









Linux for Beginners ABIMS Training Module 2021

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Linux for Beginners | Goals

My {colleague|competitor} told me about a highly interesting tool for analysing data quite related to mine. It's some kind of thingy running on *Lynuks* and installed somewhere on a server.

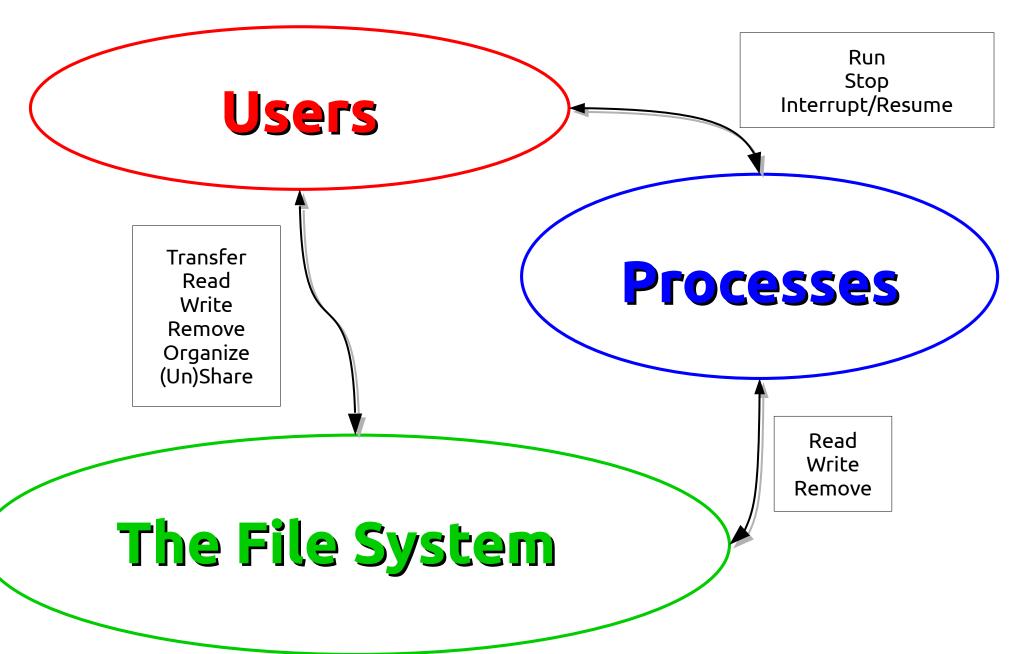
How do I:

- Connect (myself) to the server?
- Transfer my files holding the data on the server?
- Launch the program?
- Specify where to find the **files** with the data it will process?
- Specify where to write the **files** with the results it will generate?
- Organize all these files in folders not to get lost later on?
- Run several programs "simultaneously" (or several "instances" of the same program) with different parameters or input data?
- Stop an instance of the program if it runs for too long?
- {Share|protect} my files containing input data or results {with my colleagues| from my competitors}?





Linux initiation | Key Concepts







Linux for Beginners | Outline

- 1 Purpose of an Operating System why Linux?
- 2 Establishing a connection and transferring files
- 3 The Command Line Interface
- 4 The File System
- 5 Manipulating File Contents
- 6 Users, Groups and Access Control
- 7 Processes





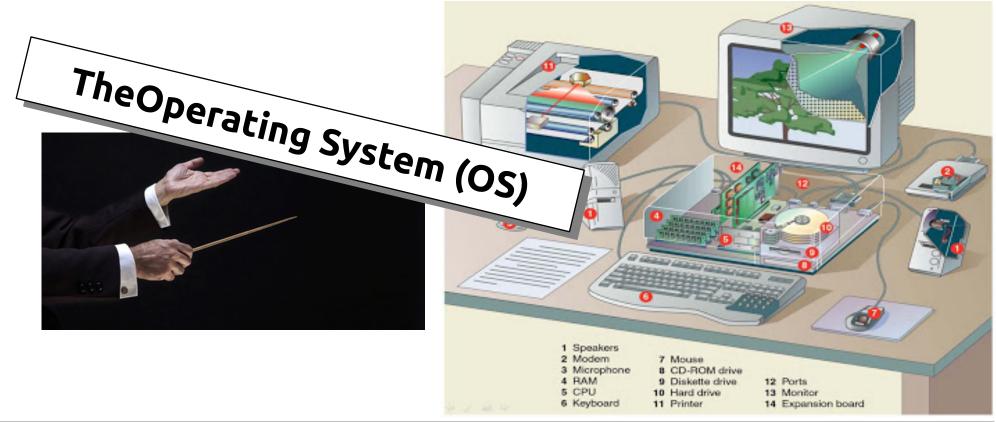
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Purpose of an Operating System



An OS is a "privileged" program run when the machine is switched on and that:

- Loads other programs in memory (RAM),
- Allocates the resources (memory, CPU time, disk space) they request,
- Handles their communications (input/output) with peripheral devices (screen, keyboard, mouse, network, printer...)
- Halts their execution
- Reclaims the allocated resources.





Why Linux?

- Preemptive multitasking & multi-user system
 - Durability & stability with a track record back to 1994
- Open-source and free (as in beer)
 - Its code can be freely copied, modified and redistributed
- Offering a vast software catalogue :
 - Office suites: LibreOffice
 - Internet tools: browsers (Firefox, Chrome), e-mail programs (Thunderbird, Evolution)
 - Multimedia: audio/video playback tools (VLC, Totem)
 - Graphics: image manipulation (Gimp), 3D modeling (Blender)
 - Software development: languages (Python, Java, C/C++...), environments (Eclipse,
 IDLE, PyDev, DDD)
- Scientific disciplines included :
 - Bioinformatics : blast, emboss, phylip, mafft, clustal, trimal...





Linux Distributions



A Linux distribution includes:

- Some flavour of the Linux kernel.
- A portfolio of prepackaged software
- Administration tools facilitating the installation and update of these packages.

















- On a technical level :
 - The packaging format used to package(!) software.
 - The tools to administer these packages.
- Business model wise :
 - Technical Support: community-based vs. commercial.
 - The licenses for the software they provide.







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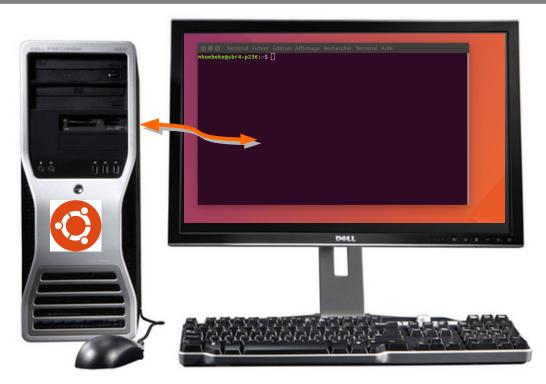
Connecting | The Terminal

The Terminal:

• A means to "communicate" with **a machine** relying on a **command line** in the context of a **session**

Use Case 1: Local Sessions

• Type commands (programs) that will run (use memory, CPU and disk space) on **your workstation**



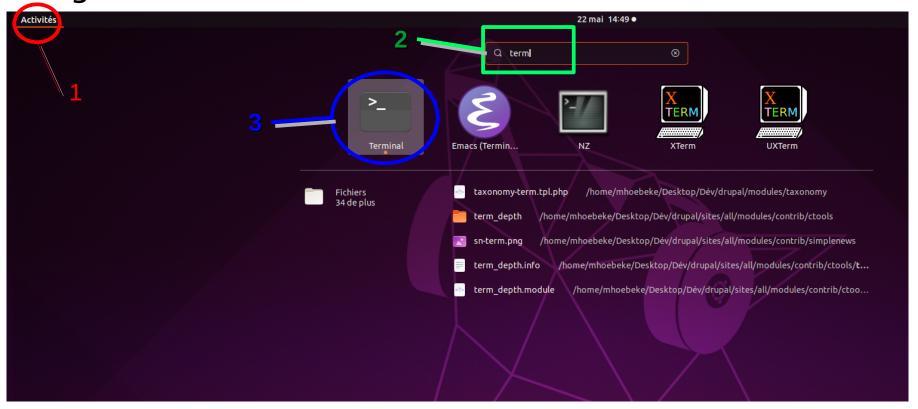




Connecting | Local Sessions

Opening a local session(on a workstation running Ubuntu):

- Using the keyboard: Ctrl+Alt+T
- Using the mouse:

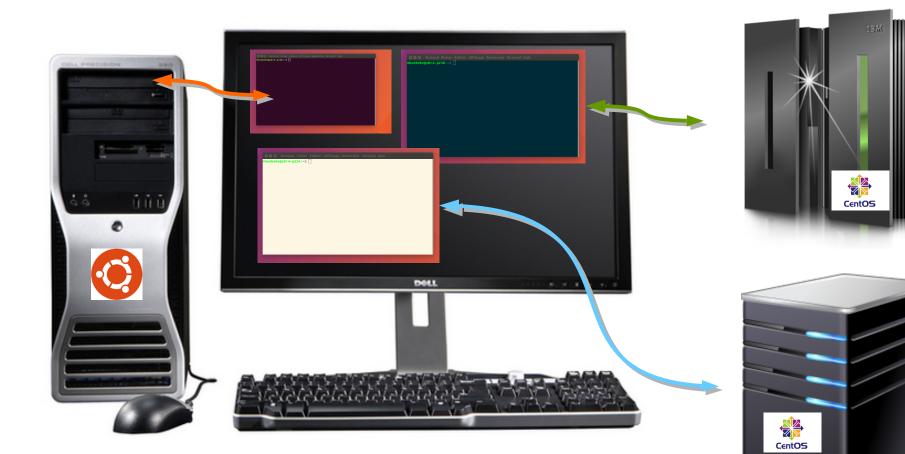






Remote Sessions:

- To work on a machine accessible through the network
- Potentially opening additional windows on the remote machine



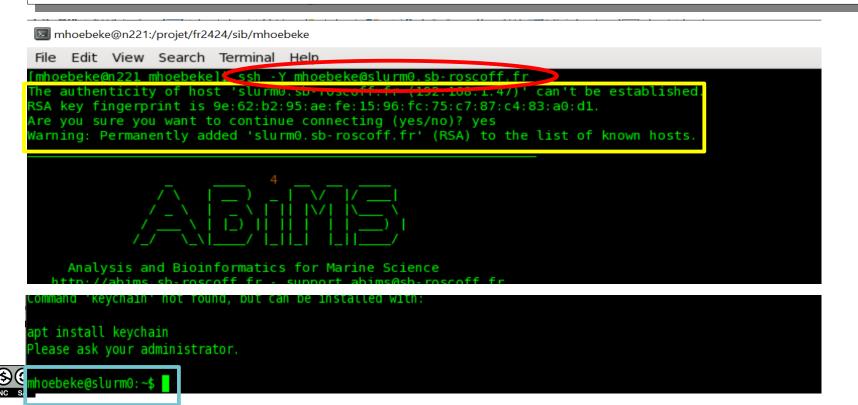




Using the Secure (SSH) Shell Protocol:

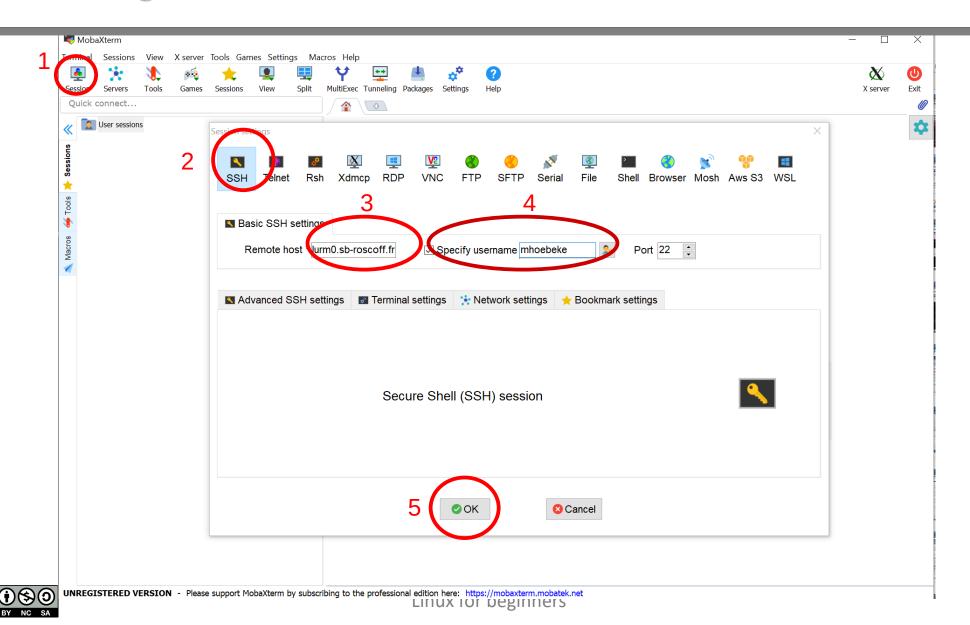
- Encrypted (secure) communications protocol opening a channel allowing information exchange between two machines.
- Requires knowledge of:
 - The name (or address) of the remote machine,
 - The user name (login) on the remote machine.

Using SSH from a local terminal



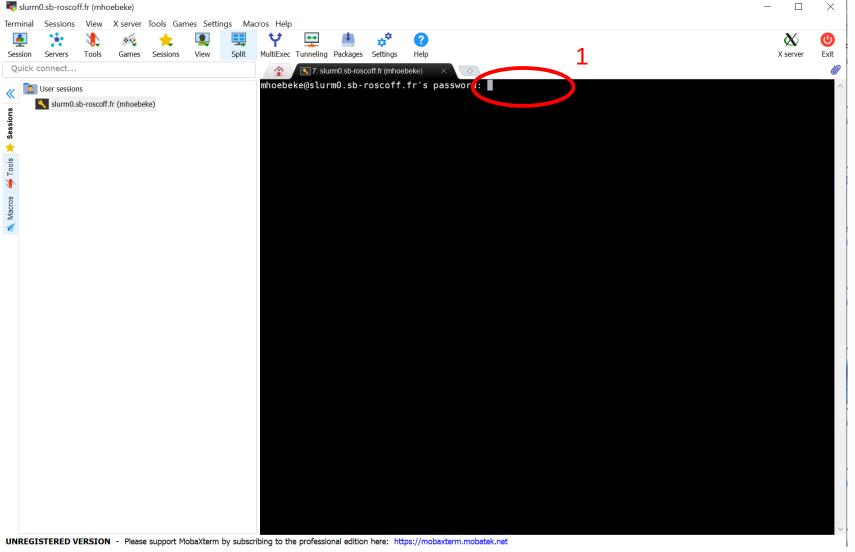


Using SSH on a Windows workstation with MobaXTerm





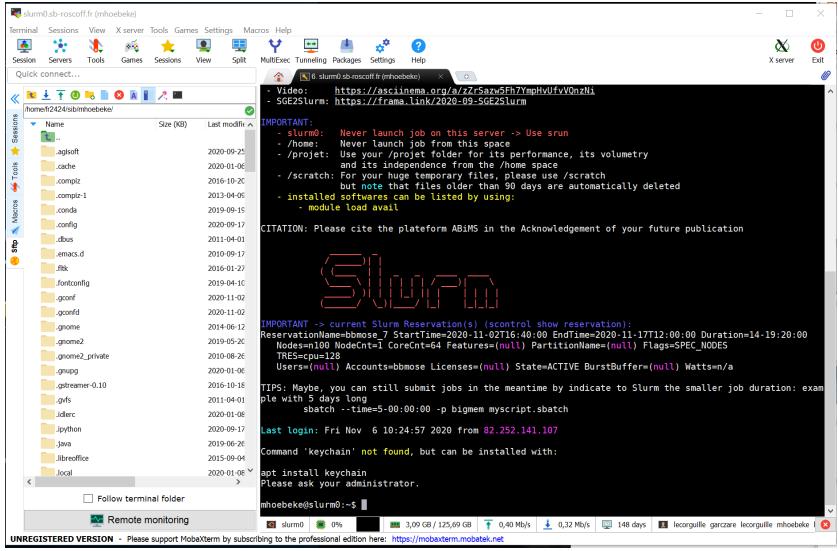
Using SSH on a Windows workstation with MobaXTerm







Using SSH on a Windows workstation with MobaXTerm

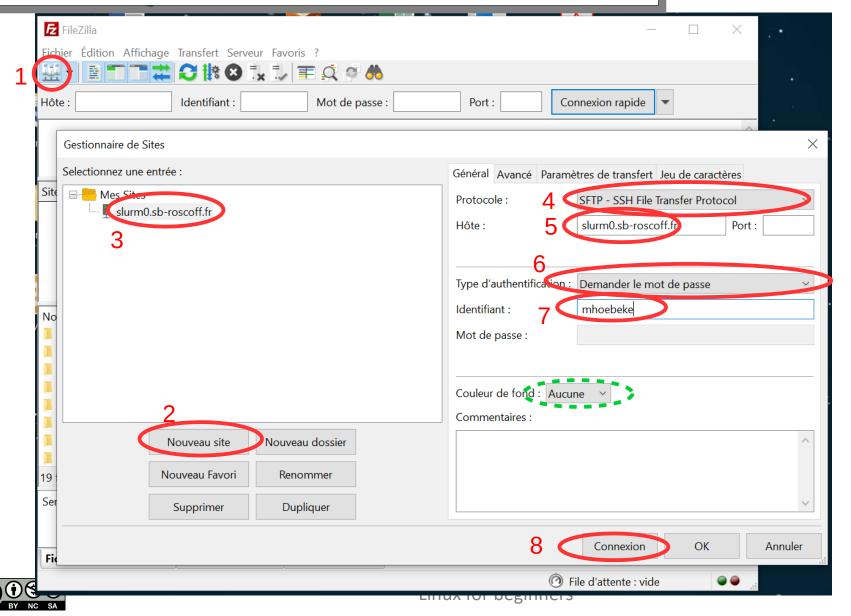






File Transfer using FileZilla

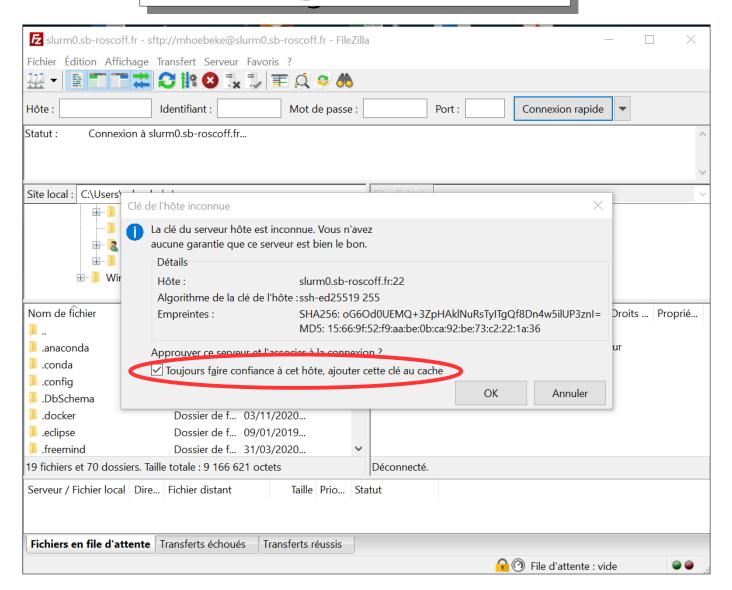
Defining the connection parameters Establishing the connection





File Transfer using FileZilla

Validating the connection

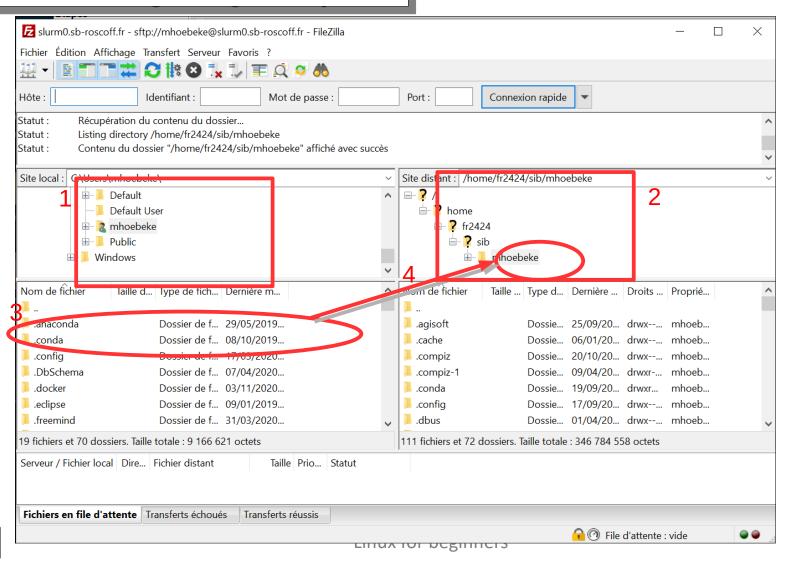






File Transfer using FileZilla

Selecting the source folder Selecting the destination folder Selecting the file(s) to transfer Transfer through *drag* 'n *drop*

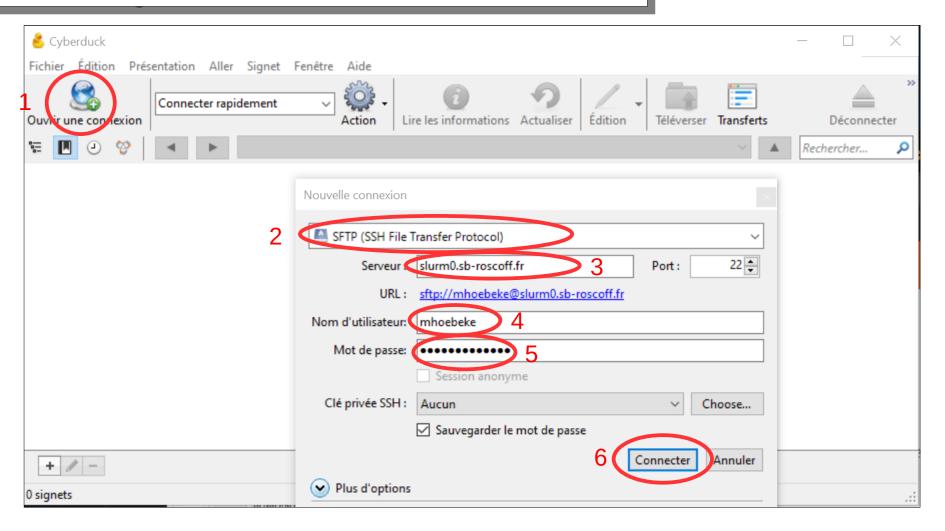






File Transfer using Cyberduck

Defining the connection parameters Establishing the connection

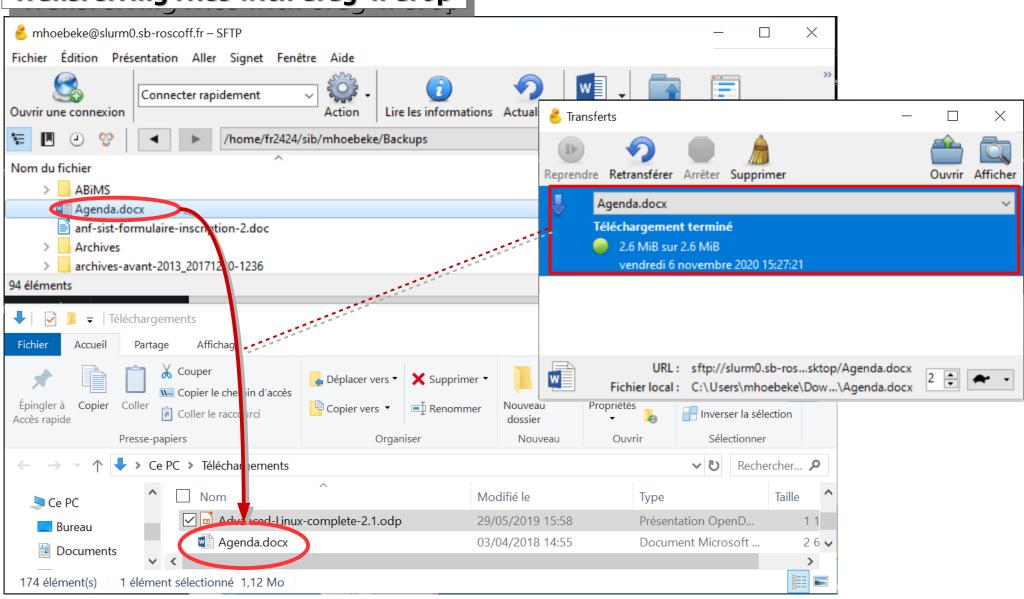






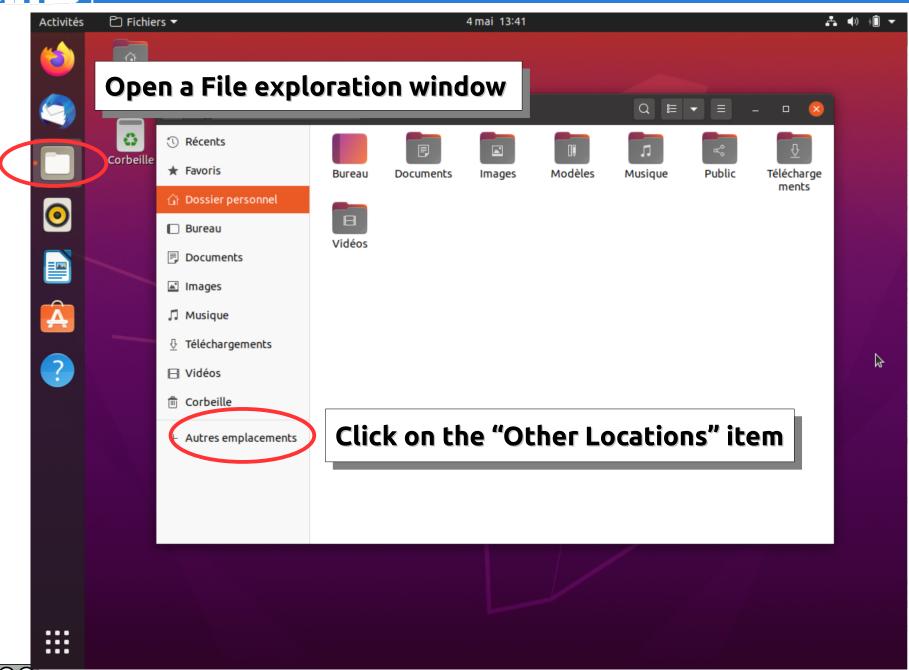
File Transfer using Cyberduck

Transferring files with drag 'n drop

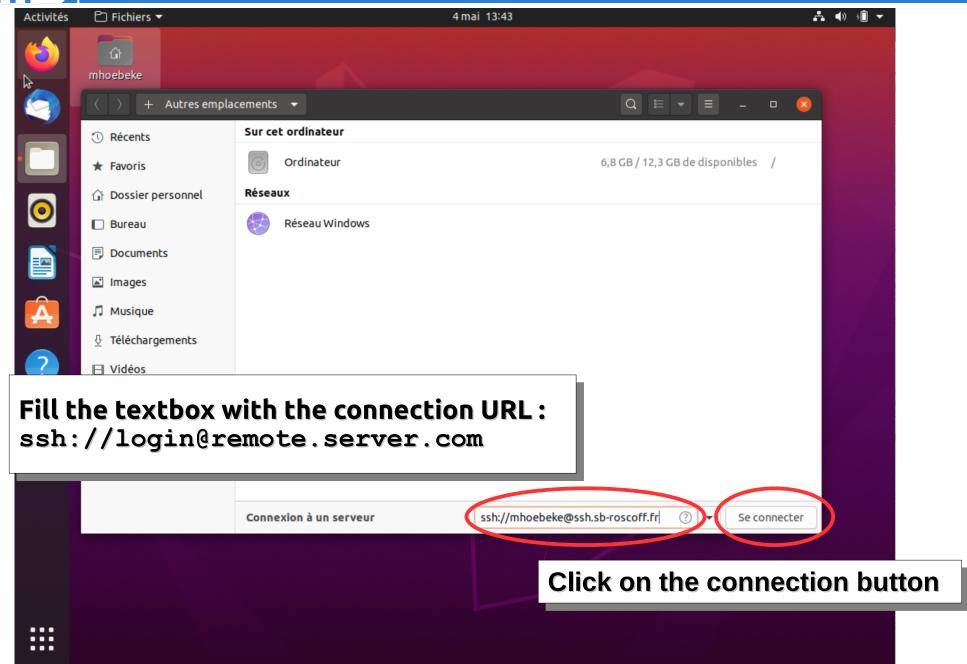




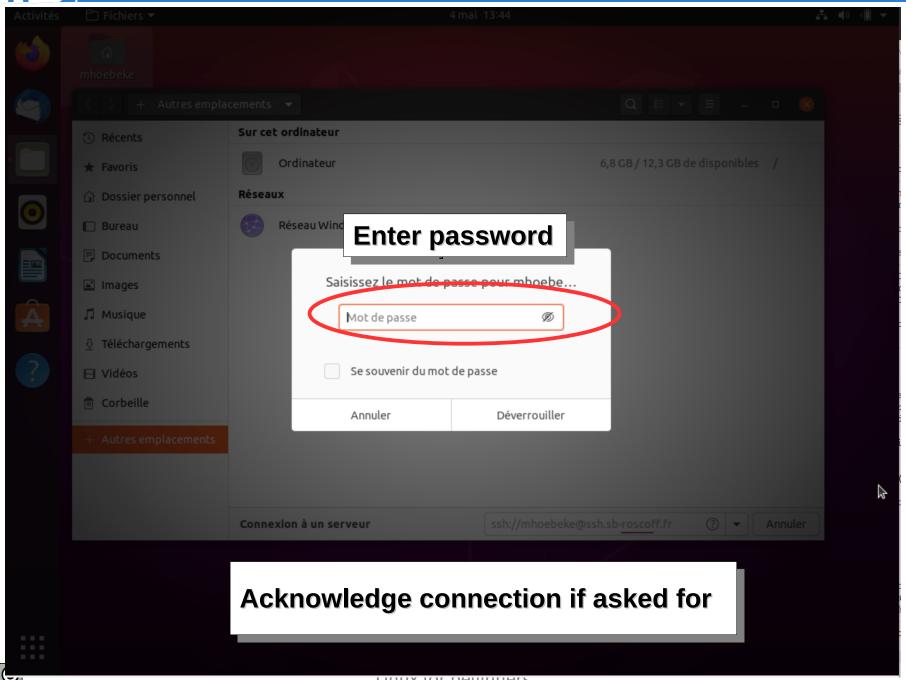




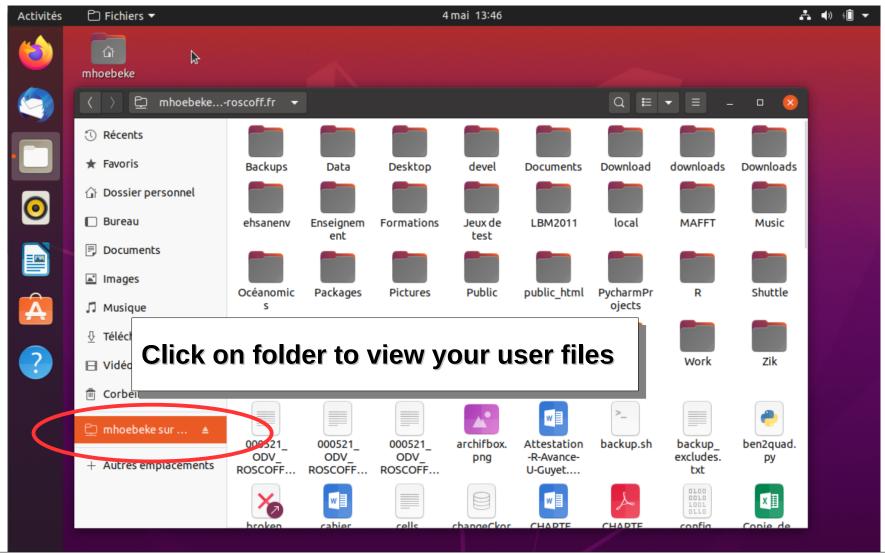












Use the ordinary copy/paste/drag/drop between local files and remote files.





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Structure of the Command Line

[stage01@n221 ~] \$ head -n 20 insulin.fas #print the first 20 lines

- The *prompt*: displays the current user's login (stage01), the host (or machine) name (nz), the current directory (working directory) (~)
 - **head** The name of the program to run (first word following the prompt)
 - A command option (-n) possibly with an associated value (20).
 - **insulin.fas** A command *argument*
 - # print (...) Comments (ignored by the command)
 - The space character is used to separate the various fields of the command line.
 - The character case (upper/lower) is important (head is not the same as HEAD)
 - Each command has its own set of arguments and options
 - The Enter key (\blacktriangleleft) is used to run the program





The Command Line | Built-in Help

Each (self respecting) command is documented

To display a short documentation on how to use a command, it is possible to use the **help** or **-h** options

```
[stage01@n221~]$ ls --help
Utilisation : ls [OPTION]... [FICHIER]...
Afficher des renseignements sur les FICHIERs (du répertoire actuel par défaut).
```

To get a more detailed documentation, it is possible to use the **man** (i.e. **man**ual) command Giving it as an argument the name of the command for which to display the documentation.





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Le système de fichiers | Utilité & concepts de base

In most Operating Systems, data are stored in **files** (text, images, tables, sequences, measurement series....). Quickly, the number of files increases and it becomes necessary to organize them to avoid getting lost. This is done by grouping them in **folders or directories**. Folders can be stored in other folders, which in turn can be stored in other folders, which in turn can be stored in other folders.



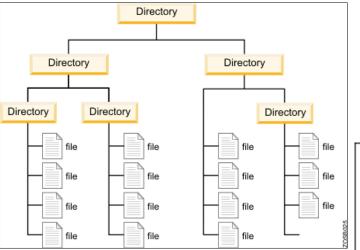




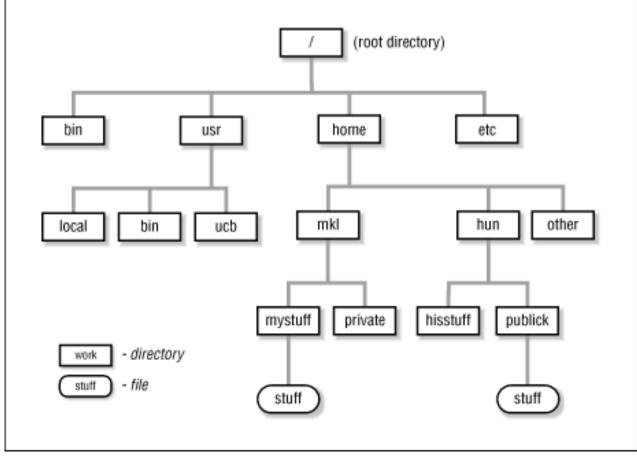


The File System | The Directory Tree

The Concept



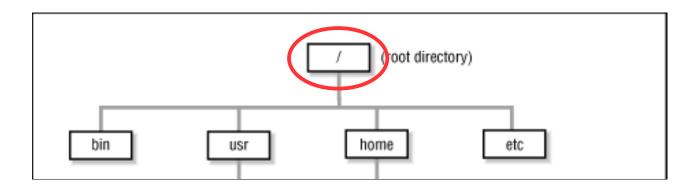
The way it has been implemented in Linux (Unix)



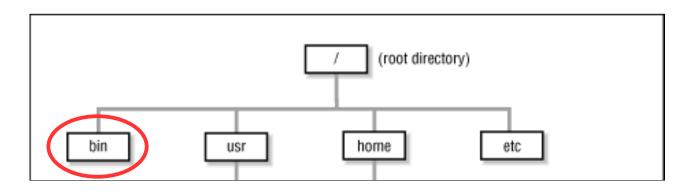




The File System | Some important directories



Slash or root directory: the **unique** (top level) entry point for the whole file system. A *path* leading to a file or a directory can always be specified starting from the root directory

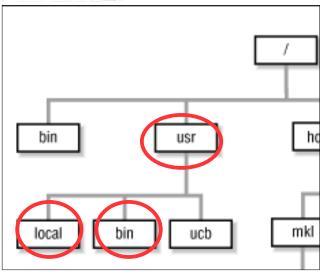


/bin : directory containing the major part of system commands.





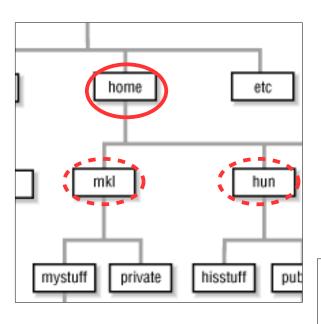
The File System | Some important directories



/usr: directory containing sub-directories with "user" commands.

/usr/bin: directory with frequently used commands (not as important to run the system as those in /bin).

/usr/local: directory with subdirectories containing tools installed on this specific machine (in particular /usr/local/bin)



/home: top level directory of the user data directory tree.

Its organization depends on the number of users having an account on the machine :

- few users (on workstations) : each users subdirectory is located directly in */home*.
- many users : user subdirectories are located in sub(sub(sub))folders.

At the SBR: the organisation matches the research unit and team layout, as in: /home/fr2424/sib/mhoebeke.
The user directories are accessible on all (Linux) machines of the campus.





The File System | Useful directories

/tmp: a directory where anyone can read and write files (but, only a file's creator has the rights to remove her own stuff). Handy to share data with colleagues **on the same machine** (but beware the volume of data).

SBR Specifics

/shared/projects: toplevel directory for project directories, destined to hold project data than needs to be backed-up (initial data sets, final results).



/shared/projects/stage/stageXY: the main place you'll be working in today

/projet: toplevel directory of a tree mimicking the **/home** (unit/team/user) directory tree, legacy directory layout for project data, slowly migrated to the **/shared/projects** layout.



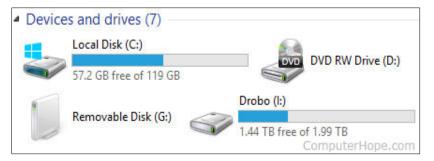
/scratch or /scratch2: toplevel directory of a directory tree mimicking the /home (unit/team/user) tree destined to hold "work" data such as those generated by ongoing computations, and not needing backups. "Old" files are automatically removed after a certain inactivity delay.





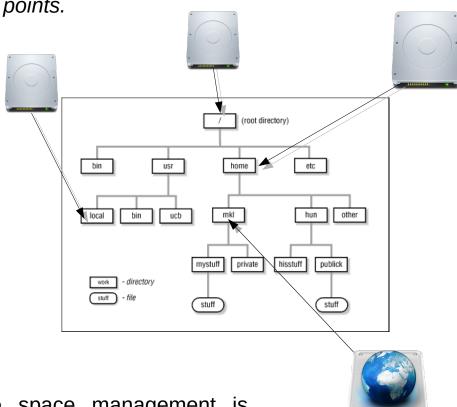
The File Systems | So where are the actual disks?

Windows-like systems define a single letter for each storage device (hard disk, DVD reader/writer, USB key, nerwork drive), generating a **non-unique top level directory tree.**



In order to use a file, one has to know on which drive (letter) it is physically located. Disk space extension by adding new disks leads to the definition of new letters. Moving data between disks may entail application reconfiguration.

UNIX/Linux like systems associate all devices (not only storage devices), both local and remote, to directories in the *single rooted directory* tree, through so-called *mount points*.



Storage space management is transparent (for the user, at least).





Navigating in the File System

Command execution takes place in the context of a **session**, defining at all times a **current user** (the user running the command) and a **current directory** or **working directory** (the directory where the command has been typed in).

When starting a new session, the current directory is always the **home directory**.

Who am I (who is the current user)?

```
[stage01@n221 ~]$ whoami
stage01
```

Where am I (what is the current directory)?

```
[stage01@n221 ~]$ pwd  # print working directory
/home/fr2424/stage/stage01
```

What can be found "here" (what are the contents of the current directory)?

```
[stage01@n221 ~]$ ls # list (contents of working directory)
Bureau Documents Images Modèles Musique Public
Téléchargements Vidéos
```



To change the current directory (a.k.a "move around" in the directory tree)

stage01@n221 ~1\$ pwd # print working directory
/home/fr2424/stage/stage01
//
home
stage
stage01
stage02
stage03





To change the current directory (a.k.a "move around" in the directory tree)

stage01@n221 ~1\$ pwd # print working directory /home/fr2424/stage/stage01 home fr2424 stage stage01 stage02 stage03 stage010n221 ~1\$ pwd home/fr2424/stage/stage03

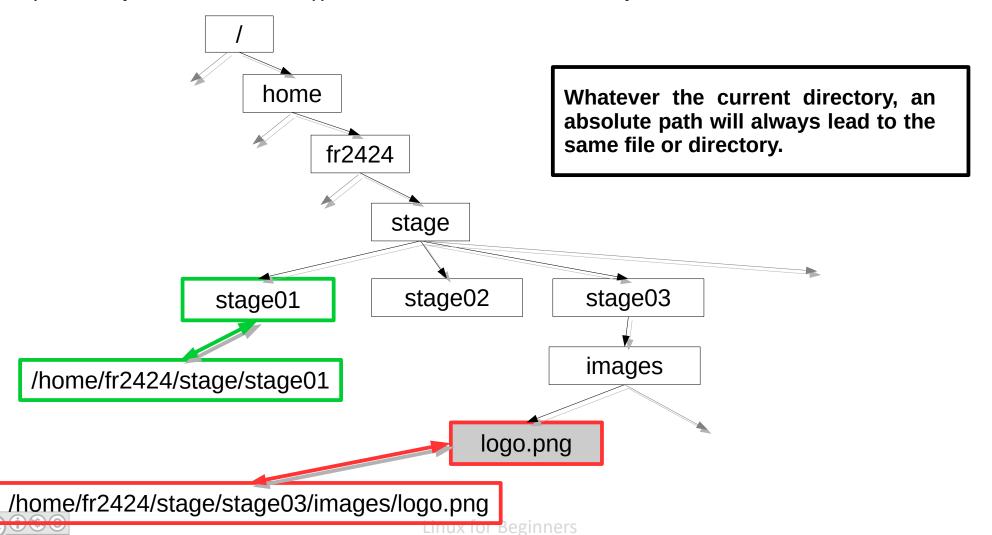




Absolute *paths*

Referring to files and directories located in the file system, as command arguments or options, is done through paths.

Absolute paths are built starting from the root directory and adding the subdirectories one by one separated by a slash character (/), until the desired file or directory is reached.

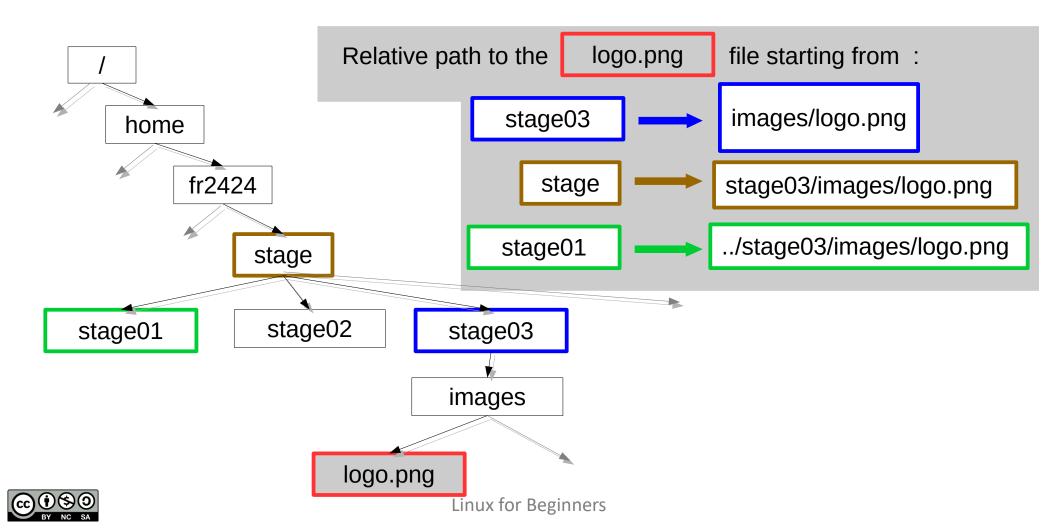




Relative paths

Relative paths are built with the current directory as starting point and traversing the directory tree upwards or downwards, until the desired directory or file is reached. The successive path components are separated with slash (/) characters, and :

- On each **upward step** in the tree, two dots (...) are added to the path.
- On each **downward step** in the tree, the name of the directory is added to the path.





A (provisional) conclusion

A shortcut to refer to the current directory:

- The dot ("." character) always refers to the current directory

```
[stage01@n221 ~]$ pwd
/home/fr2424/stage/stage01
[stage01@n221 ~]$ cd . # ???
[stage01@n221 ~]$ pwd
/home/fr2424/stage/stage01
```

Use case: run a command file located in the current directory: ./mycommand

A shortcut for the home directory:

- The tilde ("~" character) always refers to the home directory of the current user

```
[stage01@n221 ~]$ pwd
/home/fr2424/stage/stage03
[stage01@n221 ~]$ cd ~ # change to home dir
[stage01@n221 ~]$ pwd
/home/fr2424/stage/stage01
```





A shortcut to "your" directory (containing the files you'll be using today).

```
[stage01@n221 ~]$ pwd
/home/fr2424/stage/stage03
[stage01@n221 ~]$ cdmystuff # change to dir for todays work
[stage01@n221 ~]$ pwd
/shared/projects/stage/stage03
```

Teaser: cdmystuff is a so-called alias which we'll learn to define at the end of the day.





Listing the contents of a directory: 1s

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls
                                    # no arguments : current dir
                 Images Modèles Musique Public Téléchargements
Bureau
       Documents
Vidéos
[stage11@n221 ~] $ ls /tmp/Linux-Initiation # absolute path
acteur.csv cours insulin.fas insulin vs nt.blast tmp
[stage11@n221 ~] $ ls .. # relative dir path (parent dir)
                           stage1 stage17 stage24 stage31
common
                   stage02
                                                            stage6
                           stage10 stage18
common.linux-avance
                   stage03
                                           stage25
                                                    stage32
                                                            stage7
(\ldots)
```

"Hidden" files (and directories)

By default, ls does not display files having names starting with a dot. The -a (all) option needs to be added for them to be included (the la shortcut can also be used instead of ls).

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls -a
                                        # also show hidden files
                      Documents
                                     . kde
                                              Public
                                                               .zshrc
             Bureau
                                    .local
                                              Téléchargements
              .cache
                      .emacs
.bash logout
              .compiz
                                    Modèles
                                              Vidéos
                      .gconf
```





Listing files matching a particular pattern

Using the * character in an argument of 1s restricts the list to the files and directories whose names match the pattern formed by the argument:

- image*: all files starting with the letters image (image-001, images-des-vacances, imagettes)
- *seq* : all files having the letters seq in their names (sequences, mes-sequences, maisequidon)
- * : each and every file (no restriction)

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls Linux-Initiation/*ins*
Linux-Initiation/insulin.fas Linux-Initiation/insulin_vs_nt.blast
```

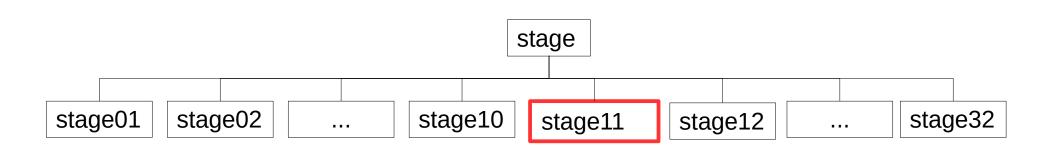




Using autocompletion

To avoid to have to type in long filenames it is possible to use the [TAB] key. Pressing the [TAB] key once launches a file name (or directory) lookup to determine which ones start with what has already been typed.

- -If there is a single match, it will be added to the command line,
- -If there are several matches another press of the [TAB] key will list them all.



```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls ../stage
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls ../stage
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls ../stage[TAB]
stage01/ stage07/ stage12/ stage18/ stage23/ stage29/ stage34/ stage7/
stage02/ stage08/ stage13/ stage19/ stage24/ stage3/ stage35/ stage8/
stage03/ stage09/ stage14/ stage2/ stage25/ stage30/ stage36/ stage9/
(...)
```





Displaying the contents of a whole directory (sub)tree with a single command

Through the ls command, to which the -R (recursive) option is added:

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls -R Linux-Initiation
Linux-Initiation/:
acteur.csv cours insulin.fas insulin_vs_nt.blast tmp
Linux-Initiation/cours:
Linux-Initiation/tmp:
```

With the tree command:





Organising data by creating subdirectories

With the mkdir (make directory) command. By default, only the last directory of the path given as argument is created:

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ mkdir Linux-Initiation/tmp/essais
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls -R Linux-Initiation
Linux-Initiation/:
acteur.csv cours insulin.fas insulin_vs_nt.blast tmp
Linux-Initiation/cours:
Linux-Initiation/tmp:
Linux-Initiation/tmp/essais:
```

The -p option enables the creation of a whole subtree in a single step:

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ mkdir -p Linux-Initiation/exercices/ex1/data
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls -R Linux-Initiation/
(...)
Linux-Initiation/exercices:
ex1
Linux-Initiation/exercices/ex1:
data
Linux-Initiation/exercices/ex1/data:
```







• Create the following directory structure in your project directory:

finalresult
input
cmd
fasta
script
tmp

Check it has been correctly created by displaying it :





• Create the following directory structure in your project

directory:

Solution

```
$ cdmystuff
$ mkdir myproject
$ cd myproject
$ mkdir finalresult input script tmp
$ cd input
$ mkdir cmd fasta
```

myproject
finalresult
input
cmd
fasta
script
tmp

Check it has been correctly created by displaying it :
 Solution

```
$ tree
$ tree -L 1
$ tree -L 2
```





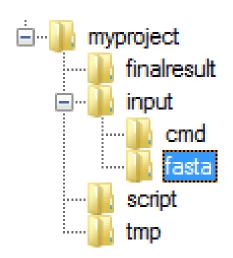


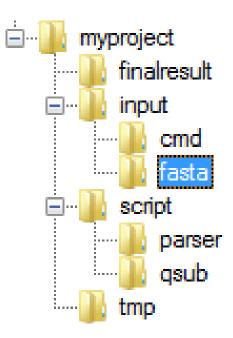
Using a single command line for each of the following items:

Return to your project directory

Change to the fasta directory

• Create a parser directory in the script directory









Using a single command line for each of the following items:

Return to your project *directory* Solution

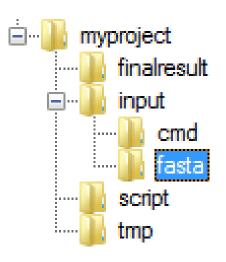
```
$ cdmystuff
```

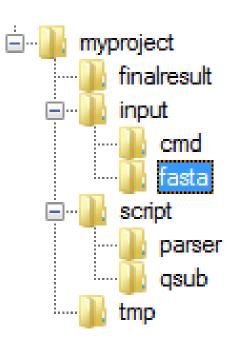
Change to the fasta directory
 Solution

```
$ cd myproject/input/fasta
```

Create a parser directory in the script directory
 Solution

```
$ mkdir ../../script/parser
```









Copying data

The **cp** (copy) command copies one or more files, and even whole directory trees. It is used as follows: **cp src dest** where **src** is the path to the already existing data (the source) and **dest** is the path the destination location.

Ex. 1: copying a single file

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ cp acteur.csv acteur_bak.csv
```

Ex. 2 : copying a single file in another directory

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ cp acteur.csv tmp # keep same filename in DEST
[stage11@n221 ~]$ cp acteur.csv tmp/stars.csv # change filename
```

Ex. 3: copying a set of files matchin a pattern to another directory

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ cp insulin* tmp
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls tmp
insulin.fas insulin_vs_nt.blast
```

Ex. 4 : copying a complete directory structure using the $-\mathbf{r}$ (recursive) option

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ cp -r ../stage10/exercices/solutions .
```





Move or rename data

The mv (move) command, depending on its arguments, either renames or moves one or more files, and possibily whole directories.

It is used as follows: mv *SRC DEST* where **SRC** is the path to the already existing data (the source data) and **DEST** either the new name for the file or the directory in which it has to be moved.

Ex. 1 : renaming a single file

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ mv acteur.csv liste_acteurs.csv
```

Ex. 2: moving a single file to an (already existing) directory

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ mv acteur.csv tmp # keep same filename in DEST
[stage11@n221 ~]$ mv acteur.csv tmp/stars.csv # change filename
```

Ex. 3: moving a set of files matching a pattern to another (existing) directory

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ mv insulin* tmp
```

Ex. 4: moving a complete directory structure

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ mv tmp/work/last_stage/output ./finalresults
```

- If ./finalresults already exists, the output y directory will be moved into it.
- if ./finalresults doesn't exist, it will be created and will contain all the data previously located in output





Deleting data

The **rm** (remove) command deletes th file(s) whose path(s) are given as argument.



What is deleted with rm cannot be restored.

(jamais, never, jamas, nie, nooit, gwech ebet, någonsin, никогда, 曾經)

Ex. 1: removing a single file

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ rm acteur_bak.csv
```

Ex. 2 : removing a set of files matching a pattern

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ rm insulin*
```

Ex. 3 : removing a complete directory structure using the $-\mathbf{r}$ (recursive) option

```
[stage11@n221 ~] $ rm -r Linux-Initiation/tmp
```

Ex. 4 : Armageddon : forced (-f) removal of a whole directory structure

```
[stage11@n221 ~] $ rm -rf ~/tmp/worthless_files
```

Special case: removal of an empty directory with the rmdir command

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ rmdir ~/tmp/empty_directory
```

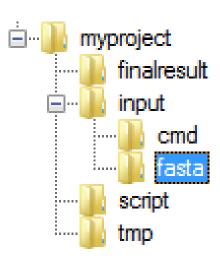






Copy the insulin.fas file in the fasta directory

Go to your project directory



Copy the file to its destination directory



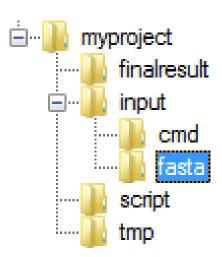


Copy the insulin. fas file in the fasta directory

Go to your project directory

Solution

\$ cdmystuff



Copy the file to its destination directory

Solution

\$ cp Linux-Initiation/insulin.fas myproject/input/fasta

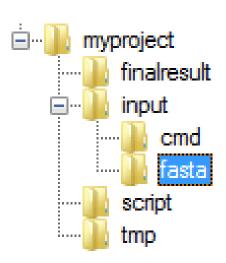






After making myproject/finalresult your current directory

 Move the insulin.fas file from the input/fasta directory to the tmp directory



• Remove the **tmp** directory and all its contents



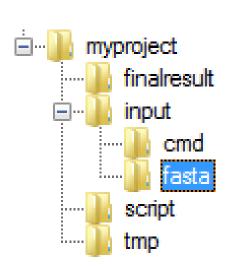


After making myproject/finalresult your current directory

 Move the insulin.fas file from the input/fasta directory to the tmp directory

Solution

```
$ cdmystuff
$ cd myproject/finalresult
$ mv ../input/fasta/insulin.fas ../tmp
```



Remove the tmp directory and all its contents

Solution

```
$ cdmystuff
$ rm -r myproject/tmp
```





Linux for Beginners | Outline

- 1 Purpose of an Operating System why Linux?
- 2 Establishing a connection and transferring files
- 3 The Command Line Interface
- **4** The File System
- 5 Manipulating File Contents
- 6 Users, Groups and Access Control
- 7 Processes





A few words about file names (1)

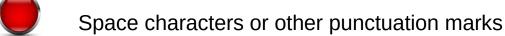
Linux is **very** permissive about valid characters in file names (space characters, accents...). It's safer to avoid using them widely. Some recommendations:



Uppercase & lowercase characters; digits; dash; underscore; dot.



Characters with accents or other diacritical signs



The "case of the space" character: it can be despecialized with the backslash (\) or the double quotes (")

```
[n00b@n221 ~]$ mkdir nouveau dossier # creates 2 dirs, :(
[n00b@n221 ~]$ ls .
./:
nouveau
dossier
```

```
[tux@n221 ~]$ mkdir nouveau\ dossier # creates 1 dir, gg
[tux@n221 ~]$ mkdir "nouveau dossier 2" # id.
[tux@n221 ~]$ ls .
./:
nouveau dossier
Nouveau dossier 2
```





A few words about file names (2)

Linux doesn't put any requirements on file name extensions (.txt, .csv, .pdf, .html, etc.). Any extension can be given to any type of file.

IT IS STRONGLY RECOMMENDED TO REMAIN CONSISTENT

Linux uses other recipes to determine the nature of a file's contents (cf. the file command).





Determining the nature of a file (1)

The **file** command displays a hypothesis about a file's nature. It examines the beginning of the file and compares this *fingerprint* to an internal "database" of fingerprints.

Ex. 1 & 2 : Application specific files.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ file Linux-Initiation.pdf
Linux-Initiation-2017.pdf: PDF document, version 1.4
```

```
[stage11@n221 ~] file Linux-Initiation.pptx
Linux-Initiation-2017.pptx: Microsoft PowerPoint 2007+
```

Ex. 3 & 4 : Compressed archive files.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ file Linux-Initiation-supports.zip
Linux-Initiation-2017-supports.zip: Zip archive data, at
least v2.0 to extract
```

```
[stage11@n221 ~] file Linux-Initiation-supports.tar.gz
Linux-Initiation-2017-supports.tar.gz: gzip compressed data,
last modified: Sat May 7 23:56:36 2017, from Unix
```





Determining the nature of a file (2)

Ex. 5 & 6: Executable files (binary commands or series of commands in a text file)

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ file /usr/bin/file
/usr/bin/file: ELF 64-bit LSB shared object, x86-64, version 1 (SYSV),
dynamically linked, interpreter /lib64/ld-linux-x86-64.so.2, for GNU/Linux
2.6.32, BuildID[sha1]=a4f09f32eb214a3f9435484fa01d54c939bcf30c, stripped
```

[stage11@n221 ~]\$ file monscript.sh # textfile with commands
monscript.sh: POSIX shell script, ASCII text executable

Ex. 7 & 8: Text files

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ file insulin.fas
acteur.csv: ASCII text, with CRLF line terminators
[stage11@n221 ~]$ file acteur.csv
```

Ex. 9 : Files with data in a format unknown to the **file** command.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ file random.dat
random.dat: data
```





Examining the contents of a (text) file

The cat command displays the entire contents of a file.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ cat acteur.csv
First Name;Last Name;Age
Chuck;Norris;70
Sylvester;Stallone;64
Steven;Seagal;59
```

The **head** command displays the first (10) lines of a file. **head** -n displays the n first lines.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ head -2 acteur.csv
First Name; Last Name; Age
Chuck; Norris; 70
```

The tail command displays the (10) last lines of a file. tail -n displays the n last ones.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ tail -2 acteur.csv
Sylvester; Stallone; 64
Steven; Seagal; 59
```





Interactively examining the contents of a (text) file

The more command displays the contents of a file "one page at a time". The space bar moves from the current page to the next; and "q" is used to quit.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ more insulin.fas
>gi|163659904|ref|NM_000618.3| Homo sapiens insulin-like growth factor
1 (somatomedin C) (IGF1), transcript variant 4, mRNA
TTTTGTAGATAAATGTGAGGATTTTCTCTAAATCCCTCTTCTGTTTGCTAAATCTCACTGTCACTGCTAA
(...)
--More-- 4%
```

The less command also displays the contents of a file "one page at a time". The spacebar moves from the current page to the next; and "q" is used to quit. The 1 and 1 arrows allow to move back and forth in the file.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ less insulin.fas
>gi|163659904|ref|NM_000618.3| Homo sapiens insulin-like growth factor
1 (somatomedin C) (IGF1), transcript variant 4, mRNA
TTTTGTAGATAAATGTGAGGATTTTCTCTAAATCCCTCTTCTGTTTGCTAAATCTCACTGTCACTGCTAA
(...)
insulin.fas
```

Both more and less allow to search for a text string in the file. This is done by typing slash (/) followed by the text to search for, and then typing Enter Ex: /variant





Searching for information in a file (1)

The grep command takes two arguments: a *pattern* and a *file name*; it displays every line of the file containing the pattern.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ grep transcript insulin.fas
>qi|163659904|ref|NM_000618.3| Homo sapiens insulin-like growth factor 1 (somatomedin C) (IGF1),
transcript variant 4, mRNA
>qi|163659900|ref|NM_001111284.1| Homo sapiens insulin-like growth factor 1 (somatomedin C) (IGF1),
transcript variant 2, mRNA
>qi|163659895|ref|NM_001111276.1| Mus musculus insulin-like growth factor 1 (Igf1), transcript
variant 5, mRNA
>qi|163659893|ref|NM_001111275.1| Mus musculus insulin-like growth factor 1 (Igf1), transcript
variant 4, mRNA
>qi|163659891|ref|NM_010512.4| Mus musculus insulin-like growth factor 1 (Igf1), transcript
variant 4, mRNA
```

By default, grep is case sensitive. To override this behaviour, the -i (ignorecase) option can be used.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ grep TRANSCRIPT insulin.fas # returns nothing
[stage11@n221 ~]$ grep -i TRANSCRIPT insulin.fas
>gi|163659904|ref|NM_000618.3| Homo sapiens insulin-like growth factor 1 (somatomedin C) (IGF1),
transcript variant 4, mRNA
>gi|163659900|ref|NM_001111284.1| Homo sapiens insulin-like growth factor 1 (somatomedin C) (IGF1),
transcript variant 2, mRNA
(...)
```





Searching for information in a file (2)

grep also allows to count the lines matching the pattern with the -c (count) option.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ grep -c transcript insulin.fas
```

As is the case for almost every command, options for grep can be combined.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ grep -c -i TRANSCRIPT insulin.fas
```

By default, grep can also display the lines **not containing** the pattern, thanks to the -v (invert) option.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ grep -v -c -i TRANSCRIPT insulin.fas
511
```

grep can be used to search for a pattern in all the files of a directory tree, with the -r (recursive) option. In this configuration, the second argument has to be the name of a directory. The lines with the information about the patterns are then prefixed with the filename to which they belong.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ grep -r -c -i TRANSCRIPT .
./insulin_vs_nt.blast:144
./acteur.csv:0
./insulin.fas:5
```







Find two ways of displaying the first line of the acteur.csv file (using two different commands)

Find two ways to display the last three lines of the acteur.csv file (using two different commands) [Granted, one is quite tricky.]





Find two ways of displaying the first line of the acteur.csv file (using two different commands)

Solution

```
$ head -1 acteur.csv
$ grep First acteur.csv
```

Find two ways to display the last three lines of the acteur.csv file (using two different commands) [Granted, one is quite tricky.]

Solution

```
$ tail -3 acteur.csv
$ grep -v First acteur.csv
```

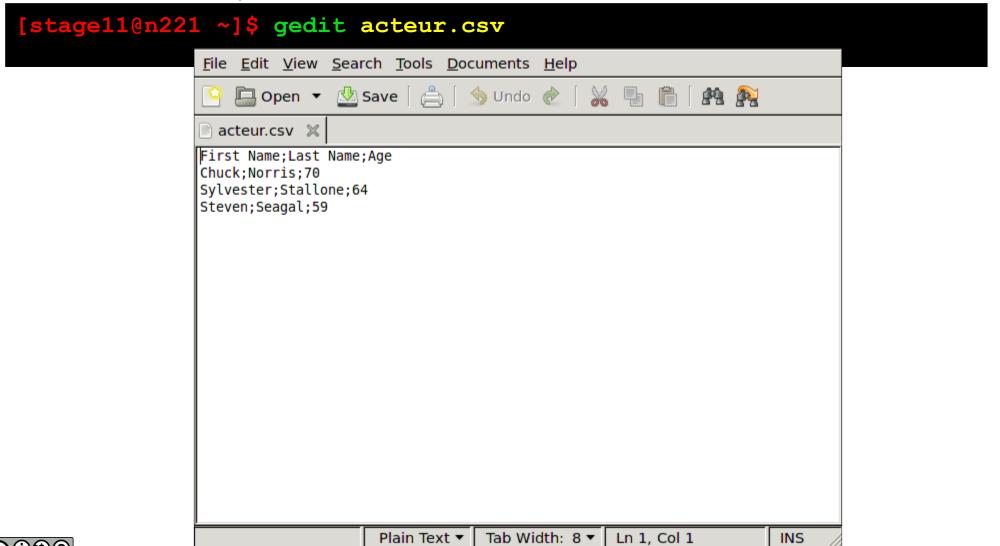






Changing the contents of a (text) file

The **gedit** command opens a window with a text editor.



Linux for beginners





Changing the contents of a (text) file

The nano command opens a text editor in the window of the active session.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ nano acteur.csv
                                         Fichier : acteur.csv
           GNU nano 2.7.4
         First Name;Last Name;Age
         Chuck;Norris;70
         Sylvester;Stallone;64
         Steven;Seagal;59
                         Lecture de 5 lignes (converties du format DOS)
         ^G Aide
                                   ^W Chercher
                                               ^K Couper
                                                            ^J Justifier ^C Pos. cur.
                                     Remplacer ^U Coller
         ^X Ouitter
                         Lire fich.^\
```





File management & Archiving

It is possible to determine the file size using the -1 (-h) options of the 1s command. The file size is displayed in the fifth column.

The wc (word count) command also displays information about the size of a file: line, word and character count. Using the -1 option restricts the output to the number of lines.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ wc_insulin_vs_nt.blast
622756 2377511 30025889 insulin_vs_nt.blast
[stage08@n221 ~]$ wc -1 insulin_vs_nt.blast
622756 insulin_vs_nt.blast
```





File management & Archiving

To determine the size of a directory (and all its contents), the du (disk usage) command is used, preferably with the -h (human readable) option.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ du -h .
64.0K ./tmp
4.0K ./cours
29M .
```

Adding the -s (summary) option displays the total volume occupied by the directory (and its contents).

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ du -s -h .
29M .
```





File management & Archiving

To determine how much disk space is available on a mount point (a disk partition), the \mathbf{df} command is used (which also comes with an $-\mathbf{h}$ option).

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ df -h
Filesystem
                                       Size
                                             Used Avail Use% Mounted on
                                      1008M
                                             750M
                                                   208M
                                                         79% /
                                             152M 327M
                                                         32% /boot
                                       504M
                                        32G
                                             541M
                                                    30G
                                                          2% /tmp
                                        16G
                                             9.5G
                                                   5.5G
                                                         64% /usr
                                       4.0G
                                             3.0G
                                                   795M
                                                         80% /usr/local
                                       247G
                                             210G
                                                    25G
                                                         90% /home/umr7139/mmaucture
                                       591G
                                             538G
                                                    24G
                                                         96% /home/umr7139/tccd
                                                         41% /home/umr7144/abice
                                       1.2T
                                             440G
                                                   636G
```

When specifying a directory as argument, **df** displays information about the mounted file system containing the directory.





File management & Archiving

Linux makes available different commands for compressing files, like gzip (older) or bzip2 (better compression, a little less portable between systems). By default gzip replaces the file whose name is given as argument with its compressed version and adds .gz to the file name (.bz2 for bzip2).

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ gzip insulin_vs_nt.blast
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ls -l -h insulin_vs_nt.blast.gz
-rw-r--r-- 1 stage08 stage 5.0M May 13 20:42 insulin_vs_nt.blast.gz

[stage08@n221 ~]$ bzip2 insulin_vs_nt.blast
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ls -l -h insulin_vs_nt.blast.bz2
-rw-r--r-- 1 stage08 stage 3.2M May 13 20:42 insulin_vs_nt.blast.bz2
```

Decompression is achieved with gunzip (for .gz files) or bunzip2 (for .bz2 files).

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ gunzip insulin_vs_nt.blast.gz
[stage08@n221 ~]$ bunzip2 insulin_vs_nt.blast.bz2
```

The compression ratio depends on the file contents: better for text files, quite low for already compressed data (images, sounds, videos).





File management & Archiving

Creating an archive containing several files is possible with the tar command.

Ex 1: Creation of an archive with the contents of the **Linux-Initiation** directory the **-c** option stands for "creation", the **-f** option allows to specify the file name of the archive file name just afterwards. The final argument is the name of the directory from which to build the archive.

```
[stage08@n221 ~] $ tar -cf Linux-Initiation.tap Linux-Initiation
```

tar doesn't modify the directory to archive in any way.

Ex 2: Extraction of all the files of the previously created archive: the $-\mathbf{x}$ option stands for "eXtraction", the $-\mathbf{f}$ option has the same meaning as above. The $-\mathbf{v}$ option activates the "verbose mode" displaying each file name as it is extracted.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ tar -xvf Linux-Initiation.tar
Linux-Initiation/
Linux-Initiation/tmp/
(...)
```

Ex 3: Listing the contents of an archive: the -t option ("toc") displays the list of files in an archive.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ tar -tf Linux-Initiation.tar
Linux-Initiation/
(...)
```

Ex 4: Extraction of a single file: the name of the file to be extracted is added as argument.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ tar -xvf Linux-Initiation.tar Linux-Initiation/insulin.fas Linux-Initiation/insulin.fas
```



File management & Archiving

The tar command can be asked to carry out "on the fly" (de-)compression. To use gzip for this, the -z option is added. To use bzip2, the -j option can be used.

Ex1.: On the fly compression/decompression with gzip.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ tar -czf Linux-Initiation.tar.gz Linux-Initiation
[stage08@n221 ~]$ file Linux-Initiation.tar.gz
Linux-Initiation.tar.gz: gzip compressed data (...)
[stage08@n221 ~]$ tar -xzf Linux-Initiation.tar.gz
```

Ex1.: On the fly compression/decompression with bzip2.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ tar -cjf Linux-Initiation.tar.bz2 Linux-Initiation
[stage08@n221 ~]$ file Linux-Initiation.tar.bz2
Linux-Initiation.tar.bz2: bzip2 compressed data (...)
[stage08@n221 ~]$ tar -xjf Linux-Initiation.tar.bz2
```





Using shortcuts: symbolic links

It is often handy to be able to access a set of files in a single directory, even if they are originally scattered in several directories. And to do so without copying any data.

Use case:

- -One of my directories, allsequences quontains a myriad of sequence files related to various organisms.
- -The file names hint to the organism to which the sequences they contain belong (human_seq*.fasta, mouse seq*.fasta, ecto seq*.fasta, etc.)
- -I wish to apply routines to these sequences whose parameters may depend on the organism. And I wish to group de result files in organism specific (a.k.a separate) directories (process_human/, process_mouse/, process_ecto/, etc.)
- -But I want to avoid copying the sequence data in these process */ directories.

A solution relies on the creation, in the $process_*/$ directories, of shortcuts to each sequence file belonging to a given organism, using the ln -s (link, symbolic) command.

Ex. 1: Creating a symbolic link for a single file: the first argument is the name of the existing file (or directory), and the second argument the name of the shortcut to create, or the directory in which to create a shortcut with the same name.

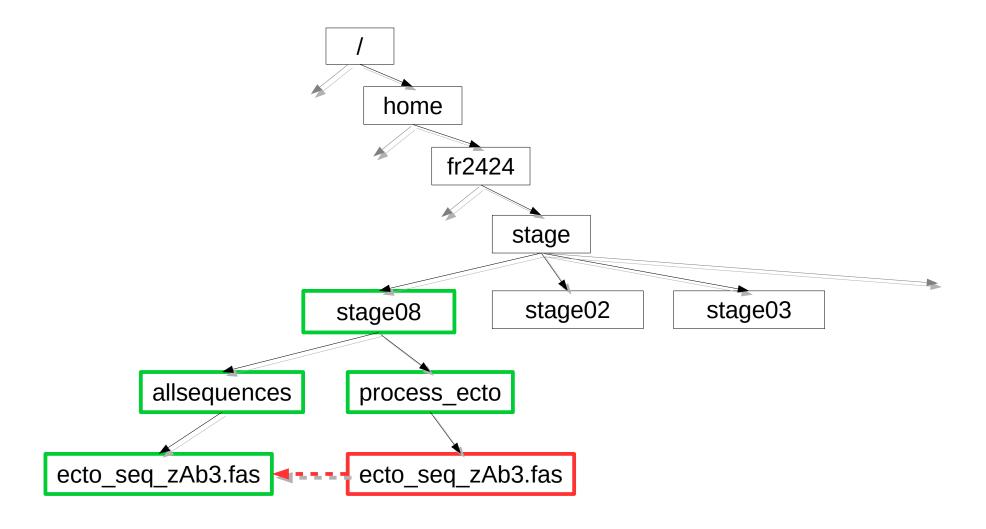
```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ln -s allsequences/ecto_seq_zAb3.fas process_ecto/
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ls -l process_ecto/
lrwxrwxrwx 1 stage08 stage 30 May 05 08:44 ecto_seq_zAb3.fas ->
allsequences/ecto_seq_zAb3.fas
```





Using shortcuts: symbolic links

The symbolic link creates a new entry in the file system "pointing" to an already existing entry.



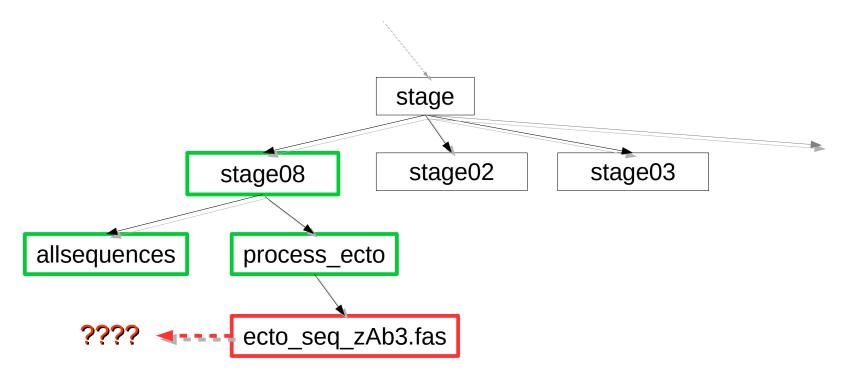




Using shortcuts: symbolic links

Deleting the original file makes the shortcut unusable!

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ rm -f allsequences/ecto_seq_zAb3.fas
[stage11@n221 ~]$ cat process_ecto/ecto_seq_zAb3.fas
cat: process_ecto/ecto_seq_zAb3.fas: No such file or directory
```





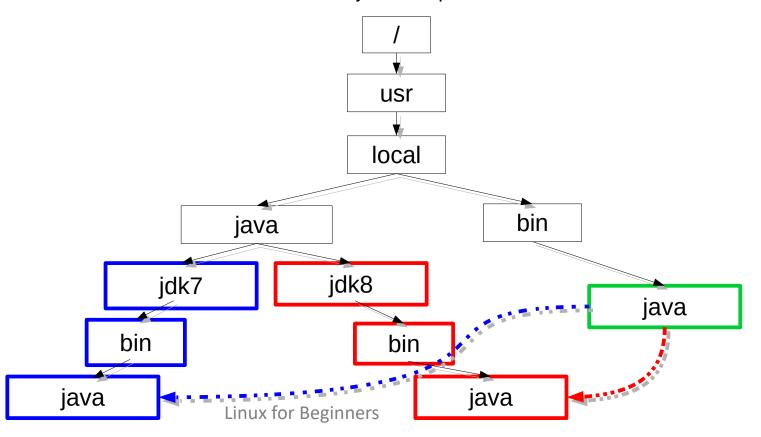


Using shortcuts: symbolic links

It is easy to create series of symbolic links using patterns.

```
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ln -s allsequences/ecto_seq*.fas process_ecto/
[stage11@n221 ~]$ ln -s allsequences/mouse_seq*.fas process_mouse/
```

Symbolic links can also be used to transparently manage software package updates: a command can "point" to a specific version of a tool. When the tool is updated, a new version of the command can be installed alongside the previous one, and the link to the command is adjusted to point to the latest version.

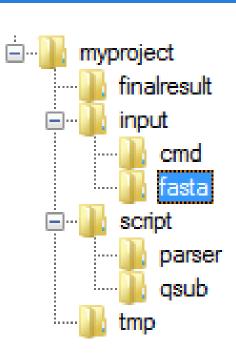








- Create a symbolic link in your home directory pointing to the script directory.
- Copy the acteur.csv file to finalresult/test-TP.txt
- Create a symbolic link in your home directory pointing to the test-TP.txt file located in the in the finalresult directory.
- Display the contents of the test-TP.txt file located in your home directory
- Delete the finalresult/test-TP.txt file
- Conclusion?





myproject

finalresult

parser

gsub

inout



Create a symbolic link in your *home directory* pointing to the script directory.

```
$ cd
$ ln -s /shared/projects/stage/stage08/myproject/script .
```

• Copy the acteur.csv file to finalresult/test-TP.txt

```
$ cdmystuff
$ cp Linux-Initiation/acteur.csv myproject/finalresult/test-TP.txt
```

Create a symbolic link in your home directory pointing to the test-TP.txt file located in the in the finalresult directory.

```
$ cd
$ ln -s /shared/projects/stage/stage08/myproject/finalresult/test-TP.txt .
```

• Display the contents of the test-TP.txt file located in your home directory

```
$ cd
$ cat test-TP.txt
```

Delete the finalresult/test-TP.txt file

```
$ cdmystuff
$ rm -f myproject/finalresult/test-TP.txt
```

Conclusion ?

```
$ cd
$ cat test-TP.txt
cat: test-TP.txt: No such file or directory
```

The solution shows the commands used for the stage08 account.





Copying Files to/from a Remote Machine

The scp command is used to copy files to/from another Linux (UNIX) machine. To use it, it's necessary to have an account (user name and password) on the remote machine. scp is used like cp sbut one of its arguments (source or destination) includes information about the remote machine as follows:

username@hostname:

- If needed, the password on the remote machine will be requested
- Transfers are encrypted: scp uses the SSH protocol.

Ex1. : Copying a local file to a remote machine : information about the remote machine is found in the **destination argument** of the command.

```
[stage08@n221 ~] $ scp Linux-Initiation.tar.gz stage08@sbr2:cours/
```

Ex2. : Copying a directory structure from a remote machine : the information about the remote machine is in the **source argument** of the command.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ scp -r stage08@sbr2:cours/ .
```





Copying files from a Web server through a URL

The wget command is used to fetch a local copy of a (set of) file(s) located on a Web server, and whose URL is known.

Ex1. : Fetching an ENA entry in FASTA format from its accession number.

Ex2. : Recursively (-r option) fetching contents from an HTML page (handle with care!)

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ wget -r "http://abims.sb-roscoff.fr/training"
```

The remote directory structure is recreated in the directory where the wget command is run.







Supposing your are in your project directory, copy, **using a single command**, the **test-TP.txt** file located in the **/tmp** directory of the **ssh** machine in the **myproject/tmp** directory.





Supposing your are in your project directory, copy, using a single command, the test-TP.txt file located in the /tmp directory of the ssh machine in the myproject/tmp directory.

Solution

\$ scp ssh:/tmp/test-TP.txt myproject/tmp





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Users & Groups: the Concept

In a Linux (UNIX) system, each resource (file, directory, running program...) is owned by a user having a valid account on the machine. This user is the **owner** of the resource.

Every user belongs to at least one **group**. There is no limit to the number of groups a user can belong to.

At any moment, each user has only one **active** group. This is the group that will be take into account by the system when the user accesses a resource.

Users and groups have numerical identifiers, called uid (user id) and gid (group id).

The id command displays the information about the identity of the user running the command.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ id
uid=7069(stage08) gid=1013(stage) groups=1013(stage)
```

The ls -1 command displays information about the ownership (which user/group) of files and directories

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ls -1 acteur.csv
-rw-r--r- 1 stage08 stage 84 May 13 21:19 acteur.csv
Owner Group
```





Users & Groups: the Concept

The operations a user can perform on a resource are defined by the rights she has both as user and as member of groups to which she belongs.



- Every user is limited to what she has access to on the system: file read/write access, program execution, allocated disk or memory space.
 - A single user has no access limitations : the system administrator or root





File system Related Access Rights

The ls -1 command displays information on file/directory ownership and access rights. Access rights are grouped in triplets made of the r, w, x or – characters.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ls -1 acteur.csv
 rw-r--r- 1 stage08 stage 84 May 13 21:19 acteur.csv
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ls -1 acteur.csv
 rw-r--r-- 1 stage08 stage 84 May 13 21:19 acteur.csv
    Owner access rights (u : user)
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ls -1 acteur.csv
-rw-r--r-- 1 stage08 stage 84 May 13 21:19 acteur.csv
       Group access rights (q : group)
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ls -1 acteur.csv
-rw-r--r-- 1 stage08 stage 84 May 13 21:19 acteur.csv
```

Access rights for users not members of the file's group (o : others)





File Access Right Management

Position in the triplet	Character	Matching right	Character	Matching right
1	r	Read access allowed	_	No read access
2	W	Write access allowed	_	No write access
3	×	Execution allowed	_	Execution forbidden

Example



Owner



Read and write access allowed, execution forbidden

Group



Read access, no writing and execution

Others



Same as for the group





File system Related Access Rights

The **chmod** command is used to modify access rights to files and directories. Its first argument defines the access right modifications to apply. Its second argument defines the file(s) or directory(ies) on which to apply the modifications.

Ex. 1 : Make a file "private" a.k.a remove (using the minus sign -) all rights (letters r, w and x) to the group (letter g) and to others (letter o).

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ chmod go-rwx acteur.csv
-rw----- 1 stage08 stage 84 May 13 21:19 acteur.csv
```

Ex. 2 : Add (+ sign) write access (letter w) for the group (letter g) to a file.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ chmod g+w acteur.csv
-rw-rw-r-- 1 stage08 stage 84 May 13 21:19 acteur.csv
```

Ex. 4 : Prevent file modification by removing (- sign) write (letter w) access to everyone (including the owner)

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ chmod -w acteur.csv
-r--r-- 1 stage08 stage 84 May 13 21:19 acteur.csv
```

Ex. 4 : Add (+ sign) execution rights (letter x) to a file.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ chmod +x monprogramme
-rwxr-xr-x 1 stage08 stage 84 May 13 21:19 monprogramme
```





File system Related Access Rights - Directories

In the output of ls -1, directories are flagged with a d letter before the string defining the access rights.

Position in the triplet	Char.	Matching right	Char.	Matching right
1	Ľ	Reading the list of files is allowed.	-	Reading the list of files is forbidden
2	W	Creating, renaming and removing files is allowed.	_	File creation, renaming or removal are forbidden
3	×	Going (with cd) in the directory is allowed.	_	Cd'ing in the directory is forbidden

The **chmod** command has an **-R** (recursive) option recursively applying the access rights to all files and subdirectories of its destination argument.





File system Related Access Rights – Group Changing

The chgrp, command allows to define a new group for a file or directory. The user running the command must be member of the group.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ chgrp autregroupe acteur.csv
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ls -1 acteur.csv
-r--r--- 1 stage08 autregroupe 84 May 13 21:19 acteur.csv
```

There is a command to change file ownership (chown) but its use is restricted to the system administrator...







Authorize all members of the **stage** group to write in the **Linux**-**Initiation** directory and its subdirectories. Check with your neighbor that (s)he can deposit and remove files there. But forbid any modification to the **acteur.csv** file.





Authorize all members of the stage group to write in the Linux-Initiation directory and its subdirectories. Check with your neighbor that (s)he can deposit and remove files there. But forbid any modification to the acteur.csv file.

Solution

```
$ chmod -R g+rwx Linux-Initiation
$ chmod g-rwx Linux-Initiation/acteur.csv
```





Linux for Beginners | Outline

- 1 Purpose of an Operating System why Linux?
- 2 Establishing a connection and transferring files
- 3 The Command Line Interface
- **4** The File System
- 5 Manipulating File Contents
- 6 Users, Groups and Access Rights
- 7 Processes





Some Definitions

A process is a currently running program. Each time a user issues a command (runs a program), the operating system loads it into memory and starts its execution.

In order to run smoothly, a process needs **memory** and **processor time** (CPU). It is the duty of the operating system to proceed to the optimal allocation of these resources among all the processes running "simultaneously". The **load** of a machine reflects the activity of all the active processes at any given moment.

As for files, a process has an owner (user) and a group; and associated rights or permissions.

The user has the ability -to some extent- to control process' execution: she can **stop** them "by force", **interrupt them** to **resume** them later on, or modify their **priority**.





Running / Stopping / Interrupting processes

Each time a command is issued in the current session, a process is created and executed. Only when the excution ends is it possible to issue new commands.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ gedit acteur.csv
[stage08@n221 ~]$
```

New commands can be run only after exiting gedit

A process running in the current session can be (brutally) stopped by typing the **Ctrl-C** key combination.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ gedit acteur.csv
^C__
[stage28@n221 ~]$
```

Ctrl-C "kills" the process. The user regains control.

A process killed by Ctrl-C frees all the resources (memory, open files) in its possession.





Running / Stopping / Interrupting processes

A process running in the current session can be **interrupted** with the key **Ctrl-Z** combination.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ gedit acteur.csv

[1] Stopped gedit acteur.csv

[stage08&n221 ~]$

The user regains control after typing Ctrl-Z. The process has been interrupted.
```

An interrupted process is "frozen", and keeps all resources it was allocated (except for processor time). It is assigned a **job identifier** (not to be confused with the process identifier, cf. following slides).

The jobs command lists all interrupted processes of the current session.



Resuming an Interrupted Process

The **fg** (foreground) command resumes the execution of an interrupted process. Without argument, the most recently interrupted process will be resumed. To resume a specific process, it is possible to use the % sign followed by the job identifier.

The **bg** (background) command also resumes an interrupted process but **immediately gives back** control to the user in in the current session. Execution of the process continues in the background





Running a process in background mode

A process can be run directly in background mode by adding an ampersand (&) to the command line.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ gedit acteur.csv &
[3] 26357
[stage08@n221 ~]$
```

Both a **job identifier** and a **process identifier (PID)** are displayed .



Displaying process information: ps

The **ps** (process status) command is used to display more or less detailed information about processes.

Ex. 1 : Listing the processes in the current session.

The main information are the PID (process identifier) and the name of the command (CMD).

Ex. 2 : Getting the **detailed** list of the processes in the current session with the -f (full) option.

Additionnal information is shown about the user (UID), the PID of the parent process (PPID), the start time (STIME), the execution time (TIME) and the complete command line (CMD).





Displaying process information: ps

Ex. 3 : Listing the processes of a specific user with the -u (user) option.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ps -fu stage08
UID
                     C STIME TTY
          PID
               PPID
                                          TIME CMD
stage08 16174 16172 0 17:21 ?
                                      00:00:0 sshd: stage08@pts/14
stage08 16175 16174 0 17:21 pts/14
                                      00:00:00 -bash
(...)
stage08 20696
                  1 0 17:37 ?
                                      00:00:00 /usr/libexec/gconfd-2
stage08 26357 16175 0 17:58 pts/14
                                      00:00:00 gedit insulin.fas
                     0 18:20 pts/14
                                      00:00:00 ps -fu stage08
stage08
        32327 16175
```

Ex. 4: Listing all the processes currently present on the machine with the -elf (extended, long, full) options.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ps -elf
0 S uquyet
            29185 29184 0 80
                                0 - 28353 n tty Apr19 pts/35
                                                               00:00:00 /bin/bash
0 S lgueguen 30113 10845 0 80
                                0 - 26364 n tty May12 pts/32
                                                               00:00:00 less macros.xml
4 S root
            30980 5864 0 80
                                0 - 28926 unix s May12 ?
                                                               00:00:00 sshd: nhenry
[priv]
                                0 - 28961 poll s May12 ?
5 S nhenry
            31153 30980 0 80
                                                               00:00:01 sshd: nhenry@notty
                                0 - 14977 poll s May12 ?
            31154 31153 0 80
0 S nhenry
                                                               00:00:01
/usr/libexec/openssh/sft
0 S pmandon 31370 2698
                           80
                                0 - 27641 n tty May12 pts/64
                                                               00:00:00 /bin/bash
                                0 - 26526 wait
0 S lberdjeb 31598
                                                12:22 ?
                                                               00:00:00 /bin/sh
                      1 0
                           80
/opt/sge/qlogin.
```





Interactive Process Visualisation with top

The **top** command displays and continually refreshes the list of processes running on a machine. By default, the list is sorted according to the process load (%CPU column). The command also summarizes the overall state of the system (uptime, global load, memory availability) above the process list.

•	18:31:24 u 650 total								oad ave		19, 1.16, 1.1 zombie
Cou(s)	: 0.0%us.	0.	0%sv	1. 3.1	‰ni.	96.99	ίi	d. 0.	0%wa.	0.Ó%hi.	0.0%si. 0.0
Mem: Swap:	131915052k 1048572k										212k buffers 36k cached
PID	USER	PR	NI	VIRT	RES	SHR	S	%CPU	%MEM	TIME+	COMMAND
20471		39 20	19	233m 23500				100.0	0.2	11778:56 0:02.36	
	root root	20	0	23300	0		S		0.0		kthreadd
	root root	RT 20	0	0 0	0 0		s s		0.0 0.0		migration/0 ksoftirqd/0
	root	RT	0	0	0		S		0.0		stopper/0
	root root	RT RT	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	S		0.0		watchdog/0 migration/1
	root	RT	0	0	0		S		0.0 0.0		stopper/1
	root root	20 RT	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	s s	0.0 0.0	0.0 0.0		ksoftirqd/1 watchdog/1

Global system load over the last 1, 5 and 15 minutes

Snapshot of CPU usage

Snapshot of available and allocated memory





Process termination: kill

The **kill** command sends a signal to the process whose process identifier (PID) is given as argument. By using specific options (-HUP, -TERM, -KILL) the process is more or less "gently" notified.

Ex. 1: Brutally stopping a process using **kill** with the **-KILL** option

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ gedit acteur.csv &
[1] 27908
[stage08@n221 ~]$ kill -KILL 27908
[stage08@n221 ~]$
```

The **kill** command can only be used on one's own processes.



Processes and Inheritance

Every process is spawned from a parent process. For instance, open a session yields a new process which will be the parent process of all of the commands typed in on the command line.

The process with PID 1 is the process that, when the machine was started, gave rise to the system's process tree.

Halting a process results in halting all of its child processes (to keep in mind before using kill).

When a process ends, its parent process is notified. Until the parent process handles its child's termination, the latter stays in a *zombie* state. Zombie processes do not take up any system resources, except if they proliferate in an uncontrollable way. Eliminating a zombie is done by "killing" its parent process. It is then attached to the process with PID 1 who takes care of eliminating zombies.







Open a connection. Run the **gedit** command in background mode. Then close the connection. What happens?





Open a connection. Run the **gedit** command in background mode. Then close the connection. What happens?

Solution

The **gedit** process is killed when the connection is closed: it was the child process of the connection process.





Detaching Processes from a Session

It is frequently necessary to execute programs whose running time will exceed the duration of a session. Thus, automatic killing of these processes must be avoided when the session is closed. The **nohup** (no hang-up) command allows to detach a process from a session.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ nohup mon_long_programme_de_bioinformatique.pl
nohup: ignoring input and appending output to `nohup.out'
```

Any information displayed by the program will be added to a file named **nohup.out** created in the directory where the command was executed.

For programs already running (in background mode) and whose PID is known, the **disown** command allows to detach it from the session.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ mon_long_programme_de_bioinformatique.pl &
[1] 29087
[stage08@n221 ~]$ disown 29087
```





Linux 101 | Bonus

Bonus: Customizing Your Environment





The Session's Environment - SHELL

Remember: each command is executed un a **current directory** with the credentials of the **current user.**

When starting a session (local or remote), the process handling what the user types is called the **command interpreter** or **shell**. Its purpose is to wait for the user to hit the Enter key at the end of a command line a to try to make sense of it a.k.a run the commands whose name(s) were typed in.

The **shell** is highly configurable.



Environment Variables - PATH

When the user types a command name, the shell looks for a matching (binary) file in a well defined list of directories. This list is stored in an

environment variable

This specific variable is called PATH, and its value can be displayed with echo:

[stage08@n221 ~]\$ echo SPATH

/opt/sge/bin/lx24-amd64:/opt/python/bin:/usr/local/java/bin:/usr/lib64/qt-3.3/bin:/
usr/kerberos/sbin:/usr/kerberos/bin:/usr/local/bin:/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/local/sbin:/usr/
sbin:/sbin:/opt/dell/srvadmin/bin:/usr/local/public/bin:/usr/local/genome2/bin:/usr/
local/genome/bin:/usr/local/adm/bin:/usr/local/admin/script:/usr/local/adm/script:/
usr/local/genome/script:/usr/local/genome2/h::/usr/local/genome2/seqclean:/usr/local/
genome2/seqclean/bin:/usr/local/genome2/tgicl_linux:/usr/local/genome2/tgicl_linux/
bin:/usr/local/genome/emboss/bin:/usr/local/genome/phylip/bin:/usr/local/genome/
mgadist:/usr/local/genome/MUMmer:/usr/local/genome/TMHMM/bin:/usr/local/genome/hmmer/
bin:/usr/local/genome/fasta/bin:/usr/local/genome/mcl64/mcl-05-321/bin:/usr/local/
genome/WolfPSORT_package_v0.2/bin:/usr/local/genome2/abyss/bin:/usr/local/cristallo/
bin:/home/fr2424/stage/stage08/bin:/opt/openmpi/bin:/opt/6.x/matlab/r2013b/bin:/opt/
6.x/matlab/r2013b/toolbox/abims/ffca:/opt/6.x/matlab/r2013b/toolbox/abims/mexcdf:/usr/local/cristallo/shelx97:/home/fr2424/stage/stage08/bin





Command Lookup Customization

To find out in which of the directories included in the **PATH** a command is actually found, the **which** command can be used :

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ which grep
/bin/grep
[stage08@n221 ~]$ which java
/usr/local/java/bin/java
```

To run a command not located in one of the **PATH** directories, its (absolute or relative) path must be given:

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ ls -1 myproject/script
-rwxr-xr-x 1 stage08 stage 804 May 4 20:58 myproject/script/supercalcul.sh
[stage08@n221 ~]$ supercalcul.sh
-bash: supercalcul.sh: command not found
[stage08@n221 ~]$ myproject/script/supercalcul.sh
```

New directories can be added to the **PATH** to allow executing new commands without having to specify their location.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ export PATH=~/myproject/script:${PATH}
[stage08@n221 ~]$ supercalcul.sh

export Propagates the new value of PATH to all subsequent processes in the same session

PATH= Means that a new value will be assigned to PATH

~/myproject/script The new directory that will be added (at the start) of PATH

:${PATH} The previous value of PATH is appended to the new directory.

Linux for beginners
```





Using Aliases

It is often handy to avoid repeatedly typing commands with the same options & arguments to define an *alias* for them. This can be done with the alias command.

Ex. 1 : Redefining grep to display matches in color.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ alias grep='grep --color'
[stage08@n221 ~]$ grep Homo insulin.fas
>gi|163659904|ref|NM_000618.3| Homo sapiens insulin-like growth factor 1 (somatomedin C) (IGF1), transcript variant 4, mRNA
>gi|163659900|ref|NM_001111284.1| Homo sapiens insulin-like growth factor 1
(somatomedin C) (IGF1), transcript variant 2, mRNA
```

Ex. 2: Creating an alias to count "human" sequences in a multi-FASTA file.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ alias hsc='grep -c -i human'
[stage08@n221 ~]$ hsc insulin_vs_nt.blast
373
```





Making the Customizations Persistent

Environment variable changes as well as alias definitions are only valid for the duration of the session they were made.

There is however a ~/.bashrc (text) file whose contents is read whenever a new session is opened. The contents of this file can be any shell command, including alias definitions and PATH modifications.

After modifying this file in the current session, the **source** command has to be issued for the new version of the file contents to be taken into account in this session:

[stage08@n221 ~]\$ source ~/.bashrc



Displaying Environment Parameters

The **env** command displays all the known environment variables with their values.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ env
(...)
LANG=fr_FR.UTF-8
GDM_LANG=fr_FR
MANAGERPID=25591
DISPLAY=:0
INVOCATION_ID=964f88f33972481e93c31234b2e4483f
COMPIZ_CONFIG_PROFILE=ubuntu
(...)
```

The alias command displays the list of all active aliases.

```
[stage08@n221 ~]$ alias
(...)
alias l='ls -CF'
alias la='ls -A'
alias ll='ls -alF'
alias ls='ls --color=auto'
(...)
```







Add a customized version of grep to your environment, an reload your configuration in the current session.







After handing filling the evaluation form at http://abims.sb-roscoff.fr/evaluation_formation, you will receive a *cheat sheet* with the essential Linux commands.

