Introduction to the Command Line and Bash

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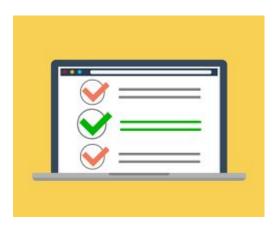






Before we get started

- Course materials are here:
 https://github.com/neurodatascience/QLS-course-materials/tree/main/Lectures/2024
- We'll use materials from here as part of the exercises later.



Topics

- A Review of Computers
 - Basic Definitions
- What is the shell?
 - Basic Navigation
- Interacting with Files
 - Basic File Handling
- Finding Files
 - Getting What You Need
- Scripting
 - Getting the Same Results
- High Performance Computing (HPCs)
 - A Brief Introduction



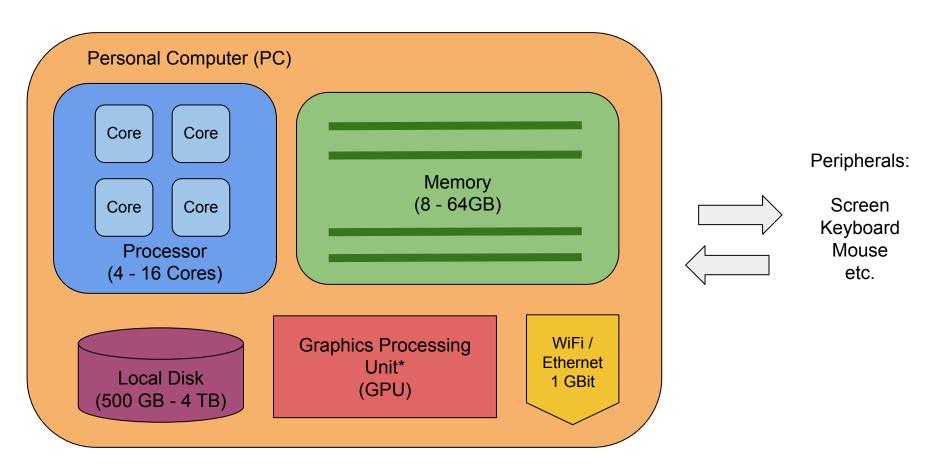
A Review of Computers

Working on a personal computer (PC)

- Everyone is familiar with this.
 - You're using one now.
- These machines are designed to facilitate the most common needs of the most people.
- Understanding how these machines work will make it easier to use modern data science tools.







^{*} not necessarily present in all systems (laptops)

Some Definitions

Terminal

A program that will give you access to an interactive shell environment.

Shell

- The interactive program that allows you to run other programs or interact with files.
- O Bash, Zsh, PowerShell, etc.

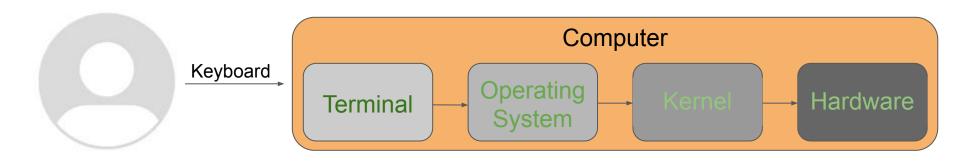
Operating System

- The underlying program (*supervisor*) that coordinates the execution of programs.
- Ubuntu, OSX, Windows

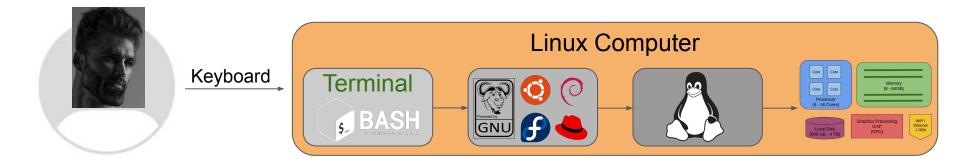
Kernel

- The set of function calls that translate an operating systems commands to hardware operations.
- Linux, BSD, Windows

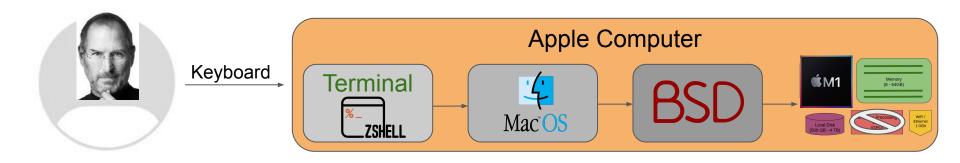
Using a Computer



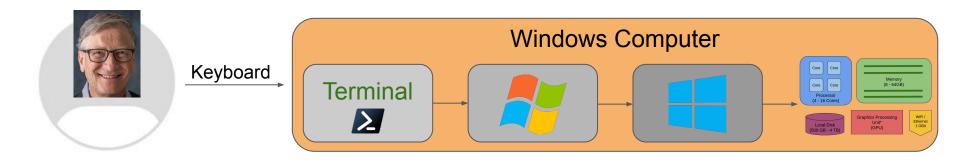
Using a Linux Computer



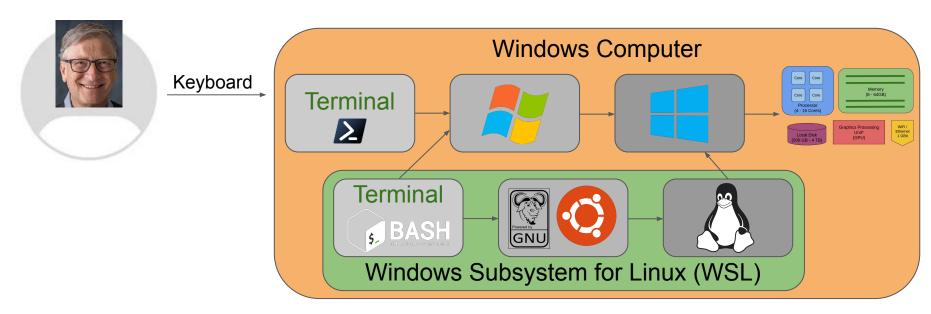
Using a Mac



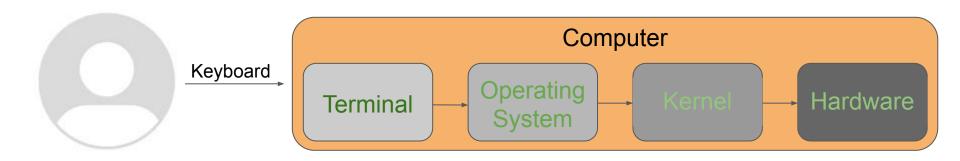
Using a Windows Computer



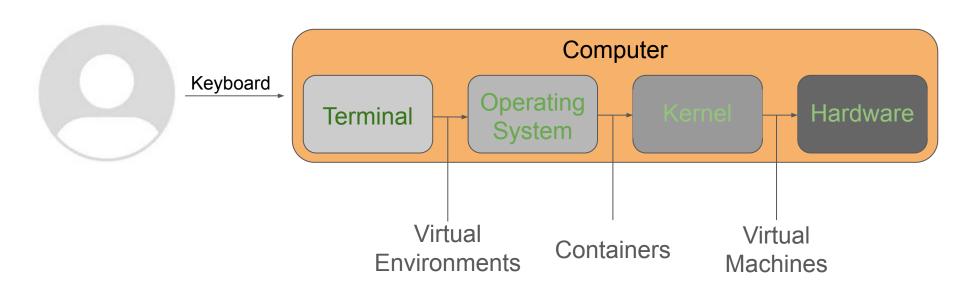
Using Linux on Windows (?)



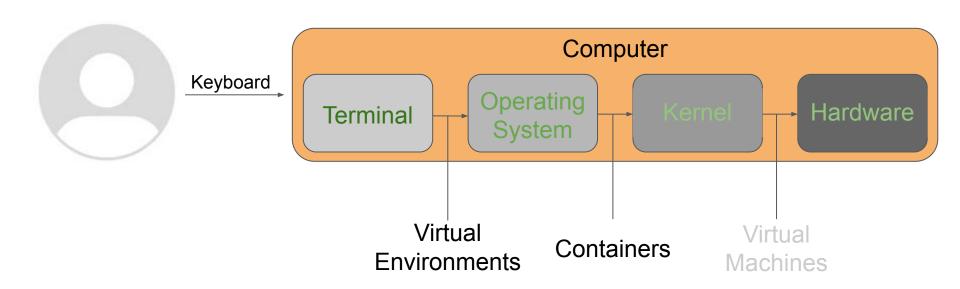
Using a Computer



Using a Computer for Reproducible Results



Using a Computer for Reproducible Results



Questions?

What is the Shell Doing?

- A shell is a program that interprets user input into something a computer can understand.
 - Text-based interaction
- The command-line shell runs inside a terminal that lets you type commands.
 - A command line interface (CLI)
 - This is in contrast to a *graphical user interface* (**GUI**)
- By working in a CLI, you can develop a sequence of commands with a scripting language.

There are many kinds of shells

- The most common shell is the Bourne Again Shell (Bash)
 - This is an updated version of the Bourne Shell (sh)
- There are shells with more human readable syntax.
 - C-shell (csh) / C-shell+ (tcsh)
- There are shells that are optimized for interactivity.
 - Z-shell (zsh) / friendly, interactive shell (fish)

What is the point of all the shells?

- They all have different strengths for different purposes.
 - Some have more interactive support.
 - Others have more complete scripting features.
- You will see different shell preferred throughout different software, too!
 - FSL is written in bash
 - AFNI recommends tcsh





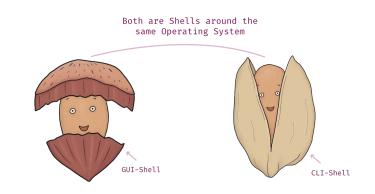
Today's Focus: Bash

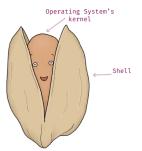
- The most ubiquitous shell environment.
- It's the default shell in most Linux systems.
 - Compute Canada / most HPCs.
 - This includes WSL.
 - OSX uses zsh, but bash is still available.
- The syntax for Bash is preserved across most common shells.



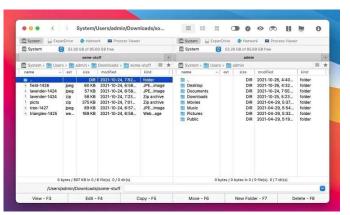
But why use the shell at all?

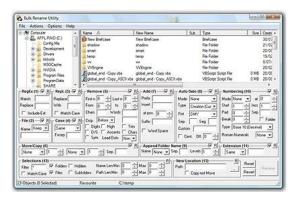
- A GUI is fine, but the shell is very powerful.
- Some tasks take many "clicks" in a GUI.
 - A shell script can automate this.
 - This can greatly ease reproducibility.
- You can sequence together the output of one program into another.
 - Perform different task automation or pipelining.
 - Most flexible way to combine different tools together.
- The script that was written can be (re-)executed easily.
 - Self-documenting
 - Easily generalizable
- On HPC systems, you'll be interacting with the shell anyway.

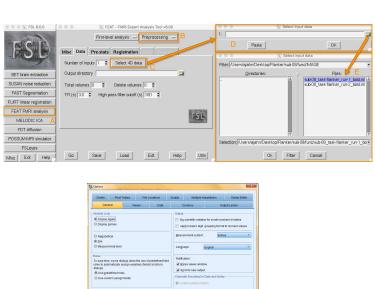




Using a GUI is "easy"...







OK Cancel Apply Help

Look and feel:

Open only one dataset at a tim



... but reproducible science is hard.

1 #[/bin/sh
2
3 # General FSL anatomical processing pipeline
4 #
5 # Mark Jenkinson
6 # FRRIB Image Analysis Group
7 #
8 # Copyright (C) 2012 University of Oxford
9 #
10 # Part of FSL - FRRIB's Software Library
11 # http://www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl
12 # fsl@fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl
13 #
14 # Developed at FRRIB (Oxford Centre for Functional Magnetic Resonance
15 # Imaging of the Brain), Department of Clinical Neurology, Oxford
16 # University, Oxford, UK

425 #### REORIENTATION 2 STANDARD
426 # required input: \$(TI) { modified} [and \$(TI)_orig and .mat]
427 # output: \$(TI) { modified} [and \$(TI)_orig and .mat]
428 If [\$do_receint = yes] ; then
429 | date; echo "Reorienting to standard orientation"
run \$FSLDIR/bin/fslmeaths \$(TI) \$(TI)_orig
run \$FSLDIR/bin/fslmeaths \$(TI) \$(TI)_orig2std.mat
431 | run \$FSLDIR/bin/fslreorient2std \$(TI) > \$(TI)_orig2std.mat
432 | run \$FSLDIR/bin/fslreorient2std \$(TI) > \$(TI)_orig2std.mat
433 | run \$FSLDIR/bin/fslreorient2std \$(TI) \$(TI)_orig2std.mat
434 | date; decompleted for the standard orient2std \$(TI) \$(TI)_orig2std.mat
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440 | date; decompleted for the standard orient2std.material orig1std.material orig1std.material orig1std.material orig1std.material orig1std.material

\$99 #### SKULL-CONSTRAINED BRAIN VOLUME ESTIMATION (only done if registration turned on, and segmentation done, and it is a T1 image)

\$98 # required inputs: \$(T1) biascorr

\$99 # output: \$(T1)_vols.txt

600 if \$30-reg = yes] \$6 \$ \$0-seg = yes] \$6 \$ \$T1 = T1]; then

601 of \$30-reg = yes] \$6 \$ \$10-seg = yes] \$6 \$ \$T1 = T1]; then

602 run \${(SLOIR)/bin/pairreg \${(SLOIR)/bin/pairreg \${(SLOIR)/bin/pairreg \${(SLOIR)/bin/pairreg \${(SLOIR)/bin/pairreg \${(SLOIR)/bin/pairreg \${(T1)_biascorr_bet -s -m \$betopts} }

\$\$7(T1)\$254 skullcon.mat

604 if \$(SLOIR)/bin/pairreg \${(SLOIR)/bin/pairreg \${(T1)_biascorr_bet -s -m \$betopts} }

\$\$7(T1)\$254 skullcon.mat

605 run \${(SLOIR)/bin/pairreg \${(SLOIR)/bin/pairreg \${(T1)_biascorr_bet -s -m \$betopts} }

606 run \${(T1)_biascorr_bet \${(T1)_biascorr_bet -s -m \$betopts} }

607 f1 \$(Suse_lesionmask = yes]; then

608 run \${(T1)_biascorr_bet -s -m \$betopts} }

609 run \${(T1)_biascorr_bet -s -m \$betopts} }

600 f1 suse_lesionmask = yes]; then

600 f2 f1 \$(SLOIR)/bin/fsloints lesionmask -max \${(T1)_fast_pve_2 -s -v | awk '{ print \$1 * \$3 }'';

600 grey="\$(SLOIR)/bin/fsloints \${(T1)_fast_pve_1 -m -v | awk '{ print \$1 * \$3 }'';

601 upstrees \${(SLOIR)/bin/fsloints \${(T1)_stat_pve_2 -m -v | awk '{ print \$1 * \$3 }'';

602 upstrees \${(SLOIR)/bin/fsloints \${(T1)_stat_pve_2 -m -v | awk '{ print \$1 * \$3 }'';

603 upstrees \${(SLOIR)/bin/fsloints \${(T1)_stat_pve_2 -m -v | awk '{ print \$1 * \$3 }'';

604 upstrees \${(SLOIR)/bin/fsloints \${(T1)_stat_pve_2 -m -v | awk '{ print \$1 * \$3 }'';}

605 upstrees \${(SLOIR)/bin/fsloints \${(T1)_stat_pve_2 -m -v | awk '{ print \$1 * \$3 }'';}

607 upstrees \${(SLOIR)/bin/fsloints \${(T1)_stat_pve_2 -m -v | awk '{ print \$1 * \$3 }'';}

608 upstrees \${(SLOIR)/bin/fsloints \${(T1)_stat_pve_2 -m -v | awk '{ print \$1 * \$3 }'';}

609 upstrees \${(SLOIR)/bin/fsloints \${(T1)_stat_pve_2 -m -v | awk '{ print \$1 * \$3 }'';}

Let's Get Started

Getting Started - The Prompt

- When the shell is first opened, you'll be presented with a prompt.
 - This indicates the shell is waiting for an input.
- This can be customized by the user to provide more detail in a session.
 - We will not cover that today, but there are a lot of resources available online.



What shell am I using?

This is easy to check. Type:

```
o echo $0
```

- It should display: bash
- To explicitly enter a Bash session, type
 - o bash
 - o echo \$0
- This will put you in a Bash session.

Bash Session

- Bash is a program that is running and interactive in the terminal.
- From a Bash session, you can launch a different shell environment.
 - o Type tcsh to start a tcsh session, etc.
- You can also do this with Bash.
 - Your Bash session can run another interactive Bash session.
 - This is a subprocess.

What is with the \$?

- Things prefixed with \$ in bash are variables.
 - All programming languages have variables.
- When we want to reference a variable we need a \$ prefix.
- By default, your system / shell will have some variables already available.
 These are called environment variables.
 - \$SHELL your default shell an environment variable
 - o \$0 the name of the running program, i.e. your active shell
 - o printenv print all the variables currently in your environment.

Working within the Shell

- There is a lot of typing that happens when you're working within a Terminal.
- The 2 most important tips are:
 - Tab Completion Press the <Tab> to fill in available completions for your current prompt.
 - Command History Press <Up> to cycle through the previously entered commands.
- There are also a bunch of keyboard shortcuts with CTRL
 - CTRL + C end the current process (program) but it won't end a shell session
 - O CTRL + A / E go to the beginning / end of the current line
 - O CTRL + L clear the terminal
 - CTRL + K delete to the end of the line
 - CTRL + R search the command history
 - CTRL + D exit the session (interactive process)
- If you find yourself repeating a process, check if there's a shortcut to help!

So where are we right now?

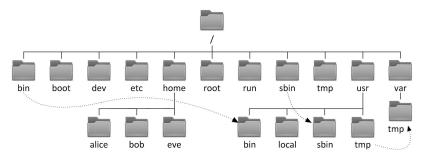
- When we open our terminal we are placed somewhere in the file system.
 - At any time while using a shell we are in exactly one place.
- Commands can read / write / operate on files wherever we are, so it's important to know where we are!
- We can find our current working directory with the following command:
 - o pwd
- Many bash commands are acronyms or abbreviations to try and help you remember them.
 - The above command, pwd, is an acronym for "print working directory".

Navigating Files and Directories

- The filesystem is how the operating system manages files and directories.
 - A file is a single document.
 - A directory is a folder that holds many documents.
- Generally, a new terminal will open with you in your home directory.
 - o ~/ or /home/\$USER or /Users/\$USER (OSX)
- There are a lot of shell commands to create, inspect, rename, move, or delete files and directories.
 - File handling operations are maybe the most common reason to work in a shell!

A quick tour of the Filesystem

- The top level directory is / (root)
 - Inside a path / is used as a separator between directories.
- Inside are several other directories:
 - /bin contains built-in (binary) programs
 - /usr is where miscellaneous program files are stored
 - o /home (~/) is where personal user directories are kept
 - /tmp is for temporary files



Your /home (~/) directory

- This is where many of your personal files are stored.
- There are many common directories here.
 - Documents
 - Downloads
 - Templates
 - o etc.
- This is also where many of your configuration files are stored.
- On a personal PC, your work may be here as well.
- On a remote PC, you will probably have a project drive separate from your home directory for your work.

What is in a directory?

- Now we can determine where we are (and know what that means).
- In order to view the contents of our current working directory, we need to *list* the contents *to* the *screen*.
 - o ls list to screen
- If we want to augment how 1s displays this result, we can add **options** or **flags**. This will change the behavior of the program.
 - ls -F list to screen showing the type of files found.
 - □ ls -a list to screen showing hidden files (most configuration files).

General Syntax of a Shell Command

- Options (arguments, switches, flags) change the behavior of a command.
- They generally start with a or ––
 - o —h or —help are the most likely ways to get a quick breakdown of what a user can do.
 - o man ls will open the manual entry for the command (not all programs have an entry).
 - o whatis is a useful helper that might be easier to get started with.
- Flags are case sensitive
 - o ls -r and ls -R do different things.
- For example, to list to screen the contents of our current working directory as a list that is sorted in order based on the size of the files:
 - ls -1S

Moving Around

- At this point we can:
 - See where we are: pwd
 - See what files we have: 1s
 - Understand the basic parts of a shell command.
 - Get help from the command line.
- Let's change directories to a different location to do some work.
 - o cd ~/shell-course

Changing Directories

By default, an interactive session starts in your home directory.

```
0 ~/
```

- Typing cd without any arguments will take you back to your home directory.
 - The ~ is a shortcut for \$HOME (/home/\$USER)
- cd will take you back to the last directory your were working in.

Changing Directories

- Changing directories can be done with either absolute or relative paths.
- Absolute paths: /home/bcmcpher/Documents/Project/learn-bash/demo.sh
 - Are defined in reference to the root directory.
 - This is very precise, but also very verbose to type.
- Relative paths: ../learn-bash/demo.sh
 - Are defined in reference to the current working directory: . /
 - They do not begin with /
 - o .../ refers to the directory above. This can be repeated (.../.../)
 - ls -a

Hidden Files

- Having discovered ... and . in the current working directory, you may see other files.
- These hidden files are prefixed with . and commonly called dotfiles.
- They can be either files or directories.
- By default they are not displayed.
 - This is just a convention for convenience.
- Hidden files often contain configuration settings or version control records.

Summary - Basic Navigation

- echo a statement or variable to the terminal as text.
 - echo "Statement and Variable \$VAR to print."
- pwd "print working directory"
 - o pwd -P
- 1s "list to screen"
 - o ls <PATH>, default.
- cd "change directory"
 - o cd <PATH>, default ~/

Interacting with Files

Creating Directories

- In order to start a new analysis, let's make a directory to store it.
 - o mkdir analysis
- This will add a folder called analysis to your current working directory.
- Please follow good naming conventions in your files and folders:
 - DO NOT use < s p a c e s > of any kind.
 - Stick with letters, numbers, -, and
 - DO NOT use special characters: ~!@#\$%^&*(),

Creating Files

- In a folder where you want to create a new file, you can
 - Open a new file in VS Code / Emacs / Vim / etc.
 - Use a CLI tool (like nano) to create an new file.
 - o cat (concatenate) the output of files together. If called on a single file, it prints it.
 - touch a new file into existence.
- Generally, the shell works well with plaintext files.
 - Binary files will need a function to provide a text summary.

nano

- nano is a useful CLI text editor.
- It will open within the terminal.
 - This is useful when working on remote systems that cannot open a new window.
- You don't necessarily need to use this, but it's helpful to remember it exists.
- The commands are always at the bottom of the screen.
 - O CTRL + KEY _ is displayed as ^KEY.

Creating Files - Redirect

- Programs often print text to the terminal that we want to store.
- We can capture text being printed to the terminal by redirecting it.
 - redirects output text to a file. It will overwrite (replace) whatever is in the file.
 - >> appends output text to a file. It will add to whatever currently exists in the text file.
- There are many advanced ways to redirect text these are just the basics.
 - This is most common for creating logs.

Moving Files and Directories

 Maintaining a deliberate and organized file structure sometime means we need to move files or even whole directories.

```
o mv <original> <new>
```

- Importantly, renaming a file or folder is more accurately moving it to a new name in its current location.
- You can move multiple things at once to the last argument.

```
o mv file1.txt file2.txt new folder
```

- You can glob (*) or wildcard (?) individual characters in a filename for pattern matching.
 - o mv file* new_folder
 - o mv file?.txt new_folder

Be Careful!

- mv is quite dangerous.
 - Aliasing my to my -i to add the *interactive* flag is a decent idea.
 - This will prompt you for a **yes / no** (y / n) anytime a file would be overwritten.
- Otherwise, mv will silently (and instantly) overwrite or delete files.
- This can not be undone. There is no Trash / Recycle bin in the terminal.
 - You can accidentally move all your subject results to the same file name and loose all the data, etc.

Copying Files and Directories

- Copy (cp) is a lot like move, except the original and new files both exist.
- All the same glob / wildcard rules apply to cp.
 - Directories will need to be copied with -r (recursive).
- Importantly, cp does not care if a file already exists it will move it again.
 - rsync will check and only move what it needs to even between systems.
 - o rsync -av <source/> <destination>

rsync Examples

• Too much or not enough?

Linking Files and Directories

- Linking (ln) is a lot like copy, except the file isn't copied.
 - This creates a *symbolic link* from the created *source* to the *target* file.
- A link, or shortcut, is created in the current directory to the target file.
- Opening the shortcut opens the linked file there is no duplicate!
 - Changes in one "file" will be reflected in the "other".
- ln -s <shortcut> <target-file-to-link>

Removing Files and Directories

- Eventually, you will just need to remove a file.
 - o rm <file>
- Like *moving* (mv), there is no undo option when you rm a file.
 - THE SHELL DOES NOT HAVE A TRASH / RECYCLE BIN.
 - Consider *aliasing* rm -i
- Removing a directory needs the recursive flag (rm -r) in order to complete.
- There is also rmdir
 - This does not work if a folder is not empty a safe way to try removing a directory if you're cleaning up a failed run.

Summary - Basic File Handling

- mkdir "make a directory"
 - o mkdir <new-directory>
- touch poke a file or make a new, empty one.
 - o touch <new-file>
- mv "move"
 - o mv <original-place-name>
 <new-place-name>
- cp "copy"
 - o cp <original> <new-copy>
- >, >> redirecting output

- rsync "remote sync" the files in <source> to <destination>
 - o rsync -av <source> <destination>
- In symbolic "link"
 - o ln -s <shortcut-linked-file>
 <the-original-file>
- rm "remove"
 - o rm <file>
- rmdir "remove directory"
 - o rmdir <empty-directory>
- nano

Finding Files

Finding Files

- The filesystem can become quite complex, with many similarly named files and nested subdirectories.
- To display all the files in a directory, you can use:
 - o ls -R (note the capital R!)
 - o tree (may not be installed)
- To search and return file names with a specific pattern, you can use find
 - find . -name "*.sh"

Finding Things Inside of Files

- Often enough, it is not the names of the file, but the contents of it that you want to search across.
- For this, we want to **g**lobally search for a **r**egular **e**xpression and **p**rint the matching lines.
 - o grep "find this pattern" text-file-001.txt
- This will match patterns within the matching text files.
 - o grep -r "find this pattern" text-file-*.txt

Finding Things Inside of Files

- There are many basic descriptions of text files you cat get from the CLI
 - head print the first -n lines of a file.
 - o tail print the last -n lines of a file.
 - wc print the word count of the file; -1 counts the number of lines.
 - o cat print the whole file.

Passing Information - Pipes |

- One of the strengths of the shell is the ability to connect the output of one command into the next.
- This is done with the *pipe* character: |
- Connecting commands with a | doesn't store the intermediate step beyond passing it as the input to the next command.

```
command1 -flags arguments | command2 -flags arguments <implicit-output-of-command1>
ls -lF | head
find . -type f -name "sub-* output.txt" | sort | tail -n 15
```

Passing Information - Pipes | - Advanced

- You can pass information through multiple pipes.
- You can either work on the entire output (previous examples) or you can work on each output individually with xargs.

```
find . -type f -name "sub-*_output.txt" | sort | xargs -n 1 -I {} tail -n 15 {}
```

Summary - Finding Files

- tree will show a structured directory tree of all nested files and directories.
 - o tree <directory-to-show>
- find will find all files in a location that match the pattern in the arguments.
 - o find <in-directory> -type f -name "*out.txt"
- grep will look for a pattern within a file(s).
 - o grep "pattern" file-to-search
- head will show the top lines of a file.
- tail will show the bottom lines of a file.
- wc will count the words (or lines) of a file.
- sort will sort the order of outputs.
- xargs will apply a command to each item in a list.

Scripting

Scripts and Variables

- The principal power of the shell is the ability to write reusable scripts.
- This is helpful if you want to:
 - Run the exact same commands or process again.
 - Keep a detailed record of the commands and parameters that produce an output.
 - Generalize a working analysis to new inputs and parameters.
 - Share or distribute a set of commands to other users.

When do you write a Shell Scripts vs. a Python Script?

Creating a Shell Script

- A shell script is a plaintext file.
 - It can have any kind of extension (or none at all).
 - Conventionally you would use .sh
- At the top of the file is the shebang line
 - 0 #!/bin/bash
 - This tells the system what kind of shell environment to run these commands.
 - #!/bin/tcsh
 - #!/usr/bin/python3

Shell Variables - \$

- Shell variables are set with =
 - There is no space around the equals it will not work with spaces
 - X=10
 - my var=5
- Variables are referenced with \$
 - o echo \$X
 - o echo \$my var
- The "strict" invocation of a variable uses { }
 - echo \${X}
 - This is necessary if is in the variables name.
- By convention, shell variables are:
 - ALL CAPS if they do not change once they are set.
 - lower case if they change or are reassigned (like within a loop).

Shell Variables and Environment Variables

- Environment Variables are available system-wide.
 - Regular variables are only available within their specific session / script (their *scope*).
- You export variables to find them in your environment.
 - export MY_VAR=5; echo \$MY_VAR
 - Scripts find environment variables within their scope.
- To remove an environment variable, you unset it.
 - unset \$MY_VAR

Running a shell script

Run a shell script by invoking it.

```
o ./run-me.sh
```

- o bash run-me.sh
- However, this is unlikely to work on a new script
 - You need to set the *file permissions*.

File Permissions

- Files are accessible at different levels of functionality to different users.
 - You can give different users (or groups of users) access to your files.
- The kinds of actions that can be taken on a file depend on their permissions.
 - o Read (r) view contents
 - Write (w) change contents
 - **Execute** (x) run the program

```
(base) bcmcpher@ThinkPad-T14s:~/example$ ls -lF
total 0
-rwxrwxr-x 1 bcmcpher bcmcpher 0 May 10 20:56 run-me-01.sh*
-r--r--- 1 bcmcpher bcmcpher 0 May 10 20:56 run-me-02.sh
-r-xr-xr-x 1 bcmcpher bcmcpher 0 May 10 20:56 run-me-03.sh*
(base) bcmcpher@ThinkPad-T14s:~/example$
```

- Permissions are applied separately to the user, group, and others.
- In order to run a new shell script, the file that contains the script must be marked (flagged) as executable.
 - o chmod +x run-me.sh

How does the shell know where to find commands?

- The system looks for executables along a default Path.
 - This is an environment variable defined by the system.
- By adding a folder with executables to the path those programs become available to the users terminal sessions.
- Otherwise, a relative or absolute path to the script must be invoked.
- echo \$PATH

How does the shell know where to find commands?

- The order of folders on the paths is the priority commands will be run.
 - The first program found is the first program run.
 - Virtual environments prepend dependencies to your path so they are found first and used.
- In setting up different tools, your path may do unexpected things.
- Use which to find the path of a program you are calling.
 - This can help you identify the specific tool your using and identify if your \$PATH has become corrupt.

Modifying the Path

- As part of installing software, you may need to manually add it to your \$PATH.
- To do this for every Bash session moving forward, modify your ~/.bashrc
 - When making changes, it may be safer to manually set them up until you are sure they work.
- Your ~/.bashrc (run commands) runs every bash session you start.
 - o It defines some variables by default.
- You can append / prepend new tools to your path or add variables to initialize in your default environment.
 - o export PATH=/opt/new/tool:\$PATH
 - export SUBJECTS DIR=/home/\$USER/freesurfer/v7.3.2

Modifications to Commands

- In addition to modifying the path, the ~/.bashrc is useful for setting up defaults tags for commands, or aliases.
 - WARNING you reap what you tweak. Make small, incremental changes and check them.
- An alias lets you define specific flags or entirely new commands.

```
o alias la=`ls -a`
o alias mv=`mv -i`
o alias beluga=`ssh -X bcmcpher@beluga.computecanada.ca`
```

 You can save a lot of time by customizing your environment to your specific needs.

Summary - Finding Files

- Shebang line #!/bin/bash
- Variables \$
 - Isolated to the current session.
- Environment Variables export MY_VAR; unset MY_VAR
 - Can be found system-wide.
- chmod
 - File Permissions rwx
- The \$PATH
- The ~/.bashrc
- alias

Questions?

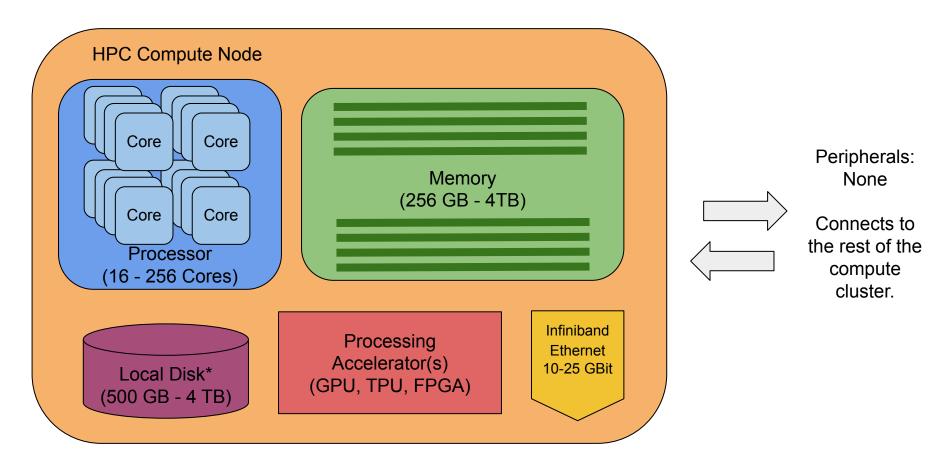
Brief Introduction to HPC

Working on an HPC

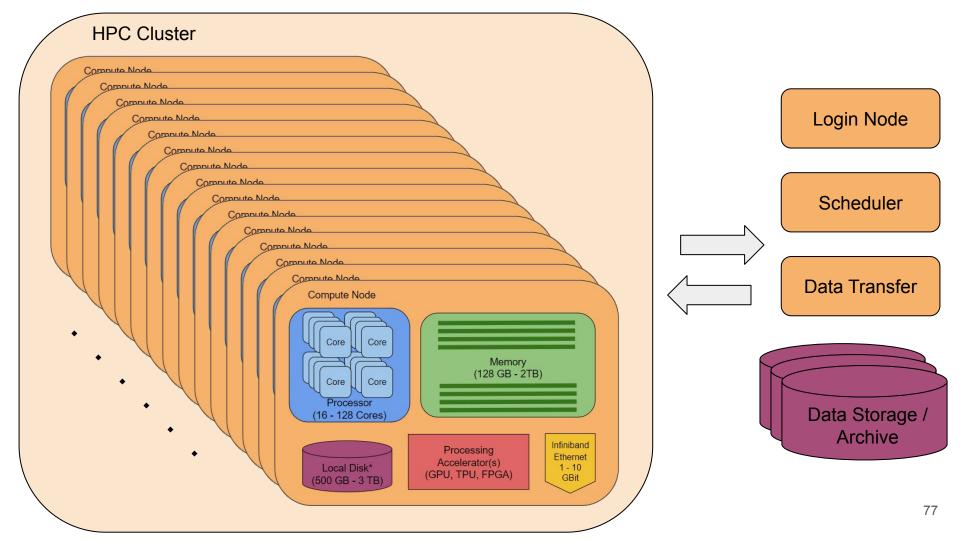
- These are not "personal" systems, they are multi-user.
- You do not interact with them directly, but over a network connection in a shell.
- The interaction with your analysis entails:
 - Transferring data / results.
 - Managing your analysis "jobs".
- There is minimal "interactive" computing performed on a HPC.
 - Typically little to no visualization is performed on HPC systems.
- They almost exclusively run Linux.







^{*} it may be less and / or have higher access speed



The Anatomy of a Computer

PCs

- 1 CPU
 - 4 16 cores
 - o 3.8 5.0 GHz
- 8 64 GB RAM
- 500 GB 4 TB Storage
- 1 GPU
 - This may be built into the CPU
- WiFi / 1 GBit Ethernet
- x86 (maybe ARM) architecture
- Single-User System
- Good for most general usage
 - This is likely where you will develop your analysis.

HPCs

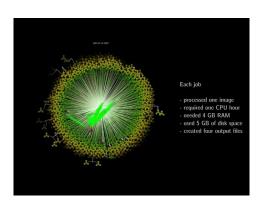
- Multiple CPUs
 - 16 256 cores per CPU
 - o 2.4 3.5 GHz
- 256 GB 4 TB RAM
- 500 GB 4 TB Storage
 - Not for long term storage
- 0 4 Processor Accelerators
 - GPUs w/ double precision CUDA
 - o TPUs, FPGAs, Coprocessors, etc.
- 10 25 GBit Ethernet, Infiniband
- Different architectures (x86, PPC, Cray)
- Multi-User System
- Good for high throughput / large models.

The advantages of a HPC over a PC

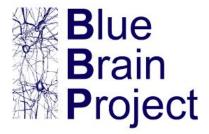
- The ability to handle large datasets in a more time efficient manner.
- The option to "Scale Out" or "Scale Up" an analysis.
 - Scale Out: the ability to analyze independent parts of a dataset simultaneously
 - Independent permutations / cross-validations / simulations.
 - Different subjects through the same preprocessing preparations.
 - "Embarrassingly Parallel"
 - High Throughput Computing
 - Scale Up: create a larger single instance of computing resources to run a larger model, estimation, or analysis.

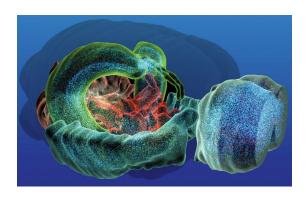
Scaling Out

biobank



Scaling Up





Job Scripts

demo_subj01.slurm

```
#!/bin/bash
#SBATCH -- job-name=demo subj01
                                          # job name
#SBATCH --nodes=1
                                           # run on a single node
                                          # run on a single CPU
#SBATCH --ntasks=1
#SBATCH --cpus-per-task=1
                                           # run on a single core
#SBATCH --mem=1qb
                                           # job memory request
#SBATCH --time=00:05:00
                                           # time limit hrs:min:sec
#SBATCH --error=./jobs/logs/demo subj01 %j.err # standard error from job
#SBATCH --output=./jobs/logs/demo subj01 %j.out # standard output from job
#SBATCH --account=def-jbpoline
                                           # define your affiliation
  ^^^^^^
## MODIFY THE RESOURCE REQUSTS ABOVE FOR YOUR JOB
  MODIFY THE CODE BELOW TO CALL YOUR ANALYSIS
  ## your job script generalized to a subject ID
bash ./analysis.sh subj01
```

Commands for working with Jobs

- sbatch
 - Submit a job to the scheduler.
 - o sbatch job.slurm
- squeue
 - Monitor the status of jobs on the cluster.
 - o squeue -u <USERNAME>
- scancel
 - Cancels a job that hasn't completed.
 - o scanel <JOBID>
- sacct
 - Provides a summary of the jobs your have recently submitted.
 - o sacct
- srun
 - Start an interactive job to test that your job will work correctly.
 - o srun --nodes=1 --ntasks-per-node=1 --time=01:00:00 --pty bash -i



There are a lot of resources available for learning about HPCs online and in your lab. Find a process that works for you and ASK how others have solved similar problems!

Thanks!