



Introduction to Unix

Anticipated workshop duration when delivered to a group of participants is **3 hours**.

For queries relating to this workshop, contact Melbourne Bioinformatics (bioinformatics-training@unimelb.edu.au).

Find out when we are next running this training as an in-person workshop, by visiting the [Melbourne Bioinformatics Eventbrite page](#).

Overview

Topic

- Genomics
- Transcriptomics
- Proteomics
- Metabolomics
- Statistics and visualisation
- Structural Modelling
- Basic skills

Skill level

- Beginner
- Intermediate
- Advanced

This workshop is designed for participants with little or no command-line knowledge.

Description

A hands-on workshop covering the basics of the Unix command line interface.

Knowledge of the Unix operating system is fundamental to the use of many popular bioinformatics command-line tools. Whether you choose to run your analyses locally or on a high-performance computing system, knowing your way around a command-line interface is highly valuable. This workshop will introduce you to Unix concepts by way of a series of hands-on exercises.

Completion of this workshop will provide the background knowledge required for several Melbourne Bioinformatics workshops that require command-line skills.

Tools: Standard Unix commands, [FileZilla](#)

Topic overview:

Section 1: Getting started

Section 2: Exploring your current directory

Section 3: Making and changing directories

Section 4: Viewing and manipulating files

Section 5: Removing files and directories

Section 6: Searching files

Section 7: Putting it all together

Section 8: Transferring files

Learning Objectives

At the end of this introductory workshop, you will:

- Access a Unix machine either locally or remotely
- Navigate the file system
- Organise your files into directories
- Change file permissions to improve security and safety
- Move and copy files between directories
- Safely remove files
- Perform searches within files

- Combine commands using pipes
 - Transfer files between a local and remote machine
-

Tutorial layout

- There is a `Table of contents` on the right-hand side that can be used to easily navigate through the tutorial by clicking the relevant section.

These grey coloured boxes are code blocks. The rectangular boxes in the top right-hand corner of this code block/grey box can be used to copy the code to the clipboard.

 **Coloured boxes like these with > on the far right-hand side, can be clicked to reveal the contents.** 

REVEALED!

 **Attention: Pay attention to the information in these boxes.**

Important information, hints and tips.

Requirements and preparation

 **Important**

Attendees are required to bring their own laptop computers.

At least one week before the workshop, participants should install the software specified below. This should provide sufficient time for participants to liaise with their own IT support should they encounter any IT problems.

Required Software

- For information about required software, click [here](#).

Required Data

- No additional data need to be downloaded for the live delivery workshop.
 - Instructions for data download for independent completion of this workshop are included in Section 1.
-

Mode of Delivery

This workshop will be run on a [Nectar](#) Instance. An “Instance” is Nectar terminology for a virtual machine running on the Nectar Cloud OpenStack infrastructure. An “Instance” runs on a “compute node”; i.e. a physical computer populated with processor chips, memory chips and so on.

You will be given an individual IP address and password to log on to using the SSH client tool on your computer (Terminal on Mac or PuTTY on Windows).

Should you wish to complete this workshop independently, you can do so locally (for Mac and LINUX users) or via binder (for Windows users).

Slides and PDF instructions

The slides presented during this workshop are available here: [PDF](#) / [PPTX](#).

[A printer-friendly PDF version of these workshop instructions is available here.](#)

Author Information

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A previous introductory Unix workshop is archived [here](#).

Background

Before we begin the hands-on part of this workshop, we will first give a short presentation to introduce some important Unix concepts. The slides are available here: [PDF](#) / [PPTX](#)

Section 1: Getting started

In this section, we will learn how to connect to a Unix computer via a program called `ssh` and run a few basic commands.

Logging in connects your local computer (e.g. laptop) to a remote machine, and allows you to type commands into the Unix prompt. The commands are run on the remote machine, and the results are displayed on your local screen.

You will be allocated a training account for the duration of the workshop. Your username and password will be supplied at the start of the workshop.

We are connecting to a remote computer today so that everyone has an identical environment, regardless of the specifications of your local computer. This connection process is similar to how you would connect to a high-performance computing (HPC) system such as [Spartan](#) at The University of Melbourne.

? I'm not attending the live workshop. Can I complete the workshop independently? ✓

Yes you can, although the remote machines are only provided for the live workshop participants.

Follow the instructions for your operating system, then head down to the hands-on section.

☰ Mac Users ✓

Download the zipped file available at [this Zenodo address](#). We will refer to these data later in the workshop.

Unzip the file by double clicking it in a Finder window.

Open the Terminal app (it comes preinstalled on every Mac). You can find it via a Spotlight Search or via the Launchpad.

In the Terminal, you should see a blinking cursor. Type the following command and replace the word `PATH_TO_DIRECTORY` with the path to the location of your unzipped folder (or directory). One easy way to find the correct path is to view the directory in the Finder and enable the path bar (*View > Show path bar*). You can then drag the correct path from the bar at the bottom of the Finder window into the Terminal.

```
cd PATH_TO_DIRECTORY
```

Use the following command to confirm that you have set the correct working directory.

```
pwd
```

If the output of this command ends in `/unix_intro_data`, well done! Now continue with the hands-on section.

Windows Users

We will be using a service called binder, which builds a Docker image from a specified repository. This will allow you to run Unix commands in a live environment.

[Access the binder via your web browser.](#)

Be patient, it can take a few minutes to set up your environment.

Once your binder has launched, select *Terminal* from the bottom left-hand corner of the main page.

In the Terminal, you should see a blinking cursor. Type the following command and press enter. This command sets the working directory.

```
cd unix_intro_data
```

Use the following command to confirm that you have set the correct working directory.

```
pwd
```

If the output of this command ends in `/unix_intro_data`, well done! Now continue with the hands-on section.

Connect to a Unix computer

[Follow the instructions here to connect to the remote machine](#)

Windows users

Windows users will need to download a terminal emulator such as [PuTTY](#) (free and open-source).

Hands-on

1.1 Run some commands

Once you've logged into the Unix server, run the following commands and see what they do.

Type each command in and hit Enter/Return. Once the previous command has completed, a new prompt indicates that it's ready for the next command to be entered.

```
whoami
```

```
date
```

```
cal
```

Answer

- `whoami` : displays your username (i.e. the person currently logged in).
- `date` : displays the current date and time.
- `cal` : displays a calendar.

1.2 Try out some flags

Many Unix commands accept arguments (sometimes called flags) which enable/disable specific features. For example, you can ask the date command to produce its output in a different format.

```
date -I
```

It is not uncommon for a command to accept many different arguments, and, in most cases, more than one argument can be supplied at the same time. Arguments are separated by one or more space characters and they are usually case sensitive.

```
cal -m january
```

```
cal -3
```

```
cal -3 -m january
```

1.3 Consult the manual pages

If every Unix command has so many options, how you find out what they are and what they do? Thankfully, every Unix command has an associated *manual* that you can usually access by using the `man` command.

Try accessing the manual pages for the commands we have used so far. Can you figure out what day of the week your 100th birthday will be?

binder users

If you are running this workshop in a binder, manual pages may not be accessible via the `man` command.

Try an internet search for your desired command followed by *manual unix* instead.

Hint

The following command displays the manual page for the `cal` command.

```
man cal
```

When you are using the `man` command, use the up and down arrows to scroll, or press `q` to quit. The `man` command is actually using another Unix program, a text viewer called `less`, which we'll come to later on.

Section 2: Exploring your current directory

In this section, we will learn how to “look” at the file system and further expand our repertoire of Unix commands.

The machines provided have been set up with some files for us to take a look at.

Where am I?

There may be many hundreds of directories on any Unix machine, so how do you know which one you are in? The command `pwd` will **P**rint the **W**orking **D**irectory. If you ever get lost in the file system, remember the `pwd` command. Try it out.

```
pwd
```

Many bioinformatics tools require paths as input. Check your paths with `pwd` before you submit a job to a job scheduler.

List available files and directories

What about looking at the contents of a directory? For that, we use the `ls` command (short for 'list').

```
ls
```

Hands-on

2.1 Reveal more information

Run `ls` with the long flag to get more information about the contents of the directory. How did the output change?

```
ls -l
```

Answer

The long flag means that each file or directory is placed on its own line. Extra information is also included.

```
drwxr-xr-x 2 alpha alpha 4.0K Sep  8 23:28 samples
\-----/ ^ \-----/ \-----/ \-----/ \-----/ \-----/
permission | username  group   size    date    name
 /---^---\
 linkcount
```

Where:

- **permissions:** 4 parts, file type, user perms, group perms and other perms
 - *object type:* 1 character, *d* = directory and *-* = regular file
 - *user permissions:* 3 characters, *r* = read, *w* = write, *x* = execute and *-* = no permission
 - *group permissions:* same as user except for users within the owner group
 - *other permissions:* same as user except for users that are not in either *user* or *group*
- **username:** user who owns this object
- **group:** group who owns this object
- **size:** number of bytes this object takes to store on disk
- **date:** date and time when this object was last edited
- **name:** name of the object
- **linkcount:** number of links this object has in the file system (safe to ignore)

2.2 Upgrade your `ls`

`ls` is a command you're likely to use a lot! Why not find a combination of flags you like.

What does this combination of flags do?

```
ls -lhrt
```

Hint

Always remember the `man` command.

```
man ls
```

Answer

The command above returns the contents of the current directory in long form (`-l`), sorted in reverse (`-r`) order of their last edit (`-t`), with file sizes shown in more convenient units (`-h`).

2.3 Compare files

`samples` is a directory; you can tell by the leading 'd' in the long-form `ls` output.

`ls` can be used to list the content of other directories, not just the current one.

```
ls -lhrt samples
```

The `wc` (for **W**ord **C**ount) command prints the number of lines, words, and bytes in a file.

```
wc samples/sample_c.fastq
```

Which of the 3 FASTQ files has the most lines?

Hint

`wc` can accept multiple input files with spaces between them.

Answer

`sample_c.FASTQ` has the most lines.

Section 3: Making and changing directories

In this section, we will learn how to change the current directory and create entirely new ones.

Create a new directory

To make a new directory, we use the `mkdir` command, supplying a sensible directory name.

```
mkdir my_directory
```

? Did that work?

Some commands (including `mkdir`) do not display a message after they have been executed. You can check that your `mkdir` command worked with `ls`.

Change working directory

Let's change our current working directory to the newly created one with the command `cd` (for **C**hange **D**irectory).

```
pwd
```

```
cd my_directory
```

```
pwd
```

Note that `cd` can also take the full path as input (the long version that you can see in the `pwd` output). What we supplied above is called a relative path.

Hands-on

☰ 3.1 Create nested directories

It can be very useful to organise your directories into hierarchies. Try creating a new directory inside `my_directory`. Then create another new directory inside that one.

Change your working directory to the innermost directory.

3.2 Change directory with ..



Often, it is useful to go 'upwards' one level in the directory structure. Two dots `..` are used in Unix to refer to the parent directory of wherever you are. All directories (besides the root level) have a parent that can be accessed in this way.

A single dot `.` is used to refer to the current directory (often useful when running bioinformatics tools).

Try using `..` to change your directory.

What about `../..`? What does that represent?

Hint



Set your working directory back to your innermost directory first.

Answer



`../..` refers to the parent of the parent directory.

`../../..` refers to the parent of the parent of the parent directory.

And so on...

3.3 Save time with tab completion

One great Unix you can start using right away is that you can tab complete the names of files, directories and commands.

Just type enough characters to uniquely identify the name of a file, directory or command, press tab and Unix will do the rest.

If pressing tab doesn't do anything, then you have not typed enough unique characters. In this case, pressing tab twice will show you all of the possible completions.

Try using tab completion to complete directory names as you change directories with `cd`.

Think of all the saved keystrokes!

? How can I save more time?

Another great time-saver is that Unix stores a list of all of the previous commands that you have executed in each session. Access this list by using the up and down arrows.

So, if you type a long command but make a mistake, press the up arrow and then you can use the left and right arrows to move the cursor in order to make an edit.

You could also try the `history` command to print a list of your previous commands.

```
history
```

Section 4: Viewing and manipulating files

In this section we will focus on files; how to view them, how to copy them, how to move them, how to rename them and how to change their permissions.

View a file

We've covered finding the locations, sizes and lengths of files, but how do we look inside them? The `less` command allows us to view (but not edit) text-based files. The `-S` flag sets the line folding to off. This is particularly useful when you have very long lines (like our FASTQ files).

```
less -S sample_1.fastq
```

⚠ No such file or directory

If you see this error message, the most likely reason is that you are not in the correct directory.

Use `pwd`, `cd` and `ls` to find your way to the right place.

❓ What if my files are compressed?

If a file is in a compressed format, you will need to decompress it first before you view it with `less`.

For example, the `gunzip` command will decompress a `fastq.gz` file.

Alternatively, you can view the contents of an uncompressed file by printing it to the screen with the command `zcat`.

When you are using `less`, you can move forward or backwards one line at a time using the arrow keys. To quit, press `q`.

For long files, it can be inconvenient to view the whole thing when only a peek at a few lines or just the header information is enough.

The command `head` prints the first 10 lines of a file to the screen.

```
head sample_1.fastq
```

Equivalently, we have the `tail` command, that does the same for the last lines of a file. Both `head` and `tail` have an option to change the number of lines displayed.

```
tail -n 4 sample_1.fastq
```

Copy, move or rename a file

To make a copy of a file, all you need to do is supply the name of the file and a name for the copy to the `cp` command.

```
cp sample_1.fastq copy_of_sample_1.fastq
```

You can check to see the new file using `ls`.

Moving a file from one directory to another follows the same basic command format shown below.

```
mv FILE DESTINATION
```

Renaming a file actually uses the `mv` command too.

```
mv OLD_NAME NEW_NAME
```

Change file permissions

File and directory permissions determine what actions users can perform. We can see these permissions using the long-form `ls` output.

```
ls -lhrt
```

The file permission symbolic notation works as follows:

The first character determines the type of object (d for directory, - for a regular file).

The remaining nine characters are in three triads.

Three permission triads	
first triad:	what the owner can do
second triad:	what the group members can do
third triad:	what other users can do

In each triad		
first character:	r	readable
second character:	w	writable
third character:	x	executable

? Can I see an example?

For the permission string **drwxr-xr-x**

The **d** means it is a directory.

The **rw**x means that the owner of the directory (your user account) can read, write and execute the directory. Execute permission on a directory means that you can `cd` into the directory.

The **r-x** means that anyone in the user group can read and execute the directory.

The second **r-x** means that other users on the system can read and execute the directory.

To change permissions, use the `chmod` command (for change mode). The owner of a file can change the permissions for user (**u**), group (**g**), or others (**o**) by adding (+) or subtracting (-) the read (**r**), write (**w**), and execute (**x**) permissions.

To add write permission for others for a file, the following command would be used:

```
chmod o+w FILE
```

Hands-on

4.1 Move files

Move *sample_1.fastq* and *sample_2.fastq* into the *samples* directory.

Hint

Move multiple files at once by using the wildcard character `*`.

The `*` symbol is a Unix wildcard that can stand for any string.

Hence `sam*` will refer to any file in your current directory that begins with `sam`.

4.2 Rename a file

Rename *sample_c.fastq* to *sample_3.fastq*

After 4.1 and 4.2 you should have a *samples* directory with 3 files that follow the same naming convention.

4.3 Change file permissions

Remove all users write permission to the FASTQ files in the *samples* directory. This will prevent you from accidentally overwriting or erasing these files.

Hint

The change a permission for the user (**u**), group (**g**), and others (**o**) all at once, use **a** for all.

Section 5: Removing files and directories

In this section we'll cover how to safely remove files and directories that you no longer need.

Remove directories

The `mkdir` command that we used earlier has an analogue for removing directories called `rmdir`.

```
rmdir DIRECTORY
```

Helpfully, `rmdir` will only remove an empty directory (so we don't accidentally remove important files).

Remove files

To remove files, we have to use the `rm` (remove) command.

Please read this section VERY carefully!

Accidental misuse of the `rm` command can lead to huge problems!

If you delete something with `rm`, you will not get it back!

It is possible to delete everything in file system (all directories and subdirectories) with `rm`.

Let's repeat that last part again: It is possible to delete every file you have ever created with the `rm` command.

Luckily, there is a way of making `rm` a little bit safer. We can use it with the `-i` flag so that you will be asked for confirmation before deleting anything.

```
rm -i FILE
```

Can I use a wildcard character with these commands too?

You can use wildcard characters with any Unix command.

However, using wildcards with the `rm` command is particularly dangerous (we encourage avoiding it altogether).

Hands-on

5.1 Change `rm` behaviour

Usually `rm` does not display a message once it has run.

Instead using a flag, `rm` will use verbose mode, where it will print the name of each file that has been deleted.

What flag enables verbose mode?

Answer

`-v` engages verbose mode.

5.2 Remove file

Remove the copied file you created in section 4. You can also remove any additional copies you may have made.

5.3 Remove directories

Remove the directories you created in section 3.

Do not remove the *samples* directory.

Section 6: Searching files

In this section we'll cover how to search within files for matches to a given pattern.

Grep for matches

We can use the command `grep` to search within files. You may also hear `grep` used as a verb; to `grep` for the right line in a file.

The following examples show how you can use `grep`'s command-line options to:

- show lines that match a specified pattern
- ignore case when matching (`-i`)
- only match whole words (`-w`)
- show lines that don't match a pattern (`-v`)
- use wildcard characters and other patterns to allow for alternatives
- colours the matched text for easy visualisation (`--colour`)

Regular expressions (regex) are used to define search patterns. Some useful regex characters:

- `^` The beginning of a text line
- `$` The end of a text line
- `.` Any single character

The following command shows all of the lines in the file that contain the string `CATCAT`

```
grep CATCAT sample_1.fastq
```

Hands-on

6.1 Extract ID lines

Each read in a FASTQ file has an associated sequence ID line.

Identify which is the ID line from the following `head` output.

```
head -n 12 sample_1.fastq
```

Use `grep` to print all of the ID line from `sample_1.fastq`.

Answer

```
grep ^@ sample_1.fastq
```

6.2 Find matching entries

With a regular `grep` search, the line containing the matching term is printed. It can be useful to also print lines before or after the matching lines. With `-B` (for before) and `-A` (for after), you can specify the number of lines to display.

Display the full FASTQ entry for each sequence that contains the sequence CATCAT in *sample_1.fastq*.

Answer

```
grep -B 1 -A 2 CATCAT sample_1.fastq
```

6.3 Search for a motif

Display the sequences in *sample_1.fastq* that contain the motif CATNNT where N is any nucleotide.

Answer

```
grep CAT..T sample_1.fastq
```

Section 7: Putting it all together

In this section we will cover a few more advanced Unix concepts that allow us to bring together some of the commands we have learned so far.

Combine commands with pipes

One of the most powerful features of Unix is that you can send the output from one command directly into the input of any other command.

We do this by using a pipe that is represented by the `|` character. Think of a pipe as a connection between two Unix commands.

```
grep CAT..T sample_1.fastq | wc -l
```

The first part of the command is the same `grep` search from 6.3.

The `grep` output is sent through a pipe to `wc`, where the `-l` option counts the number of lines.

So as a whole, this command counts the number of sequences that contain a match to the motif CATNNT.

Redirect output to a file

It can be very useful to direct output into a new file, rather than simply printing it to the screen.

This file redirection can be done with the `>` symbol.

```
whoami > user.txt
```

The command above sent the output of the `whoami` command to a file called `user.txt`. Notice that there was no output on the screen. You can check the contents of `user.txt` with `less`.

Warning

Be careful when using file redirection (`>`); it will overwrite any existing file of the same name.

We can also use the `>>` operator to append output to the end of an existing file.

```
date >> user.txt
```

You should see that your `user.txt` file now contains the output of the `date` command under the original user line.

Hands-on

7.1 Use a pipe

Display the ID lines from the first 10 entries in `sample_1.fastq` using a pipe.

Answer

```
grep ^@ sample_1.fastq | head
```

Or, alternatively:

```
head -n 40 sample_1.fastq | grep ^@
```

7.2 Direct output to a file

Use your command from above but redirect the output to a file. Choose a sensible name for your file.

7.3 Create a new FASTQ file

Create a new FASTQ file containing the final 3 reads in each of the three FASTQ files.

Answer

```
tail -n 12 sample_1.fastq > new_sample.fastq
tail -n 12 sample_2.fastq >> new_sample.fastq
tail -n 12 sample_3.fastq >> new_sample.fastq
```

Or, alternatively:

```
tail -n 12 *.fastq | grep -v "^==" | grep . > new_sample.fastq
```

Section 8: Transferring files

In this section we will cover how to transfer files between a local and a remote machine using [FileZilla](#).

⚠ Section 8: for in-person workshop participants

Section 8 applies only to in-person workshop participants.

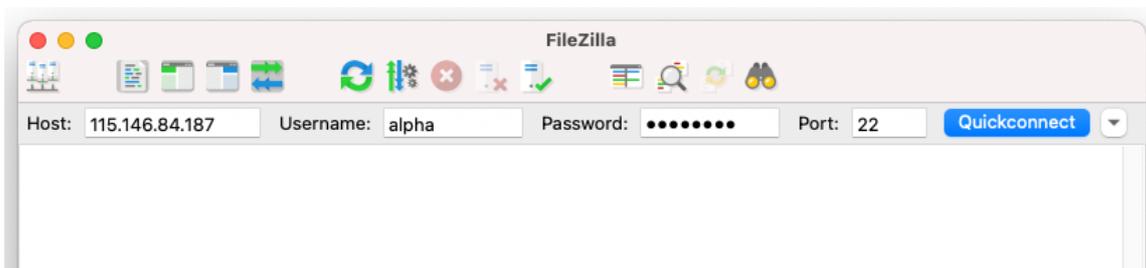
When working on a remote machine like an HPC system, transferring data (in both directions!) is a common task. FileZilla provides a useful interface for these transfers.

Transfer files with Filezilla

Open FileZilla on your local computer. At the top of the window, enter the following information in the boxes as shown in the image below.

Field	Enter the below information
-------	-----------------------------

Field	Enter the below information
Host :	IP adress from provided spreadsheet
Username :	Username from provided spreadsheet
Password	Password from provided spreadsheet
Port	22



Select Quickconnect to establish a connection.

Now you can now drag and drop files or whole directories to move them between a local and a remote machine.

⚠ The provided Nectar instances will be turned off shortly after the completion of the workshop

If you would like to save a copy of the files you have been working on, do that now.

Finished

Well done, you learnt a lot over the last 8 sections; it's a lot to take in!

From here you should be comfortable around the Unix command line and be ready to complete other workshops based on the command line here at Melbourne Bioinformatics.

You will no-doubt forget a lot of what you learnt here so we encourage you to save a link to this workshop for later reference.

Table of commands used

Command	Description
---------	-------------

Command	Description
<code>whoami</code>	print current user name
<code>date</code>	system date and time
<code>cal</code>	calendar
<code>man</code>	manual page
<code>pwd</code>	print working directory
<code>ls</code>	list contents
<code>wc</code>	word count
<code>mkdir</code>	make directory
<code>cd</code>	change directory
<code>history</code>	print list of previous commands
<code>less</code>	view file
<code>head</code>	show first lines of file
<code>tail</code>	show last lines of file
<code>cp</code>	copy files/directories
<code>mv</code>	move files/directories
<code>chmod</code>	change permissions
<code>rmdir</code>	remove empty directory
<code>rm</code>	remove file
<code>grep</code>	search for a pattern

Command	Description
<code>gzip</code>	gzip a file
<code>gunzip</code>	decompress a gzipped file
<code>zcat</code>	view contents of a compressed file

Additional Resources

This workshop is just the tip of the Unix iceberg! There is lots more to learn out there. Below are some resources that will help with further learning.

- [The HPC workshops](#) run by Research Computing Services (University of Melbourne researchers only) are a great intro to using a command-line interface to access a HPC system.
- [This tutorial](#) is a detailed intro to Unix programming by A/Prof Bernie Pope.