BASIC UNIX Module

Introduction

Unix is the standard operating system on most large computer systems in scientific research, in the same way that Microsoft Windows is the dominant operating system on desktop PCs.

Unix and MS Windows both perform the important job of managing the computer's hardware (screen, keyboard, mouse, hard disks, network connections, etc) on your behalf. They also provide you with tools to manage your files and to run application software.

They both offer a graphical user interface. On Unix systems, this is called the X Window System, or just X.

Unix is a powerful, robust and stable operating system which allows dozens of people to run programs on the same computer at the same time. This is why it is the preferred operating system for large-scale scientific computing. It runs on all kinds of machines, from desktop PCs to supercomputers.

Aims

The aim of this module is to introduce UNIX and cover some of the basics that will allow you to run some of the programs used in this workshop. Several of the programs that you are going to use during the workshop, plus many others that are useful for bioinformatics analyses, are run in UNIX. This module is only designed to provide a very brief introduction to some of the features and useful commands of UNIX.

During this module we will also obtain a genome sequence that will be used in the next module, and examine the basic structure of an EMBL entry.

Why use UNIX?

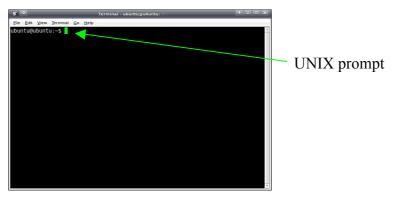
- UNIX is a well established, very widespread operating system.
- Command line driven, with a huge number of often terse, but powerful commands
- In contrast to Windows, it is designed to allow many users to run their programs simultaneously on the same computer
- Designed to work in computer networks for example, most of the Internet is UNIX based
- It is used on many of the powerful computers at bioinformatics centres and also on many workstations
- UNIX is not a monolithic entity. There are numerous different UNIX operating systems. Some of them are freely distributed such as Linux which was originally created to provide a free UNIX on personal PCs. This operating system is now so popular that it has been ported to many different system architectures.

Getting started

In this workshop, we will be using desktop PCs which run Linux, a version of UNIX which was specially designed for PCs.

We will use a terminal window to type in our UNIX command line. This is similar to the "Command Prompt" window on MS Windows systems, which allows the user to type DOS commands to manage files.

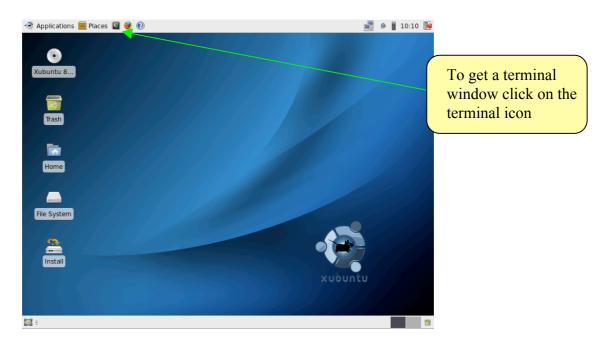
You should see a window labelled "Terminal" which will be empty except for a '\$' character at the top left. The '\$' character is the UNIX prompt, similar to "C:\" in DOS. Note: the prompt will often be different on different UNIX computers, for example it may be displayed as a '%' character.



You can type commands directly into the terminal at the '%' prompt.

A list of useful commands can be found on the next page.

Many of them are two- or three-letter abbreviations. The earliest UNIX systems (*circa* 1970) only had slow Teletype terminals, so it was faster to type 'rm' to remove a file than 'delete' or 'erase'. This terseness is a feature of UNIX which still survives.



The command line

All UNIX programs may be run by typing commands at the UNIX prompt \$. The command line tells the computer what to do.

You may subtly alter these commands by specifying certain options when typing in the command line.

Command line Arguments

Typing any of the commands listed above at the UNIX prompt with the appropriate variables such as files names or directories will result in the tasks being performed on pressing the enter key.

Additional arguments or flags can be added to the commands to affect the way the command works. For example:

The cal command prints a calendar for a month or a year

If you type in just **cal** with no month or year, you get the calendar for the current month

If you type cal and a year you get the calendar for that year

\$ cal 2000 [enter]

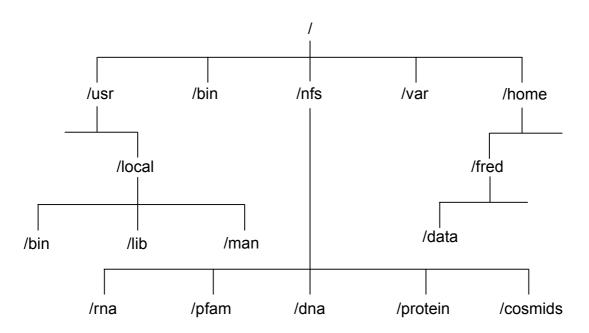
Additional arguments for the commands are not covered here, but if you want to find out what arguments are available, or want to find out more about a UNIX command, type **man** followed by the UNIX command

\$man cal [enter]

Files and Directories

Directories are the UNIX equivalent of folders on a PC or Mac. They are organised in a hierarchy, so directories can have sub-directories and so on. Directories are very useful for organising your work and keeping your account tidy - for example, if you have more than one project, you can organise the files for each one into different directories to keep them separate. You can think of directories as rooms in a house. You can only be in one room (directory) at a time. When you are in a room you can see everything in that room easily. To see things in other rooms, you have to go to the appropriate door and crane your head around. UNIX works in a similar manner, moving from directory to directory to access files. The location or directory that you are in is referred to as the current working directory.

Directory structure example



Therefore if there is a file called genome.seq in the **dna** directory its location or full pathname can be expressed as /nfs/dna/genome.seq.

For the actual directory structure you will be using during the workshop, see Appendix IV.

General Points

UNIX is pretty straightforward, but there are some general points to remember that will make your life easier:

UNIX is case sensitive - typing "ls" is not the same as typing "LS".

You need to put a space between a command and its argument - for example, "more myfile" will show you the contents of the file called myfile; "moremyfile" will just give you an error!

UNIX is not psychic! If you mis-spell the name of a command or the name of a file, it will not understand you.

Many of the commands are only a few letters long; this can be confusing until you start to think logically about why those letters were chosen - ls for list, rm for remove and so on. Often when you have problems with UNIX, it is due to a spelling mistake, or perhaps you have omitted a space.

If you want to know more about UNIX and its commands there are plenty of resources available that provide a more comprehensive guide:(e.g. http://unixhelp.ed.ac.uk or http://unix.t-a-y-l-o-r.com/).

In what follows, we shall use the following typographical conventions:

Characters written in **bold typewriter font** are commands to be typed into the computer as they stand.

Characters written in *italic typewriter font* indicate non-specific file or directory names.

Words inserted within square brackets [Ctrl] indicate keys to be pressed.

So, for example,

\$ ls anydirectory [Enter]

means "at the UNIX prompt \$, type Is followed by the name of some directory, then press the key marked Enter"

Don't forget to press the [Enter] key: commands are not sent to the computer until this is done.

Some useful UNIX commands

Command	What it does
ls	Lists the contents of the current directory
mkdir	Makes a new directory
mv	Moves or renames a file
ср	Copies a file
rm	Removes a file
cat	Concatenates files
more	Displays the contents of a file one page at a time
head	Displays the first ten lines of a file
tail	Displays the last ten lines of a file
cd	Changes current working directory
pwd	Prints working directory
find	Finds files matching an expression
grep	Searches a file for patterns
wc	Counts the lines, words, characters, and bytes in a file
kill	Stops a process
jobs	Lists the processes that are running

Exercise

The following exercise introduces a few useful UNIX commands and provides examples of how they can be used.

Many people panic when they are confronted with an UNIX prompt! Don't! The exercise is designed to be step-by-step, so all the commands you need are provided in the text. If you get lost ask a demonstrator. If you are a person skilled at UNIX, be patient it is only a short exercise.

Finding where you are and what you've got

pwd Print the working directory

As seen previously directories are arranged in a hierarchical structure. To determine where you are in the hierarchy you can use the **pwd** command to display the name of the current working directory. The current working directory may be thought of as the directory you are in, i.e. your current position in the file-system tree

To find out where you are type

pwd [enter]

You will see that you are in your home directory. We need to move into the UNIX directory

UNIX is case sensitive, **PWD** is not the same as **pwd**

cd Change current working directory

The **cd** command will change the current working directory to another, in other words allow you to move up or down in the directory hierarchy. First of all we are going to move into the UNIX directory below. To do this type:

cd UNIX [enter]

Now use the **pwd** command to check your location in the directory hierarchy.

Is List the contents of a directory To find out what are the contents of the current directory type

ls [enter]

The ls command lists the contents of your current directory, this includes files and directories You should see that there are 4 files called:

AL513382.embl, MAL13P1.dna, MAL13P1.tab, Malaria.fasta

Changing and moving what you've got

cp Copy a file

cp file1 file2 is the the command which makes a copy of file1 in the current working directory and calls it file2

What you are going to do is make a copy of AL513382.embl. This file contains the genome of *Salmonella typhi* strain CT18 in EMBL format. The new file will be called S typhi.embl

```
cp AL513382.embl S typhi.embl [enter]
```

If you use the **Is** command to check the contents of the current directory you will see that there are now two files, AL513382.embl and S_typhi.embl.

rm Delete a file

This command removes a file permanently so take care!

You are now going to remove the old version of S. typhi genome file, AL513382.embl

```
rm AL513382.embl [enter]
```

The file will be removed. Use the **ls** command to check the contents of the current directory to see that AL513382.embl has been removed.

UNIX as a general rule does exactly what you ask, and does not ask for confirmation. Unfortunately there is no "recycle bin" on the command line to recover the file from, so you have to be careful

cd Change current working directory

As before the **cd** command will change the current working directory to another, in other words allow you to move up or down in the directory hierarchy. First of all we are going to move into the directory above, type:

Now use the **pwd** command to check your location in the directory hierarchy.

Next, we are going to move into the Module 1 Artemis directory.

To change to the Module 1 Artemis directory type:

```
cd Module 1 Artemis [enter]
```

use the **Is** command to check the contents of the directory

mv Move a file

To move a file from one place to another use the **mv** command. This moves the file rather than copies it, therefore you end up with only one file rather than two.

When using the command the path or pathname is used to tell UNIX where to find the file. You refer to files in other directories by using the list of hierarchical names separated by slashes. For example, the file *bases* in the directory *genome* has the path **genome/bases**

If no path is specified UNIX assumes that the file is in the current working directory.

What you are going to do is move the file S_typhi.embl from the UNIX directory, to the current working directory

```
mv ../UNIX/S_typhi.embl . [enter]
```

Use the **ls** command to check the contents of the current directory to see that S_typhi.embl has been moved.

../UNIX/S_typhi.embl specifies that S_typhi.embl is in the UNIX directory. If the file was in the directory above, the path would change to: ../S_typhi.embl

- . specifies the current working directory
- .. specifies the directory above the current working directory

The command can also be used to rename a file in the current working directory. Previously we used the **cp** command, but **mv** provides an alternative without the need to delete the original file. Therefore we could have used:

```
mv AL513382.embl S typhi.embl [enter]
```

Viewing what you've got

more Display file contents

This command displays the contents of a specified file one screen at a time.

You are now going to look at the contents of S typhi.embl.

```
more S_typhi.embl [enter]
```

The contents of S_typhi.embl will be displayed one screen at a time, to view the next screen press the **space bar**. The percentage of the file that has been viewed so far will be displayed at the bottom of the screen. As S_typhi.embl is a large file this will take a while, therefore you may want to escape or exit from his command. To do this press the **control** and **c** keys simultaneously, this kills the **more** command, and returns you to the UNIX prompt. **more** can also scroll backwards if you hit the **b** key. Another useful feature is the **slash key**, /, to search for an expression in the file.

head Display the first ten lines of a file tail Display the last ten lines of a file

Sometimes you may just want to view the text at the beginning or the end of a file, without having to display all of the file. The head and tail commands can be used to do this.

You are now going to look at the beginning of S typhi.embl.

```
head S typhi.embl [enter]
```

To look at the end of S typhi.embl type:

```
tail S typhi.embl [enter]
```

The amount of the file that is displayed can be increased by adding extra arguments. To increase the number of lines viewed from 10 to 100 add the –100 argument to the command. For example to view the last 100 lines of S_typhi.embl type:

```
tail -100 S typhi.embl [enter]
```

Do this for both head and tail commands. What type of information is at the beginning and end of the EMBL format file?

cat Join files together

Having looked at the beginning and end of the S_typhi.embl file you should notice that in EMBL format files the annotation comes first, then the DNA sequence at the end.

If you had two separate files containing the annotation and the DNA sequence, both in EMBL format, it is possible to concatenate or join the two together to make a single file like the S_typhi.embl file you have just looked at. The UNIX command **cat** can be used to join two or more files into a single file. The order in which the files are joined is determined by the order in which they appear in the command line.

For example, we have two separate files, MAL13P1.dna and MAL13P1.tab, that contain the DNA and annotation, respectively, from the *P. falciparum* genome.

By typing the command line:

```
cat MAL13P1.tab MAL13P1.dna > MAL13P1.embl [enter]
```

MAL13P1.tab and MAL13P1.dna will be joined together and written to a file called MAL13P1.embl

The > symbol in the command line directs the output of the **cat** program to the designated file MAL13P1.embl

wc Counts the lines, words or characters

By typing the command line:

```
ls | wc -l [enter]
```

The above command uses wc to count the number of files that are listed by ls.

The | symbol in the command line connects the two commands into a single operation for simplicity. You can connect as many commands as you want:

```
$ ls | grep ".embl" | wc -l
```

grep Searches a file for patterns

grep is a powerful tool to search for patterns in a file.

In the examples below, we are going to use the file called Malaria.fasta that contains the set of P. falciparum chromosomes in FASTA format. A FASTA file has the following format:

```
>Sequence Header
CTAAACCTAAACCTAAACCCTGAACCCTAA...
```

Therefore if we want to get the sequence headers, we can extract the lines that match the > symbol:

```
grep '>' Malaria.fasta [enter]
```

By typing the command line:

```
grep -c '>' Malaria.fasta [enter]
```

The > symbol is placed in quotes as this stops the shell from interpreting the > as an instruction for where to put the output.

The -c option prints only a count of matching lines. Therefore in this example we will display the number of sequence entries that this file contains.

find Finds files matching an expression

The **find** command is similar to **ls** but in many ways it is more powerful. It can be used to recursively search the directory tree for a specified path name, seeking files that match a given Boolean expression (a test which returns true or false)

find . -name "*.embl"

This command will return the files which name has the .embl suffix.

find . -type d

This command will return all the subdirectories contained in the current directory.

These is just two basic examples but it is possible to search in many other ways:

-mtime search files by modifying date search files by last access date

-size search files by file size

-user search files by user they belong to

You need to be careful with quoting when using wildcards.

The wildcard * symbol represents a string of any character and of any length.

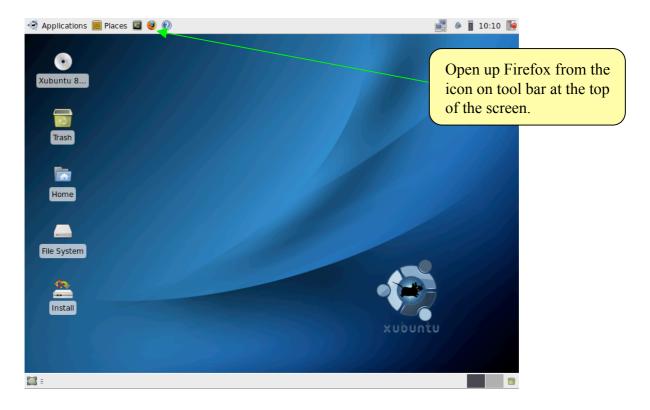
Obtaining and transferring information

The first step in exploiting genome sequences is obtaining your genome sequence. As time goes by there are more and more genome sequences available, from an ever increasing number of locations. Typically a complete genome sequence project is quite large, and therefore the files containing the data are going to be quite unwieldy. One of the simplest ways in which such information can be obtained is using **ftp** or 'file transfer protocol'. This a method of transferring information from a remote machine to the computer you are working on.

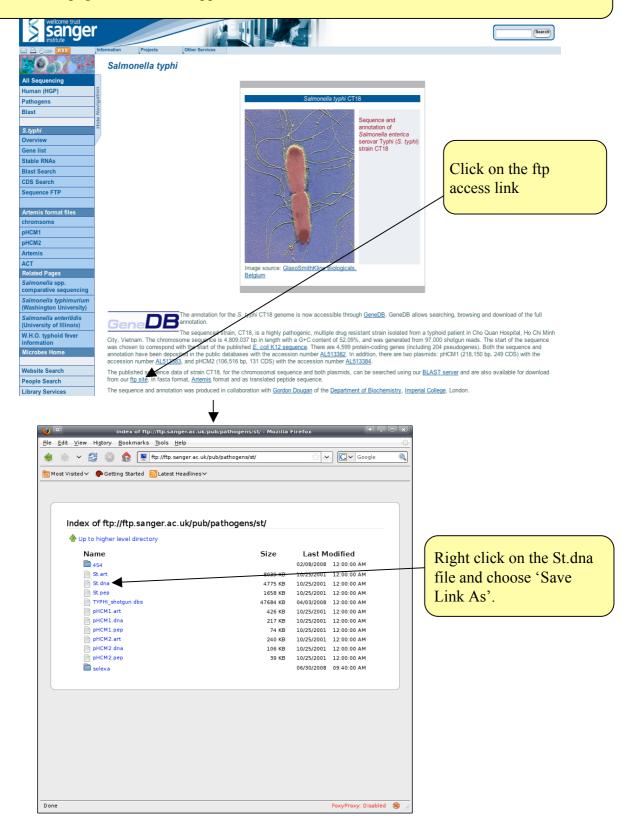
The **ftp** command can be used in UNIX to connect to a remote machine specified in the command line. Once a connection is established it is possible to both send (upload) and receive (download) data. However as we are limited for time we will not use this method, and instead use a more user-friendly method.

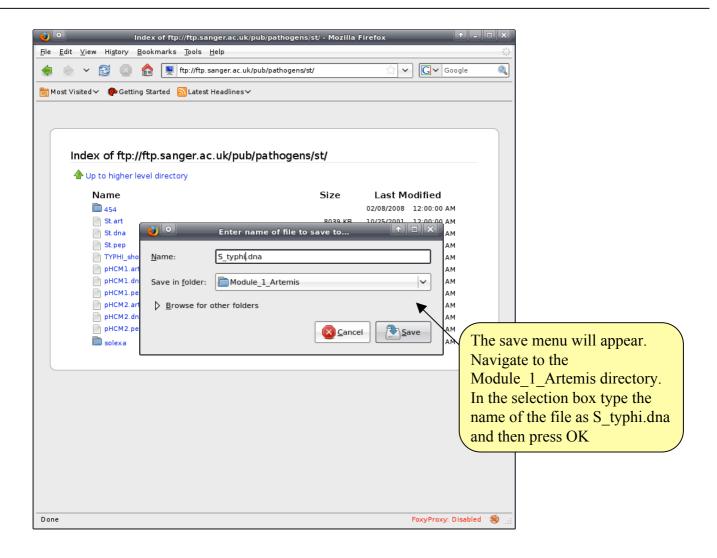
Using ftp on the internet

In addition to UNIX, ftp is also available on most Macs and PCs and allows you to transfer files readily between different computers worldwide. It is worth learning how to use **ftp**; most machines will have a graphical **ftp** interface and this makes file transfer very easy. Unfortunately there are a large number of alternatives and we can't show them all to you. Instead, we'll use **ftp** to download information to the current working directory on the computer you are working using the Firefox web browser. You are now going to an **ftp** web page where you are going to download the DNA sequence for the *Salmonella typhi* genome.



In the location box type in the address http://www.sanger.ac.uk/Projects/S_typhi and press return. The page below should appear.



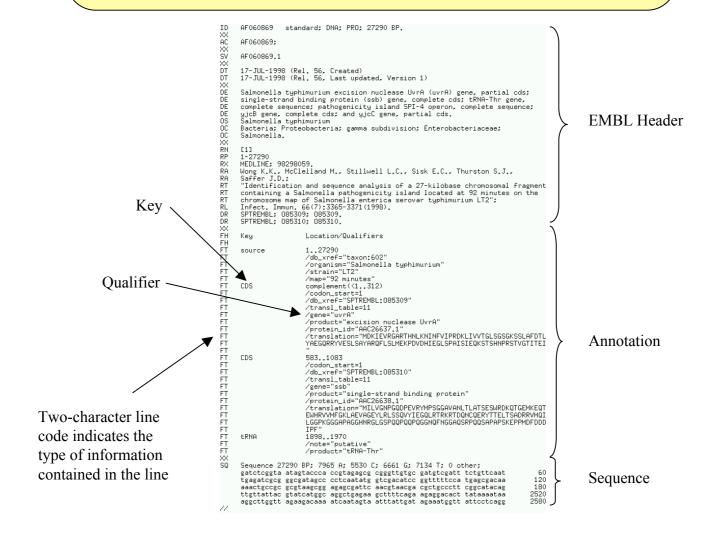


The file containing the DNA sequence for the genome of *S. typhi* will now be saved to the Module_1_Artemis directory

Database Entries

The S_typhi.embl file we previously looked at was obtained from the EMBL database at the European Bioinformatics Institute (http://srs.ebi.ac.uk/) and is presented in a specific format with a series of defined qualifiers and keys (see below and Appendix III) to help identify the different components of an entry.

Below is an example of a small EMBL entry with the different features of the entry highlighted



In addition to the EMBL database, there are the mirror databases, Genbank (NCBI) and DDBJ (National Institute of Genetics, Japan), which contain the same sequence entries, but have slight differences in the way in which the information is presented. The next two pages contain the text of the complete entries for same sequence from the EMBL and GenBank databases, compare the two entries and identify the differences.

EMBL Entry

```
ID
     ECRSMA
                standard; DNA; PRO; 500 BP.
XX
AC
     L40173;
XX
SV
    L40173.1
XX
     10-AUG-1995 (Rel. 44, Created)
DT
DT
    04-MAR-2000 (Rel. 63, Last updated, Version 4)
XX
DE
    Erwinia carotovora repressor (rsmA) gene, complete cds.
XX
KW
    repressor; rsmA gene.
XX
OS
    Pectobacterium carotovorum
    Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Enterobacteriaceae;
OC
OC.
    Pectobacterium.
XX
    [1]
RN
RP
    1-500
RA
    Cui Y., Chatterjee A., Liu Y., Dumenyo C.K., Chatterjee A.K.;
RT
     "Identification of a global repressor gene, rsmA, of Erwinia carotovora
RТ
     subsp. carotovora that controls extracellular enzymes,
RT
     N-(3-oxohexanoy1)-L-homoserine lactone, and pathogenicity in soft-rotting
RT
     Erwinia spp";
RL
    J. Bacteriol. 177(17):0-0(1995).
XX
    GOA; Q47620; Q47620.
DR
DR
    SWISS-PROT; Q47620; CSRA ERWCA.
XX
FΗ
    Kev
                     Location/Qualifiers
FΗ
                     1..500
FT
     source
                     /db xref="taxon:554"
FT
                     /organism="Pectobacterium carotovorum"
FΤ
FT
                     /strain="71"
FT
                     /sub species="carotovora"
                     /gene="rsmA"
FT
                     246..431
FT
     CDS
FT
                     /codon start=1
                     /db xref="GOA:Q47620"
FΤ
                     /db xref="SWISS-PROT:Q47620"
FT
                     /note="putative"
FT
FT
                     /transl table=11
                     /gene="rsmA"
FΤ
                     /function="global repressor"
FΤ
FT
                     /protein id="AAA74502.1"
FΤ
                     /translation="MLILTRRVGETLIIGDEVTVTVLGVKGNQVRIGVNAPKEVSVHRE
FT
                     EIYQRIQAEKSQPTSY"
XX
     Sequence 500 BP; 140 A; 101 C; 120 G; 139 T; 0 other;
SO
     ggatccggca agcaggatag aaagtgtgtt accttcagat attctgaagc tttacatgct
                                                                               60
     cagttctgtt gttgtgataa caaaagcaca agctactgat atcgactaaa ctaacaagta
                                                                               120
     gtgacaaacc ggagtgtgat ggtgtggtta taccatcgtc taggtttacg ttttcacagc
                                                                              180
     acatgatgga taatggcggg gagacagaga gacccgactc tttataatct ttcaaggagc
                                                                               240
     aaagaatgct tattttgact cgtcgagttg gcgaaaccct catcatcggc gatgaggtaa
                                                                              300
                                                                              360
     cggttaccgt attaggagtg aaaggcaacc aggtgcgtat tggtgttaat gcacctaaag
                                                                              420
     aggtttctgt ccaccgtgaa gagatctatc agcgtattca ggccgaaaaa tctcaaccaa
     cgtcatattg attgacaatg cgtctcgtgt tcgcgggacg caattgttat ttccggtttt
                                                                               480
     tcccccacac atttatcgat
                                                                               500
```

GenBank Entry

```
ERWRSMA
                                      500 bp
                                               DNA
                                                        linear
                                                                BCT 19-AUG-1995
DEFINITION Erwinia carotovora repressor (rsmA) gene, complete cds.
ACCESSION L40173
           L40173.1 GI:927031
VERSION
KEYWORDS repressor; rsmA gene.
SOURCE
          Pectobacterium carotovorum
 ORGANISM Pectobacterium carotovorum
           Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Enterobacteriaceae;
           Pectobacterium.
REFERENCE
           1 (bases 1 to 500)
           Cui, Y., Chatterjee, A., Liu, Y., Dumenyo, C.K. and Chatterjee, A.K.
 AUTHORS
 TITLE
            Identification of a global repressor gene, rsmA, of Erwinia
            carotovora subsp. carotovora that controls extracellular enzymes,
            N-(3-oxohexanoyl)-L-homoserine lactone, and pathogenicity in
            soft-rotting Erwinia spp
          J. Bacteriol. 177(17) (1995) In press
  JOURNAL
           Original source text: Erwinia carotovora (strain 71, sub species
            carotovora) DNA.
FEATURES
                    Location/Qualifiers
                     1..500
    source
                     /organism="Pectobacterium carotovorum"
                     /strain="71"
                     /sub species="carotovora"
                     /db xref="taxon:554"
                     107..431
     gene
                     /gene="rsmA"
     -10_signal
                     107..112
                     /gene="rsmA"
                     235..239
     RBS
                     /gene="rsmA"
     CDS
                     246..431
                     /gene="rsmA"
                     /function="global repressor"
                     /note="putative"
                     /codon start=1
                     /transl table=11
                     /protein id="AAA74502.1"
                     /db xref="GI:927032"
                     /translation="MLILTRRVGETLIIGDEVTVTVLGVKGNQVRIGVNAPKEVSVHR
                     EEIYQRIQAEKSQPTSY"
BASE COUNT
                140 a
                        101 c 120 g
                                         139 t
ORIGIN
        1\ {\tt ggatccggca}\ {\tt agcaggatag}\ {\tt aaagtgtgtt}\ {\tt accttcagat}\ {\tt attctgaagc}\ {\tt tttacatgct}
       61 cagttctgtt gttgtgataa caaaagcaca agctactgat atcgactaaa ctaacaagta
      121 gtgacaaacc ggagtgtgat ggtgtggtta taccatcgtc taggtttacg ttttcacagc
      181 acatgatgga taatggcggg gagacagaga gacccgactc tttataatct ttcaaggagc
      241 aaagaatgct tattttgact cgtcgagttg gcgaaaccct catcatcggc gatgaggtaa
      301 cggttaccgt attaggagtg aaaggcaacc aggtgcgtat tggtgttaat gcacctaaag
      361 aggtttctgt ccaccgtgaa gagatctatc agcgtattca ggccgaaaaa tctcaaccaa
      421 cgtcatattg attgacaatg cgtctcgtgt tcgcgggacg caattgttat ttccggtttt
      481 tccccacac atttatcgat
//
```

The two entries shown above contain the same biological information but differ in the format and presentation of this information. One of the most obvious difference is in the header region of the file that gives the background information to the submitted sequence. Another clear difference is that the EMBL entry has an additional **two letter line code** on the left hand margin.

EMBL entries are structured so as to be usable by human readers as well as by computer programs. The explanations, descriptions, classifications and other comments are in ordinary English for readability. At the same time, the structure is systematic enough to allow computer programs to easily read, identify, and manipulate the various types of data included.

Each line begins with a **two letter line code**, which indicates the type of information contained in the line. The currently used line types, along with their respective line codes, are listed below.

```
ID - identification
                                          (begins each entry; 1 per entry)
AC - accession number (>=1 per entry)
SV - new sequence identifier (>=1 per entry)
DT - date
                                            (2 per entry)
DE - description
                                            (>=1 per entry)
OG - organelle (0 or 1 per entry)
RN - reference number (>=1 per entry)
RC - reference comment (>=0 per entry)
RP - reference positions (>=1 per entry)
                                            (0 or 1 per entry)
RX - reference cross-reference (>=0 per entry)
RT - reference title (>=1 per entry)
RL - reference location (>=1 per entry)
DR - database cross-reference (>=0 per entry)
FH - feature table header (0 or 2 per entry)
FT - feature table data (>=0 per entry)

CC - comments or notes (>=0 per entry)

XX - spacer line (many per entry)

SQ - sequence header (1 per entry)

bb - (blanks) sequence data (>=1 per entry)

// - termination line (ends each entry; 1 per entry)
```