CB2-101: Introduction to Linux

Malay K Basu (malay@uab.edu) Nov 6-7, 2014

Contents

Why Linux?	3
Linux is not Unix	3
GNU software stack	3
GPL: GNU general public license	4
Linux-Unix-GNU philosophy	4
Some basic features of GNU/Linux	4
Some basic commands	4
Exercise	4
Finding help	4
-h orhelp	5
man pages	5
info pages	5
apropos	5
File globbing and wildcard	5
Redirection and piping	5
cat	6
more	6
wc	6
head	6
tail	6
Directory structure	7
Exercise	7

Where I lay my head is home	7
Exercise	7
Login scripts	7
alias	7
Exercise	7
Path	8
Exercise	8
Environment variables	8
PATH env variable	8
Exercise	8
File permission	9
Exercise	9
Compression and archiving	9
Program compilation	9
Exercise	10
Working with structured text file	10
cut	10
sort	10
uniq	10
wget	10
Exercise	11
grep	11
Exercise	11
tr	12
find	12
Exercise	12
Looping in bash shell	12
rsync	13

unison	13
Perl	13
Exercise	14
Problem set	14
Problem 1	14
Problem 2	14
Problem 3	15
Problem 4	15

Why Linux?

For a complete history of Linux look at the WikiPedia article.

- 1. It's open-source, free as in beer.
- 2. Almost all large-scale computing systems use Linux.
- 3. Powerful shell, as you'll see.

Linux is not Unix

All unix like operating systems have one thing in common, they are POSIX compatible. POSIX stands for **Portable Operating System Inerface**, a set of C libraries. Another freely (as in beer) available unix like operating system is BSD. Mac OSX is a BSD variant with open-source kernel called, Darwin.

Although very similar (all of them are POSIX compatible), Linux and Unix are not the same. Look at SCO-Linux controversy, if you're interested in the gory details. By all means and purposes, Linux has largely replaced all types of unices.

Linux kernel was first created by Linus Torvalds. Together with GNU¹ tools, we now have GNU/Linux operating system.

GNU software stack

In 1983, Richard Stallman at MIT created Free Software Foundation (FSF). The dream was to create a "free" (as in freedom) operating system. By 1990, he had almost everything except the kernel. This software stack is called GNU. Linux provided that.

In a sense, what is more important for us is the GNU software stack. You can get it on BSD (another Unix like operating system) variants, such as OSX or even on Windows through CygWin project.

 $^{^1\}mathrm{Recursive}$ acronym: GNU is not unix.

GPL: GNU general public license

Almost all software on GNU/Linux are licensed under this licensing system, including the Linux kernel. The full text of the license can be found at https://www.gnu.org/copyleft/gpl.html. The license allows you modify and redistribute the software as you please (free as in freedom). But, if you have modified the software, the modified version has to be redistributed under the original license. That means the freedom that the license gave you, you should pass the same freedom to others. "Treat others the way you would like to be treated" — the golden rule of morality, the core of the rule of *Dharma!* This license was a game changer!

Linux-Unix-GNU philosophy

- 1. KISS "Keep it simple, stupid".
- 2. One program (command), one task.
- 3. Chain commands one after another to do "beautiful" things.

Some basic features of GNU/Linux

- 1. It is case sensitive. A is not the same as a.
- 2. Everything is a file in Linux.
- 3. Text file plays a very important role in Linux. All configurations are done by editing text files.
- 4. Parameters to a program are passed with a "-" (minus or tack).
- 5. You can stop execution of a program by pressing CTRL+C.

Some basic commands

- 1. man <commandname> will show you help about a particular command.
- 2. 1s shows a directory listing.
- 3. cd changes directory
- 4. mkdir creates dir
- 5. cp copies dir or files
- 6. mv renames or moves a file/dir.
- 7. rm removes a file.

Note: rm -rf is a special command that will remove everything from the current directory without prompting. If you accidentally execute this command in "/", it will try to wipe out everything from your computer.

Exercise

Show a man on ls. What does ls -1 do? What about ls -F?

Finding help

A typical Linux system has several levels of help. Some of these may not be available for specific software. These are detailed below:

-h or --help

Most well-designed program will have an in-built help. If it is there then most probably this can be accessed by passing -h or sometimes --help option to the software. Try this one first.

man pages

Almost all program has a manual page. That can be accessed using

man program name>

info pages

Many software in Linux have more easy to read help page. This can be accessed using

info program name>

If you run info without any option, it will show the entire info tree. You can then select by keyboard which portion of the info tree you would like to read.

apropos

Sometimes you do not remember the exact command name, but you would like to do a specific operation. For e.g., suppose you have forgotten the command wc. You can find all commands that has the word line in the manual page by using

apropos line

You'll see that wc is one of the listed commands. You'll also notice that apropos return each command with a number in the parenthesis. wc is listed as wc(1). The 1 in the parenthesis indicates that it is a runnable command. If you have something else, that means it is not a runnable command.

File globbing and wildcard

Characters "*" and "?" has special meaning to bash. The former represents "one or more" characters and the latter represents only one, but any character. For e.g., "*.fas" represents any filename that has ".fas" extension.

Redirection and piping

There are 3 channels through which a program can accept input and generate output. The input channel is called "standard in" or STDIN. There are two types of output channels: the normal output is called "standard out" or STDOUT. There is also a "standard error" output or STDERR.

The standard output (STDOUT) of a program can be "piped" into the standard input (STDIN) of another program. This is commonly done using a "|" or a "pipe" symbol. For e.g.,

ls *.txt | wc

Here the output or STDOUT of ls is "piped" into STDIN of wc. The final result is shown onto the terminal. In this case, it counts the number of text files in the current directory.

If you would like to redirect the output of a program to a file. This can be done in two ways:

- 1. > creates a new file. Caution: it will overwrite without any warning
- 2. '>>' Appends to the existing file.

For e.g.,

```
ls *.txt > ../list.txt
```

This will create a list of text files in the current directory. This list will be created on the parent directory. If you would like pipe the STDERR of a program you need to add a 2 before the redirection sign:

```
ls *.txt 2> error.log
```

You can even do both redirections simultaneously:

```
ls *.txt >../list.txt 2>error.log
```

cat

cat dumps the content of the file to output.

more

more is a paginator. It shows an input page by page.

WC

wc count the lines, words, and characters. If you are just interested in the lines use wc -1. If you are interested in the characters you can do wc -m.

head

head shows the first few lines of a file. If you are interested in specific lines use head -n <no_of_lines>.

tail

Like head, tail displays the last lines of the file. A very common use of tail is to skip the first few lines of the file. If you want to skip the first 2 lines of a file,

Directory structure

Unlike Windows Linux file systems all directories originate from a common node, called "root", indicated by "/". There is no "C:", "D:", etc.

Exercise:

Change your current directory using cd to "/". Show a directory listing of your "/".

Where I lay my head is home

The directory that you log into is your home. Also indicated by ~. The path is /home/Username.

Exercise

Do a directory listing of your home.

Login scripts

When you open a terminal in linux system, you are basically running a program or shell. The default shell is bash.

- 1. .bashrc runs every time a new terminal is opened.
- 2. .bash_profile runs every time you login.

You can put anything you want in these files. But where are they? These are hidden files. Any filename that starts with a "." is hidden. You need to type ls -a to view the file.

alias

You can change any command by aliasing it.

```
alias ls="ls -l"
```

Exercise

Change ls to show always formatting. That means whenever you type ls, it should get silently replaced by ls -F. You may put the command in your .bashrc file.

Path

- 1. pwd current path
- 2. "." current directory.
- 3. ".." parent directory

If your path starts with "/", then the path is absolute, otherwise it is a relative path.

Exercise

What is the absolute path of your home? Using a relative path, go up all the way to root and come back again in the same directory. For e.g., if you are currently in /a, the answer to the latter question will be ../a.

Environment variables

An environment variable is defined in bash as follows:

```
export foo=bar
```

After this bar can be referred to as \$foo anywhere within the shell. You may want to define an environment variable in .bashrc or .bash_profile. You can list all the environment variables already define for you by running env.

PATH env variable

To run a command (or program), the location of the program has to be in a particular environment variable called PATH. You can add to the existing \$PATH by adding to it like this:

```
export PATH=$PATH:/some_dir/of/my/choice
```

You may add line like this in your .bashrc or .bash_profile. You can also run a program by calling it by absolute path. To run a command from the current directory call it by its relative path like this

```
./my_awesome_program
```

You can find the absolute path of a command by using which <commandname>.

Exercise

Using which find the location of ls. Change the directory to the parent directory of ls.Overwrite the current path by adding empty string to it. Now again do a which on ls. What happens? Run ls using a relative path.

File permission

There are three kind of permissions: read, write, and execute. A file need to have executable permission in Linux to run. You can change the permission of a file that you own by the command chmod. You can check the permission of a file by 1s -1. chmod is run like this:

```
chmod a+wrx filename
```

a means all users. + grants permission. w,r,x denotes write, read, and execute permissions.

Exercise

Change the permission of a file that you own to executable by everyone.

Compression and archiving

The two most common compression programs that you'll encounter are gzip and bzip2. Both have identical syntaxes. Traditionally they take .gz and .bz2 extensions, respectively. They generally operate on one file at a time. If you just type gzip file, the compressed file will be automatically named file.gz and original file will be replaced. Interesting thing about these programs are that they can be used by piping. For e.g.,

```
echo "Hello there." | gzip -9 -c >hello.gz
```

You can use compressed files without uncompressing it. zcat can be used for gzip and bzcat is for bzip2.

Corresponding uncompressing programs are gunzip and bunzip2.

To compress many files (including directories) you need to use tar first then use gzip/bzip2.

```
tar -c Downloads/ | gzip -c >downloads.tar.gz
or,
tar -cvzf downloads.tar.gz Downloads/
```

If you get a file with .tar.gz or .tar.bz2 extensions. Unzip them like this:

```
tar -xvzf myfile.tar.gz
tar -xvjf myfile.tar.bz2
```

Program compilation

There is a standard way to compile a C program in Linux. Almost all the software are distributed as <code>.tar.gz</code> files. These are source codes. You should compile and install the software like this:

```
tar -xvzf foo.tar.gz
cd foo
./configure
make
make install
```

The last install step may require you switch to root.

Exercise

HMMER is a software for sequence analysis using profile hidden Markov model. Download HMMER source code from http://selab.janelia.org/software/hmmer3/3.1b1/hmmer-3.1b1.tar.gz, then install the software in your machine.

Working with structured text file

cut

cut extracts the columns from a text file. The default field separator is tab. To extract 2nd column for a tab-delimited text file,

```
cat foo.txt | cut -f 2
```

sort

Sort the line of a input in alphabetical order.

```
cat foo.txt | sort
```

uniq

Removes duplicate lines if the are consecutive. You have to use sort to use uniq correctly.

```
cat foot.txt | sort | uniq
```

wget

wget is a swiss-army-knife of web downloader. You can use it to download http or ftp files. The basic use is very simple.

```
wget <URL>
```

But once you know how to use wget correctly, you can use it to do pretty sophisticated stuff. For e.g., to download all the PDF files for a URL.

```
wget -A.pdf <URL>
or, if the URL is ftp
wget ftp://myurl.net/*.pdf
```

We will be using wget to download files from ftp sites like NCBI.

Exercise

If you go to the *Drosophila melanogaster* genome ftp site (ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/) on NCBI, you will find that files are scattered in 5 directories, each corresponding to one chromosome:

```
CHR_2 CHR_3 CHR_4 CHR_Un CHR_X
```

Each of these directories contain many files. The protein sequences are in .faa files. To download all the protein fasta files in the current directory, use

```
wget ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/\ CHR_{\{2..4\},Un,X\}}*.faa
```

This download works, because there only few subdirectories. If there are too many directories, then we should use,

```
wget -r -A.faa ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/
```

But the command recreates all subdirectories. Finally this should replicate the first command,

```
wget -r -nH --cut-dirs=4 -A.faa ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/\
genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/
```

In last two commands we download every ".faa" files, because each directory is *D. melanogaster* represents a chromosome. But look at the *D. pseudoobscura* site (ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_pseudoobscura/). The directories are,

```
CHR_2 CHR_3 CHR_Un mapview
```

Clearly mapview is not a genome directory. In this case we should download ".faa" files only from directories that matches \mathtt{CHR}_* .

```
wget -r -nH --cut-dirs=4 -A.faa -I genomes/Drosophila_pseudoobscura/CHR_* \
ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_pseudoobscura/
```

grep

grep search for a pattern in file or input.

Exercise

In the last step we downloaded a bunch of .faa files for *Drosophila* proteome. These files are in FASTA format; each sequence starts with a ">" sign. We can grep for these lines to to print these lines only,

```
cat *.faa | grep \>
```

Note that we had to put a "\" character in front of ">". This is called a shell *escape*. What will happen if we do not escape ">".

A "-v" option togrep' will print lines that are not matching. To find only the sequence lines we can do the following.

```
cat *.faa | grep -v \>
```

tr

This commands *translates* one or more character in a string to another.

```
echo 'uab' | tr '[a-z]' '[A-Z]'
```

This command will acutally convert the word uab to UAB.

One very commong use of tr is to delete the line terminating character. This is an invisible character represented as "\n" that are present after each line. For example to join all lines in the file, you may do this:

```
cat myfile.txt | tr -d "\n"
```

find

find searches files recursively going into a directory hierarchy.

Exercise

In the wget examples we downloaded .faa files using this command,

```
wget -r -A.faa \
    ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/
```

This recreated all the intermediate directory and .faa files are deeply nested in a directory hierarchy. We can find all the .faa files like this,

```
find ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ -name "*.faa" -print
```

This prints the list of files:

```
ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/CHR_3/NT_033777.faa ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/CHR_3/NT_037436.faa ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/CHR_4/NC_004353.faa ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/CHR_2/NT_033779.faa ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/CHR_2/NT_033778.faa ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Drosophila_melanogaster/RELEASE_5_48/CHR_2/NT_033778.faa
```

Interesting thing is that we can not only find files but execute arbitrary command on each of these files. For e.g., we can pull all the ".faa" files in the current directory like this:

```
find ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ -name "*.faa" -exec cp {} . \;
```

Looping in bash shell

Sometimes it is useful to loop through a set of files. For e.g., if we would like change the filename of all the files with ".faa" extension to ".fas" we will do this:

```
for i in `ls *.faa`
do
    base=`basename $i .faa`
    mv $i ${base}.fas
done
```

rsync

rsync is a synchronization software. The first time you use rsync it will try to copy everything to the target directory. Next time onwards it will only copy the changed file to the target.

```
rsync -avP source_dir/ target_dir/
```

rsync can also synchronize two directories over network. If you have ssh account on a remote machine,

```
rsync -avP source_dir/ user@password:/target_dir/
```

unison

unison will make two directories identical. It performs a bidirectional synchronization.

```
unison -auto source_dir/ target_dir/
```

Like rsync unison also works over network.

```
unison -auto source_dir/ ssh://user@password//target_dir
```

Perl

Created by Larry Wall², Perl has been the language of choice in bioinformatics for a long time. Perl is always there in all GNU/Linux machine. It is an extremely powerful general purpose programming language. We will use a little bit of Perl to write what is known as perl "one-liners".

```
perl -e 'print "Hello world\n"'
```

This prints the text "Hello world" on the screen. Generally, if you would like loop through all the lines given by STDIN, you would write a program like this:

```
while (<STDIN>) {
    print;
}
```

But, using a one liner with -n option will put everything automatically within a while loop,

```
perl -ne 'print'
```

If you're extracting data from a tab-delimited text file, you can use -a that autosplits the line into an array, called @F. In Perl, an array is denoted by an @F in front of a variable and the individual element can be accessed as F[0], F[1],..., etc.

²Most quotable software guru. Take a look at his quips. He is famous for his witty and intelligent state-of-the onion talks. Listen to his particularly brilliant 1998 talk at http://www.perl.com/pub/1998/08/show/onion.html.

Exercise

If you have downloaded the human PFAM file form the Problem 1, the column 12 has the score. We would like to extract the lines that have score >2000.

```
zcat 9606.tsv.gz | tail -n+4 | perl -nae 'print if $F[11] >2000'
```

Note that although we are interested in column 12, we actually print \$F[11], because arrays in Perl starts with 0

To give you a more sophisticated example, let's extract all the GIs from the *Drosophila* .faa files of chromosome 2. There are two files for chromosome 2: NT_033778.faa and NT_033779.faa. If you do a head on the first file, it prints,

>gi|116007464|ref|NP_001036428.1| CG17683, isoform A [Drosophila melanogaster]
MSRLSRALQLTDIDDFITPSQICIKPVQIDKARSKTGAKIKIKGDGCFEESESGNLKLNKVDISLQDCLA
CSGCITSAEEVLITQQSREELLKVLQENSKNKASEDWDNVRTIVFTLATQPILSLAYRYQIGVEDAARHL
NGYFRSLGADYVLSTKVADDIALLECRQEFVDRYRENENLTMLSSSCPGWVCYAEKTHGNFLLPYVSTTR
SPQQIMGVLVKQILADKMNVPASRIYHVTVMPCYDKKLEASREDFFSKANNSRDVDCVITSVEVEQLLSE
AQQPLSQYDLLDLDWPWSNVRPEFMVWAHEKTLSGGYAEHIFKYAAKHIFNEDLKTELEFKQLKNRDFRE
IILKQNGKTVLKFAIANGFRNIQNLVQKLKREKVSNYHFVEVMACPSGCINGGAQIRPTTGQHVRELTRK
LEELYQNLPRSEPENSLTKHIYNDFLDGFQSDKSYDVLHTRYHDVVSELSISLNINW
>gi|116007468|ref|NP_001036430.1| CG17683, isoform C [Drosophila melanogaster]
MSRLSRALQLTDIDDFITPSQPVQIDKARSKTGAKIKIKGDGCFEESESGNLKLNKVDISLQDCLACSGC

The GI's are just after the ">" sign.

```
cat *.faa | perl -ne 'print $1, "\n" if (\$_= - /^*)(gi(d+))'
```

Now extract the accession number yourself.

Problem set

Problem 1

PFAM is a database of domains. It also provides pre-calculated domains for all proteomes. The current version can be found here ftp://ftp.sanger.ac.uk/pub/databases/Pfam/releases/Pfam27.0/proteomes/. Each file is a proteome identified by its taxonomic ID. Human has the ID 9606. Each of these files is tab-delimited and the 6th column is the domain ID. Download the human proteome file using wget. After downloading write just a single line of bash to find how many domain types (unique domains) are there in human genome. You may use as many commands, chained in pipes, as you wish.

Problem 2

On NCBI FTP site all the bacterial genomes are present in the directory ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Bacteria/. There are hundreds of genomes in that directory. Using a single wget command download proteomes corresponding to all the *Yersinia_pestis* strains. The proteomes should be downloaded in such a way that each ".faa" files are inside separate directory. A 1s should print something like this:

```
Yersinia_pestis_A1122_uid158119/
Yersinia_pestis_Angola_uid58485/
Yersinia_pestis_Antiqua_uid58607/
Yersinia_pestis_biovar_Medievalis_Harbin_35_uid158537/
Yersinia_pestis_biovar_Microtus_91001_uid58037/
Yersinia_pestis_C092_uid57621/
Yersinia_pestis_D106004_uid158071/
Yersinia_pestis_D182038_uid158073/
Yersinia_pestis_KIM_10_uid57875/
Yersinia_pestis_Nepal516_uid58609/
Yersinia_pestis_Pestoides_F_uid58619/
Yersinia_pestis_Z176003_uid47317/
```

Problem 3

Starting from last directory write a single bash command line to count the total number of proteins in all the Yersinia pestis strains together. You may chain as many commands as you wish.

Problem 4

E. coli MG1655 is the standard referece strain of E. coli. The protein FASTA file for this strain can be downloaded from ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Bacteria/Escherichia_coli_K_12_substr__MG1655_uid57779/NC_000913.faa. Using just bash commands can you find out what is the average length of protein in this strain? You may use as many commands as you may wish.