex.

Many approaches have emerged through the years to work around the problem. In common, they propose encapsulation techniques that let software vendors ship their programs along with their dependencies in a single file and that let users execute said software effortlessly. Virtual machine images became a very popular distribution format in the early 2000's [26], followed more recently by container images [13], which became possible thanks to advancements in microprocessor architectures [29, 30] and in operating systems support for virtualization [8, 17, 24].

The core idea behind containers is to leverage process isolation capabilities of the operating system (OS) rather than running a full instance of an OS on virtual hardware. Linux, for instance, builds this concept on three features: *kernel namespaces*, which allows the creation of separate instances of previously global namespaces, *control groups* (cgroups), which groups processes and manage their aggregate resource consumption [3], and *seccomp*, a facility that enables the

creation of filters to limit which system calls an application can use [11]. Together, these features provide the foundation for running sandboxed processes with a performance close to bare metal in many workloads [12].

In spite of their success, an ever growing number of mundane programs gained containerized versions, even when those have no dependencies other than basic system libraries. As a result, users end up with several full-blown copies of operating system images that need to be managed in addition to the regular package management for fundamental operating system services. While the excessive use of disk space often is not a major concern, the fact that these containers include several libraries that need to be tracked for security updates can be a problem: if a vulnerability is discovered in a system library, it needs to be patched not only once in the root system, but also inside each container that happens to use that library, a dependency relation that is opaque to the user and to the host operating system. In that regard, containers are the modern-day equivalent to static linking, bringing the same kind of advantages (simplicity in deployment) and concerns (the application becomes responsible for all its libraries).

Containers provide not only file system isolation, but network isolation as well. This is a major advantage for deploying distributed systems at scale, as it makes interconnections between components more explicit and secure. For end-user-oriented applications and even local development, however, this adds a layer of complexity compared to regular package installations, which often requires much finer grained control than offered by containers. Even at the coarser grain at which they operate, the subtleties involved in correctly connecting containers led to the development of helper tools like Docker Compose [1] and eventually orchestration tools such as Kubernetes [2]. The success of container-based approaches for deployment in the industry is a clear indicator of the good fit of this model for distributed systems. It is, however, not a general solution for all kinds of software deployment.

This paper presents a novel approach to the management and execution of locally-installed programs, addressing the issue of dependency conflicts based solely on the layout of the filesystem hierarchy and on private process namespaces. Our lightweight proposal of filesystem virtualization has been fully integrated into a Linux-based distribution and includes support for both basic programs (such as those typically managed by RPM and APT) and those managed by third-party software such as PIP and LuaRocks.

The remaining of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents related work in the field of application deployment avoiding dependency conflicts. Section 3 presents our approach for lightweight filesystem virtualization. Section 4 discusses some practical applications of this approach in real-world problems. Finally, Section 5 concludes the paper.

## 2 Related work

A number of different projects have emerged over the years to address the issue of isolated application deployment. We present here some representative examples of the various approaches, ranging from full-fledged containers (Docker, Snap), packages wrapping programs with their dependencies (Flatpak, AppImages), to versioned directory systems (GoboLinux, Nix/Guix, Homebrew).

### 2.1 Docker

Docker has emerged in recent years as a standard runtime, image format, and build system for Linux containers [13]. Security of processes confined in containers is controlled via Linux seccomp, whereas slices of CPU, network bandwidth, and memory resources provided to the container are configured through the cgroups subsystem. A key feature of Docker absent from most other container solutions is the use of layered filesystem images: a single operating system image can be used as a basis for many containers while allowing them to persist writes in their own private spaces. This design leads to significant storage savings when multiple containers are created from a same base image [12]. Furthermore, Docker is available on non-Linux operating systems such as Windows and macOS. Since the contents of container images are full Linux distributions, in those systems containers run as virtual machines, using VirtualBox.

Running an application distributed as a Docker container may require the user to specify a number of parameters at launch time. Depending on the application, it may be needed to configure network port mappings between the container and the host operating system, network interface settings, filesystem mappings to enable read and write access to directories on the host's storage devices, environment variables, among others. A myriad of configuration options is also available to restrict access of a Docker container to the resources provided by the host [18].

### 2.2 Snap

Snap is a technology built for creating and distributing universal packages on Linux-based operating systems. Proposed by Canonical, the format is based on a read-only SquashFS filesystem image that contains the application of interest along with its dependencies. A metadata file included in the image determines the package name, its version, and the command line required to execute the software, along with other information [20]. It is also possible to run the program in a confined sandbox enforced by AppArmor, a Linux kernel security module that allows fine-grained control over user applications (albeit requiring greater expertise to be configured than typical end users can reasonably be expected to have [25]).

Because Snap programs execute in an isolated environment, communication with other parties and resource sharing must be arranged through predefined *interfaces*. Such

interfaces coordinate access to services such as sound card devices, bluetooth controllers, filesystem areas, printing services, and so on, and require a consumer in one end (called a “plug” in Snap nomenclature) and a provider (“slot”). Although some basic interfaces are automatically connected by default (such as ones considered transitional to support traditional desktop environments), most interfaces need to be manually connected by the user. Lastly, because an entire ecosystem of dependencies is encapsulated in a Snap package, there can be several redundant files replicated over Snap packages of different applications.

### 2.3 Flatpak

Flatpak serves the same purpose as Snap: it provides a mechanism to distribute packages across Linux-based distributions in a portable fashion. Differently from Snap, Flatpak uncompresses and stores the packages in the target filesystem under a shared directory that contains data from other Flatpak packages. By doing so, Flatpak is able to detect redundant files and to store only a single copy of the files. That is achieved with the use of hard links. Limits are managed through the Linux seccomp subsystem. Several namespace settings also exist to control access to the network and to other processes outside the sandbox. As with Snap and Docker, fine-tuning such rules requires a deep knowledge of the application being contained as well as of the system calls and resources it uses.

### 2.4 AppImages

Differently from the aforementioned platforms, AppImages do not aim at creating a secure execution environment for the applications. Rather, they focus on providing a single executable file that can run without requiring administrative privileges. AppImages embed the target program and its dependencies in a filesystem image file (either an ISO9660, as used by optical disc media, or a compressed SquashFS image). That image is wrapped by a statically linked executable file that “mounts” the embedded filesystem image and seamlessly executes the application. Like Snap packages, AppImages leads to a duplication of dependency files across different bundles.

The approaches presented above all package an application for execution inside one file, that functions as a separate file system. An alternative approach is to organize the file system structure of the host system so that applications can be installed in an isolated manner. Operating systems that are unconstrained by the Unix legacy often choose this approach, as seen in the application folder structure of systems like macOS and Microsoft Windows, but even in those cases core system packages often break this isolation, often due to backwards compatibility. Another limitation is that versioning is not mandated by these application directories, so compatibility issues also arise outside of core packages.

A number of efforts have addressed this problem over the years, aiming for a reorganization of the operating system’s file structure with versioning in mind. Some of them are presented below.

### 2.5 GoboLinux

GoboLinux [21] was the first Linux distribution to present a fully versioned file system structure. Instead of having programs installed to traditional Unix paths like `/usr/bin`, `/etc` and `/usr/share/something`, on GoboLinux each program gets its own version directory subtree.

Each program is installed under its own subtree, at `/Programs/Name/Version`. That directory holds not only the program’s libraries, executables, headers, and shared files, but also metadata that describes in plain text files which programs it depends on, any environment variables that must be configured prior to running executables distributed by that program, the target architecture of the executables, and others.

For compatibility with the Unix legacy, all executables, libraries, headers, and shared files are indexed via symbolic links on `/System/Index`; that directory contains the typical Unix directories, like `bin`, `include` and `lib`. The files inside these directories are symbolic links to the most recent version of each program installed on the system or, alternatively, to a version configured by the user. In order to enable existing programs and scripts to run without modifications on the top of this filesystem tree, the base `/System/Index` directory is mapped to `/usr`, resulting in fully-compatible Unix paths. The compatibility links are hidden from userspace programs for aesthetic reasons by an optional kernel extension developed by the distribution [9].

### 2.6 GNU Guix

GNU Guix [5] is a transactional package manager based on Nix [10]. It supports transactional upgrades and roll-backs of packages through the installation of packages under unique prefixes on the filesystem. Such prefixes include the program name and a hash string that is calculated over the program’s build inputs. For instance, two distinct versions of the Python interpreter could be installed under `/gnu/store/sha256-hash-python-2.7.12` and `/gnu/store/sha256-hash-python-3.6.0`, each of which having their own `bin`, `include`, `lib`, and `share` subdirectories. If another build of Python 2.7.12 were to be installed (using different optimization flags, for example) then a different hash would be computed for that particular build, enabling its installation on a different prefix than the old version of that same program. There is an entire distribution called GuixSD that is built around GNU Guix.

Guix comes with an utility that lets one create “application bundles” from a set of package definitions [6]. Given a list of programs (and, optionally, their dependencies), the corresponding entries under `/gnu/store` are copied into a tar

file. Users then only need to extract that tarball on another machine in order to run the program. In order to circumvent the embedding of absolute file names on executables (e.g., the path to the dynamic linker, locale data, shared data, and others) that would otherwise prevent non-GuixSD distributions from running that program, Guix “relocates” their packages using Linux user namespaces. A statically-linked wrapper is automatically generated by Guix to populate a private `/gnu/store` directory from the contents of the tar file that is only made visible to the wrapper process and its children [7].

Despite the rich infrastructure built around the installation and execution of regular programs, Guix does not provide support for the virtualization of programming language modules. In practice, such modules will be installed under their corresponding Python/Guile/Perl/etc directories under `/gnu/store` unless the corresponding third-party managers are told to install them elsewhere.

## 2.7 Homebrew

Homebrew [28] is a general-purpose package manager for macOS. Being a third-party project, it does not manage core system packages provided by the OS, nor applications installed into the standard Mac `/Applications` directory. Instead, it constructs its own subtree where programs are installed into versioned isolated subdirectories, indexed by a separate symbolic link tree, inspired by the model of Gobolinux [16].

Like the container-based approaches, Homebrew is limited to add-on packages on top of a core system. Still, its enduring popularity demonstrates the feasibility of the underlying model.

## 3 Containerless filesystem virtualization

In this section we present the two main contributions of this paper: a lightweight tool for filesystem virtualization without containers, based on a structured filesystem hierarchy; and an extension to this hierarchy using a virtual filesystem tool that presents the repositories of third-party package managers as part of the system’s structured hierarchy, allowing them to be integrated into the main system’s dependency management.

### 3.1 Lightweight filesystem virtualization without containers

We now present the first contribution of this paper. *Runner* is a filesystem multiplexer that we created to enable the resolution of conflicting dependencies at runtime. It is conceptually similar to the statically-linked wrappers recently introduced on Guix, but suitable to the layout of the `/Programs` tree and supporting multiarch executables and libraries in a rather unique way.

## Dependency resolution

Runner works by creating private mounts for each program it executes. The private mounts are composed of `/System/Index` with overlay mounts of each dependency of that program. The dependency list can be given either explicitly with a plain-text `Dependencies` file or implicitly by inferring the location where that program is installed. If the executable happens to come from a subtree of the default Gobolinux location (`/Programs`), then that program’s `Resources/Dependencies` file is parsed by default.

The `Dependencies` file is described with a simple syntax. Each line of that file determines a particular dependency, given by its directory under `/Programs` and, optionally, which version of that dependency is required. It is possible to specify ranges using the symbols `<`, `>`, and `=`, as in `LibFoo = 1.3` or `LibBar >= 1.0, < 2.0`. Given the layout of the `/Programs` tree it is trivial to determine whether a given dependency is satisfied and to determine which installed version of a dependency is the most recent one supported by a program.

The `Dependencies` file also allows one to describe dependencies managed by third-party software. Those are prefixed by `PIP:`, `CPAN:`, `LuaRocks:`, and `RubyGems:`, followed by the package name. The difference regarding the dependency resolution, in this case, is that testing whether that dependency is installed or not is delegated to the corresponding third-party package manager.

Also, if a dependency happens to have more than one installed version, then any existing files from other versions of that dependency are removed from the private mount point of that process. This ensures that only a single version of a dependency is “active” at a time.

Put it simply, if a program depends on a given library `/usr/lib/libfoo.so` and it needs it to be specifically of version 1.2.3, Runner will ensure that it is version 1.2.3.

## Environment settings

Another metadata file processed by Runner is `Resources/-Environment`. That file contains environment variables that must be exported to the program it will run, such as `$PYTHONPATH` (defined by the Python package) and `$GTK_PATH` (defined by GTK+).

## Multiarch support

Runner also supports running executables built for another architecture. When given a random ELF executable to run along with a `Dependencies` file, Runner parses the ELF header to identify which architecture it was built for. If the result does not correspond to the one under which the operating system runs, then Runner collects dependencies from `/Programs` entries whose `Resources/Architecture` contents matches the target architecture string.

When the executable provided to Runner comes from an installed program under `/Programs`, that program's `Resources/Architecture` metadata file is used to identify the architecture string that must be searched under the list of installed dependencies. This approach enables the correct generation of multiarch overlays for both ELF executables as well as shell scripts and other interpreted files.

Again, if an executable depends on a given library `/usr/-lib/libfoo.so` and it needs it to be specifically 32-bit (even if the rest of the system sees it as 64-bit), Runner will ensure that it is 32-bit.

The Filesystem Hierarchy Standard (LHS) [19] defines support for multiarch libraries (e.g., libraries built for i686 on an x86-64 platform) through directories named `/lib32` and `/lib64`, where 32 and 64 are determined according to the architecture's pointer size. This solution does not work well once multiple 64 or 32-bit architectures must be supported due to namespace conflicts. An alternative method would be to define multiple suffixes that reflect the target architecture, such as `/lib_ia64` and `/lib_x64_64`, but the number of library directories quickly grows and complicates the maintenance of fundamental system services [15]. The filesystem virtualization featured in Runner eliminates this problem in an elegant way as described above.

### 3.2 Augmented filesystem tree

We hereby present the second contribution of this paper. *AlienVFS* is a novel virtual filesystem that we developed that mirrors modules installed by programming language package managers under a centralized directory. In other words, modules installed through CPAN, LuaRocks, PIP, RubyGems, and other supported languages are exposed under a single mount point. The virtual directory presents the module name and one or more subdirectories holding the installed version(s) of that module, as shown on Figure 1.

*AlienVFS* creates an in-memory mapping of the programming language modules installed by either interacting with the corresponding package manager or by parsing manifest files found in well-known locations. The same approach is used to determine the name and version of the modules that are used to compose the top-level directories of the virtual filesystem tree. The following backends are supported by our initial implementation of *AlienVS*:

- CPAN: provides support for Perl modules. Modules names and file listings are obtained from *packlist* manifests under the directories reported by the `perldoc` utility;
- LuaRocks: installed Lua modules along with their paths are retrieved through interaction with the `luarocks` package manager;
- PIP and PIP3: the lists of files installed by Python 2.x and 3.x modules are obtained by parsing Egg-Info and Dist-Info manifests;

```
$ ls /Mount/Aliens
CPAN:Authen::SASL      PIP3:numpy
CPAN:Digest::HMAC      PIP3:urlllib3
CPAN:Encode::Locale    PIP:Flask
LuaRocks:inotify        PIP:pycairo
LuaRocks:lanes          PIP:sqlparse
PIP3:dbus-python        RubyGems:rake
PIP3:flasgger          RubyGems:xmlrpc
...
$ ls /Mount/Aliens/PIP:sqlparse
0.2.4
$ ls /Mount/Aliens/PIP:sqlparse/0.2.4
bin  sqlparse  sqlparse-0.2.4.dist-info
```

**Figure 1.** Programming language modules exposed as regular programs with AlienVFS

- RubyGems: implements support for Ruby modules. The module search location and the list of installed files are obtained by direct interaction with the `gem` package manager.

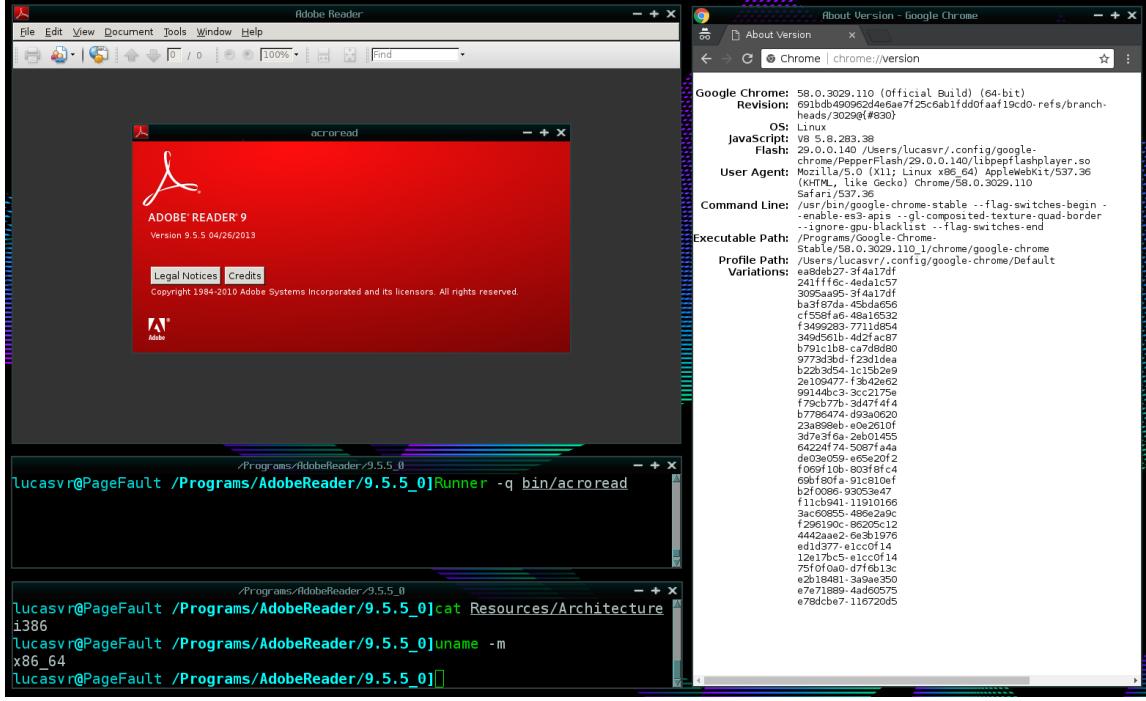
The virtual filesystem is implemented as a FUSE daemon [27] that redirects system calls (such as `stat` and `read`) to the original location where the modules are installed.

Since *AlienVFS* mimics the structure of regular packages installed under `/Programs`, we can merge them using an overlay filesystem [4] and provide a unified view of installed programs and programming language modules, as shown in Figure 2.

```
$ ls /Programs
ALSA-Lib                Pinfo
BinUtils                 Pixman
CoreUtils                PIP3:dbus-python
CPAN:Authen::SASL        PIP3:flasgger
CPAN:Digest::HMAC        PIP3:numpy
CPAN:Encode::Locale      PIP3:urlllib3
...
LuaRocks                 PIP:sqlparse
LuaRocks:inotify          Pkgconfig
LuaRocks:lanes            PostgreSQL
...
...
```

**Figure 2.** Overlay of AlienVFS on `/Programs`

The merged layout makes it easier for users to navigate their filesystem tree and inspect programming-module files of their interest. Further, it enables a much simpler implementation of dependency checkers: as long as the expected directory exists under `/Programs`, the dependency is met,



**Figure 3.** Using Runner to launch Adobe Reader (32-bit, from 2010) alongside Chrome (64-bit, from 2018)

no matter if the dependency is a regular program or a programming language module.

## 4 Practical applications

We have developed and deployed our system integrating it into a Linux-based distribution. In this section, we report our experiences using it, and the ways it has proven itself useful in a variety of practical situations.

### 4.1 Running multiple compilers

There are various use cases in which one needs to run a specific version of a compiler: sometimes long-term maintenance of software requires running old compilers; at other times, certain software such as CUDA [22] depends on specific versions of the host language compiler.

Installing multiple versions of compiler toolchains is a non-trivial task on regular Linux systems. Certain toolchain distributions are designed for stand-alone installation, such as cross-compilation setups, but regular compiler packages assume a particular toolchain and, most critically, C/C++ standard libraries, which are core packages on Linux. Using Runner, we are able to have full native toolchains installed side by side, including the C/C++ libraries, and produce executables that are able to run natively in that system as well. Even if one were able to run a compiler from a container, it would produce binaries dependent on the libraries stored in that container.

### 4.2 Satisfying dependencies for proprietary software

A practical challenge in software deployment is how to keep in use proprietary software that works but is unsupported by the original developer. Open source packages can be recompiled to use newer system libraries and run in contemporary systems, but sometimes a program that performs a function for which there is no replacement is only available in binary form and depends on legacy packages.

One notable example is Adobe Reader, which is no longer updated on Linux since 2013. While many open source alternative PDF readers are available for Linux, a number of existing documents use Adobe's proprietary extensions, such as support for embedded 3D objects, and XFA forms sometimes required by government agencies [14]. As of this writing, Adobe still publishes the last version built for Linux online, but it is only available as a 32-bit binary, and depends on libraries which are no longer available in any current Linux system. Adobe Reader 9.5.5 can be launched in a contemporary GoboLinux 64-bit system using Runner's support for multiple architectures, reusing packages from previous GoboLinux versions for its dependencies. This scenario is depicted in Figure 3.

Note that even when regular Linux distributions do offer multiarch support with two sets of libraries for 32-bit and 64-bit, they offer only the most recent versions available for each set of libraries. Therefore, even if one can run 32-bit and 64-bit applications in parallel in those systems (for

example, to launch recent builds of 32-bit versions of the Firefox browser using unmaintained plugins), it would be hardly possible for them to launch legacy binaries, as we demonstrate here with Runner.

## 5 Conclusion

Containers are a proven technology that enables the confined execution of processes under environments with strict security constraints and with special needs for resource throttling. However, they impose significant administration overhead when it comes to using them to run mundane executables that present versioning conflicts.

We presented a container-free infrastructure that enables conflicting dependencies to coexist in the same filesystem hierarchy and that enables their execution through filesystem multiplexing. Our proposal extends to packages managed by third-party software (such as those in charge of installing programming language modules) by way of another contribution made known in this paper: the unification of such packages under a well-structured virtual filesystem.

Because of the directory hierarchy we built our solution upon, there is no storage waste due to the replication of dependency files. Also, through such a hierarchy, it is possible to keep packages belonging to different versions of the distribution installed at the same time. That enables the realization of interesting scenarios with Runner, such as letting one run every program ever released for the distribution with zero configuration, as long as all related packages are uncompressed under the versioned directory structure.

We plan on extending the engineering work we have conducted so far to incorporate support for other third-party package managers and to continue our research on filesystem virtualization by bringing network transparency to our platform.

## 6 Source code

The source code of the tools presented in this paper are available at [redacted for anonymity].

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