



The Official GitHub Training Manual

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Welcome to GitHub

Today you will embark on an exciting new adventure: learning how to use Git and GitHub.

As we move through today's materials, please keep in mind: this class is for you! Be sure to follow along, try the activities, and ask lots of questions!

License

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Getting Ready for Class

While you are waiting for class to begin, please take a few minutes to set up your local work environment.

Step 1: Set Up Your GitHub.com Account

For this class, we will use a public account on GitHub.com. We do this for a few reasons:

- We don't want you to "practice" in repositories that contain real code.
- We are going to break some things so we can teach you how to fix them. (therefore, refer to the bullet above)

You can set up your free account by following these steps:

1. Access GitHub.com and click Sign up.
2. Choose the free account.
3. You will receive a verification email at the address provided.
4. Click the link to complete the verification process.

If you already have an account, verify that you can visit github.com within your organization's network.

GitHub is designed to run on the current versions of all major browsers. In particular, if you use Microsoft's Internet Explorer (IE), you must be using the latest version. Take a look at our list of [supported browsers](#).

Step 2: Install Git

Git is an open source version control application. You will need Git installed for this class.

You may already have Git installed so let's check! Open Terminal if you are on a Mac, or PowerShell if you are on a Windows machine, and type:

```
$ git --version
```

You should see something like this:

```
$ git --version
git version 2.11.0
```

Anything over 2.0 will work for this class!

Downloading and Installing Git

If you don't already have Git installed, you can download Git at www.git-scm.com.

If you need additional assistance installing Git, you can find more information in the ProGit chapter on installing Git:

<http://git-scm.com/book/en/v2/Getting-Started-Installing-Git> .

Where is Your Shell?

Now is a good time to create a shortcut to the command line application you will want to use with Git:

- If you are working on Windows, we recommend `Git Bash` which is installed with the Git package, so that you can follow along with the facilitator who will be using Bash.
- If you are working on a Mac or other Unix-based system, you can use the built-in Terminal application.

Step 3: Try cloning with HTTPS

Open your chosen shell, and type:

```
git clone https://github.com/githubschool/scratch
```

If the clone is successful you'll see:

```
$ git clone https://github.com/githubschool/scratch
Cloning into 'scratch'...
remote: Counting objects: 6, done.
remote: Compressing objects: 100% (2/2), done.
remote: Total 6 (delta 0), reused 0 (delta 0), pack-reused 0
Unpacking objects: 100% (6/6), done.
```

If your clone is unsuccessful, read about [authenticating with GitHub from Git](#). Please note: many corporate networks restrict SSH traffic, so we highly recommend using HTTPS and verifying the clone works before class. Also, if you have two-factor authentication enabled and wish to use HTTPS, you will need to [set up a personal access token](#).

Proxy configuration

If your organization uses a proxy, you will need to configure the proxy settings in Git. Open Git Bash (on Windows) or Terminal (on Mac or *nix) and complete the appropriate steps below:

If your proxy does not require authentication:

```
git config --global http.proxy https://YOUR.PROXY.SERVER:8080
```

Replace `YOUR.PROXY.SERVER` with your proxy's URL.

If your proxy does require authentication:

```
git config --global http.proxy https://YOUR_PROXY_USERNAME:YOUR_PROXY_PASSWORD@YOUR.PROXY.SERVER:8080
```

Replace `YOUR_PROXY_USERNAME` with the username used to authenticate into your proxy, `YOUR_PROXY_PASSWORD` with the password used to authenticate into your proxy, and `YOUR.PROXY.SERVER` with your proxy's URL.

Step 4: Set Up Your Text Editor

For this class, we will use a basic text editor to interact with our code. Let's make sure you have one installed and ready to work from the command line.

Pick Your Editor

You can use almost any text editor, but we have the best success with the following:

- [Atom](#)
- [Visual Studio Code](#)
- Notepad
- Vi or Vim
- Sublime
- Notepad++
- GitPad

If you do not already have a text editor installed, go ahead and download and install one of the above editors now! You can also configure Atom as your default text editor for Git commands using the [instructions at help.github.com](https://help.github.com/articles/configuring-the-editor/).

Your Editor on the Command Line

After you have installed an editor, confirm you can open it from the command line.

If installed properly, the following command will open the Atom text editor:

```
$ atom .
```

If you are working on a Mac, you will need to Install Shell Commands from the Atom menu, this happens as part of the installation process for Windows.

Exploring

Congratulations! You should now have a working version of Git and a text editor on your system. If you still have some time before class begins, here are some interesting resources you can check out:

- github.com/explore Explore is a showcase of interesting projects in the GitHub Universe. See something you want to re-visit? Star the repository to make it easier to find later.
- lab.github.com The Learning Lab bot will guide you through projects and provide feedback right from your GitHub repository, helping you build every step of the way.

Getting Started With Collaboration

We will start by introducing you to Git, GitHub, and the collaboration features we will use throughout the class. Even if you have used GitHub in the past, we hope this information will provide a baseline understanding of how to use it to build better software!

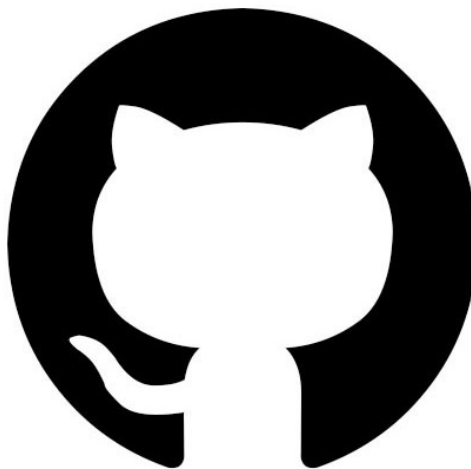
What is GitHub?

GitHub is a collaboration platform built on top of a distributed version control system called Git. GitHub is focused on developers, the people who code and create software. Our focus is also the people who partner with and employ developers, who are encouraging them to build amazing things.

We do all we can to help unlock the creativity of developers and to foster a community of developers that can come together—as individuals and in teams—to create the future of software and make a difference in the world.

GitHub concentrates on three things:

- Building a technology platform that is like no other, on which developers can create, share and grow the best code possible
- Nurturing a community for developers; a safe and collaborative place that facilitates sharing, amplifies creativity, and supports the principles of open source
- Providing access, opening up a community of opportunity, where new developers can be born and where experienced developers can hone their skills and expand their knowledge



In addition to being a place to host and share your Git projects, GitHub provides a number of features to help you and your team collaborate more effectively. These features include:

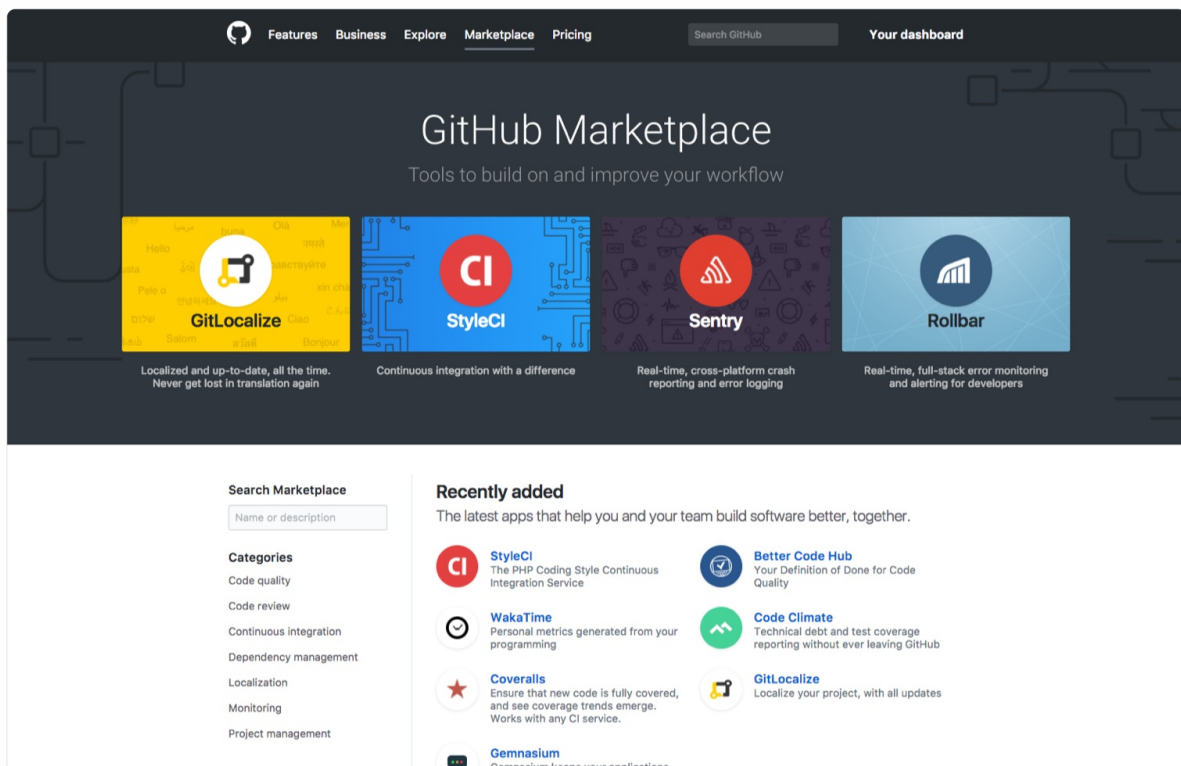
- Issues
- Pull Requests
- Projects
- Organizations and Teams

GitHub



The GitHub Ecosystem

Rather than force you into a "one size fits all" ecosystem, GitHub strives to be the place that brings all of your favorite tools together. For more information on integrations, check out <https://github.com/integrations>.



You may even find some new, indispensable tools to help with continuous integration, dependency management, code quality and much more.

What is Git?

Git is:

- a distributed version control system or DVCS.

- free and open source.
- designed to handle everything from small to very large projects with speed and efficiency.
- easy to learn and has a tiny footprint with lightning fast performance.

Git features cheap local branching, convenient staging areas, and multiple workflows.

As we begin to discuss Git (and what makes it special) it would be helpful if you could forget everything you know about other version control systems (VCSs) for just a moment. Git stores and thinks about information very differently than other VCSs.

We will learn more about how Git stores your code as we go through this class, but the first thing you will need to understand is how Git works with your content.

Snapshots, not Deltas

One of the first ideas you will need understand is that Git does not store your information as series of changes. Instead Git takes a snapshot of your repository at a given point in time. This snapshot is called a commit.

Optimized for Local Operations

Git is optimized for local operation. When you clone a copy of a repository to your local machine, you receive a copy of the entire repository and its history. This means you can work on the plane, on the train, or anywhere else your adventures find you!

Branches are Lightweight and Cheap

Branches are an essential concept in Git.

When you create a new branch in Git, you are actually just creating a pointer that corresponds to the most recent commit in a line of work. Git keeps the commits for each branch separate until you explicitly tell it to merge those commits into the main line of work.

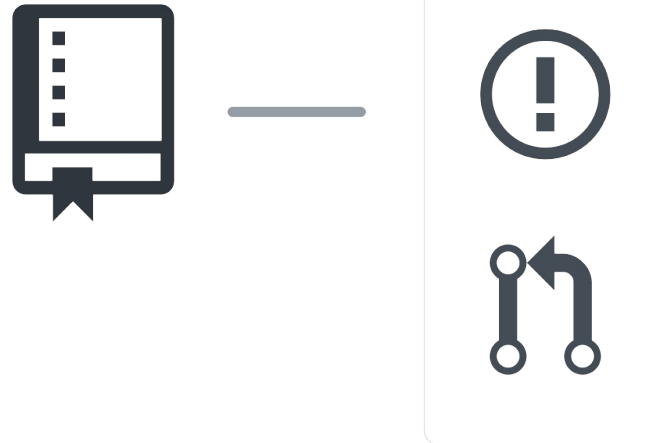
Git is Explicit

Which brings us to our final point for now; Git is very explicit. It does not do anything until you tell it to. No auto-saves or auto-syncing with the remote, Git waits for you to tell it when to take a snapshot and when to send that snapshot to the remote.

Exploring a GitHub Repository

A repository is the most basic element of GitHub. It is easiest to imagine as a project's folder. However, unlike an ordinary folder on your laptop, a GitHub repository offers simple yet powerful tools for collaborating with others.

A repository contains all of the project files (including documentation), and stores each file's revision history. Whether you are just curious or you are a major contributor, knowing your way around a repository is essential!



User Accounts vs. Organization Accounts

There are two account types in GitHub, user accounts and organization accounts. While there are many differences in these account types, one of the more notable differences is how you handle permissions.

User Accounts

When you signed up for GitHub, you were automatically given a user account. Permissions for a user account are simple, you add people as collaborators to specific repositories to give them full read-write access to the project.

Organization Accounts

Organization accounts provide more granular control over repository permissions. In an organization account you create teams of people and then give those teams access to specific repositories. Permissions can be assigned at the team level (e.g, read, write, or admin).

Repository Navigation

Code

The code view is where you will find the files included in the repository. These files may contain the project code, documentation, and other important files. We also call this view the root of the project. Any changes to these files will be tracked via Git version control.

Issues

Issues are used to track bugs and feature requests. Issues can be assigned to specific team members and are designed to encourage discussion and collaboration.

Pull Requests

A Pull Request represents a change, such as adding, modifying, or deleting files, which the author would like to make to the repository. Pull Requests help you write better software by facilitating code review and showing the status of any automated tests.

Projects

Projects allow you to visualize your work with Kanban style boards. Projects can be created at the repository or organization level.

Wiki

Wikis in GitHub can be used to communicate project details, display user documentation, or almost anything your heart desires. And of course, GitHub helps you keep track of the edits to your Wiki!

Pulse

Pulse is your project's dash board. It contains information on the work that has been completed and the work in progress.

Graphs

Graphs provide a more granular view into the repository activity, including who has contributed, when the work is being done, and who has forked the repository.

README.md

The README.md is a special file that we recommend all repositories contain. GitHub looks for this file and helpfully displays it below the repository. The README should explain the project and point readers to helpful information within the project.

CONTRIBUTING.md

The CONTRIBUTING.md is another special file that is used to describe the process for collaborating on the repository. The link to the CONTRIBUTING.md file is shown when a user attempts to create a new issue or pull request.

ISSUE_TEMPLATE.md

The ISSUE_TEMPLATE.md (and its twin the pull request template) are used to generate templated starter text for your project issues. Any time someone opens an issue, the content in the template will be pre-populated in the issue body.

Using GitHub Issues

In GitHub, you will use issues to record and discuss ideas, enhancements, tasks, and bugs. Issues make collaboration easier by:

- Replacing email for project discussions, ensuring everyone on the team has the complete story, both now and in the future.
- Allowing you to cross-link to related issues and pull requests.
- Creating a single, comprehensive record of how and why you made certain decisions.

- Allowing you to easily pull the right people into a conversation with @ mentions and team mentions.

include

Using Markdown

GitHub uses a syntax called **Markdown** to help you add basic text formatting to Issues, Pull Requests, and files with the `.md` extension.

Commonly Used Markdown Syntax

Header

The `#` indicates a Header. `#` = Header 1, `##` = Header 2, etc.

* List item

A single `*` or `-` followed by a space will create a bulleted list.

Bold item

Two asterix `**` on either side of a string will make that text bold.

- [] Checklist

A `-` followed by a space and `[]` will create a handy checklist in your issue or pull request.

@mention

When you @mention someone in an issue, they will receive a notification - even if they are not currently subscribed to the issue or watching the repository.

#975

A `#` followed by the number of an issue or pull request (without a space) in the same repository will create a cross-link.

:smiley:

Tone is easily lost in written communication. To help, GitHub allows you to drop emoji into your comments. Simply surround the emoji id with `:`.

Introduction to GitHub Pages

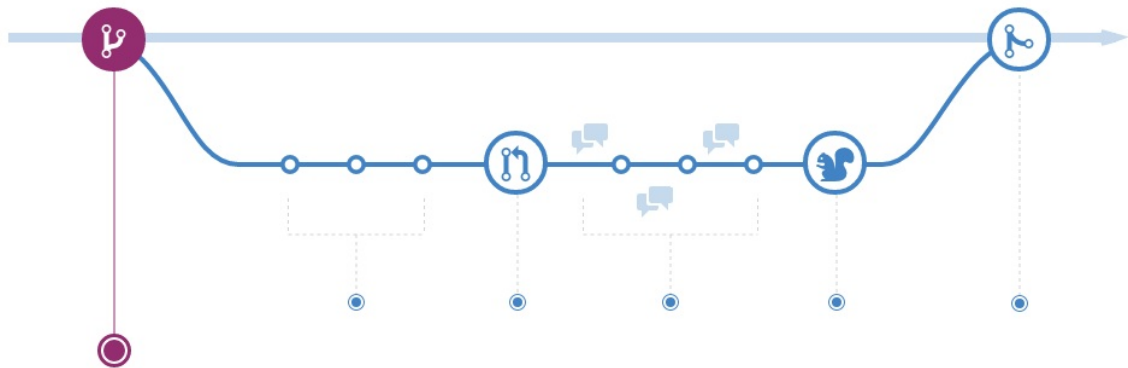
GitHub Pages enable you to host free, static web pages directly from your GitHub repositories. Several of the projects we use in class will use GitHub Pages as the deployment strategy. We will barely scratch the surface in this class, but there are a few things you need to know:

- You can create two types of websites, a user/organization site or a project site. We will be working with project websites.
- For a project site, GitHub will only serve the content on a specific branch. Depending on the settings for your repository, GitHub can serve your site from a `master` or `gh-pages` branch, or a `/docs` folder on the `master` branch.
- The rendered sites for our projects will appear at `githubschool.github.io/repo-name`.

Branching with Git

The first step in the GitHub Workflow is to create a branch. This will allow us to experiment with new features without accidentally introducing untested changes on our production branch.

Branching Defined



When you create a branch, you are essentially creating an identical copy of the project at that point in time. This isn't the same as creating a physical copy on disk. In the background, a branch is just a pointer.

Let's learn how you can create a new branch.

[include](#)

Exploring

Here are some interesting things you can check out later:

- <https://youtu.be/H5GJfcp3p4Q> A GitHub Training Video on branching.

Local Git Configuration

In this section, we will prepare your local environment to work with Git.

Checking Your Git Version

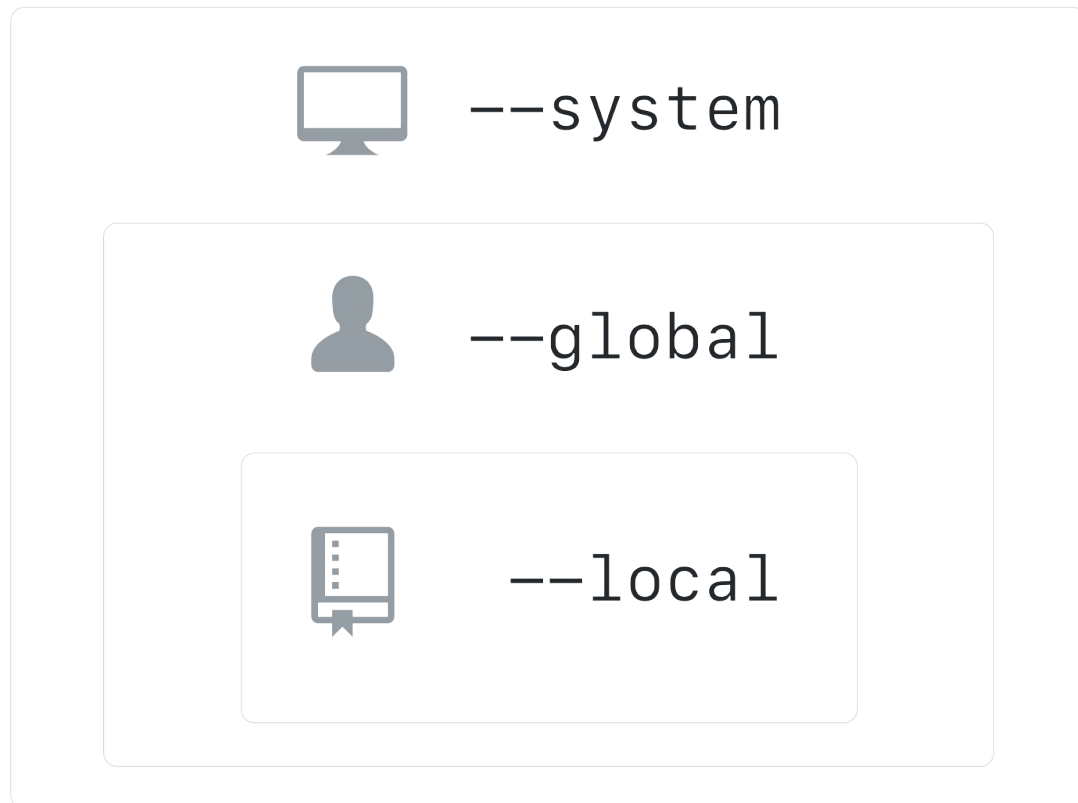
First, let's confirm your [Git Installation](#):

```
$ git --version
$ git version 2.11.0
```

If you do not see a git version listed or this command returns an error, you may need to install Git.

To get the latest version of Git, visit www.git-scm.com.

Git Configuration Levels



Git allows you to set configuration options at three different levels.

--system

These are system-wide configurations. They apply to all users on this computer.

--global

These are the user level configurations. They only apply to your user account.

--local

These are the repository level configurations. They only apply to the specific repository where they are set.

The default value for git config is `--local`.

Viewing Your Configurations

If you would like to see which config settings have been added automatically, you can type `git config --list`. This will automatically read from each of the three config files and list the setting they contain.

```
$ git config --list
```

You can also narrow the list to a specific configuration level by including it before the list option.

```
$ git config --global --list
```

Configuring Your User Name and Email

Git uses the config settings for your user name and email address to generate a unique fingerprint for each of the commits you create. You can't create commits without these settings:

```
$ git config --global user.name "First Last"
$ git config --global user.email "you@email.com"
```

Git Config and Your Privacy

The instructions for this exercise use the `--global` flag when identifying your `user.name` and `user.email` configuration settings. If you are currently using a computer without a private, personal account, don't apply the `--global` flag. This way, the settings will only be stored in our assignment repository. If you work in another repository on this same computer, you will need to set these configuration options again.

For example:

```
git config user.email "you@email.com"
```

Your name and email address will automatically be stored in the commits you make with Git. If you would like your email to remain private, GitHub allows you to generate a no-reply email address for your account. Click the **Keep my email address private** in the [Settings > Emails section](#). After enabling this feature, you just need to enter the automatically generated `ID+username@users.noreply.github.com` when configuring your email.

For example:

```
git config --global user.email 18249274+githubteacher@users.noreply.github.com
```

Configuring autocrlf

```
$ //for Windows users
$ git config --global core.autocrlf true
$ //for Mac or Linux users
$ git config --global core.autocrlf input
```

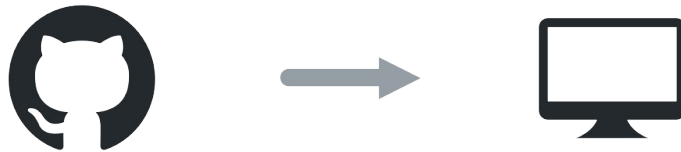
Different systems handle line endings and line breaks differently. If you open a file created on another system and do not have this config option set, git will think you made changes to the file based on the way your system handles this type of file.

Memory Tip: `autocrlf` stands for auto carriage return line feed.

Working Locally with Git

Using the command line, you can easily integrate Git into your current workflow.

Creating a Local Copy of the repo



Before we can work locally, we will need to create a clone of the repository.

When you clone a repository you are creating a copy of everything in that repository, including its history. This is one of the benefits of a DVCS like git - rather than being required to query a slow centralized server to review the commit history, queries are run locally and are lightning fast.

Let's go ahead and clone the class repository to your local desktop.

1. Navigate to the *Code* tab of the class repository on GitHub.
2. Click *Clone or download*.
3. Copy the *clone URL* to your clipboard.
4. Open your command line application.
5. Retrieve a full copy of the repository from GitHub: `git clone <CLONE-URL>`
6. Once the clone is complete, cd into the new directory created by the clone operation: `cd <REPOSITORY-NAME>`

Our Favorite Git command: `git status`

```
$ git status
On branch master
Your branch is up-to-date with 'origin/master'.
nothing to commit, working tree clean
```

`git status` is a command you will use often to verify the current state of your repository and the files it contains. Right now, we can see that we are on branch master, everything is up to date with origin/master and our working tree is clean.

Using Branches locally

```
$ git branch
```

If you type `git branch` you will see a list of local branches.

```
$ git branch --all
$ git branch -a
```

If you want to see all of the branches, including the read-only copies of your remote branches, you can add the `--all` option or just `-a`.

The `--all` and `-a` are actually synonyms for the branch command. Git often provides a verbose and a short option.

Switching Branches

```
$ git checkout <BRANCH-NAME>
```

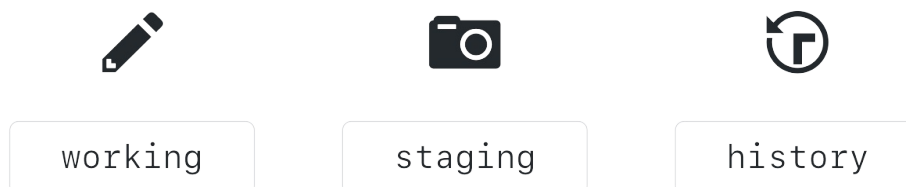
To checkout the branch you created online, type `git checkout` and the name of your branch. Git will provide a message that says you have been switched to the branch and it has been set up to track the same remote branch from origin.

You do not need to type `remotes/origin` in front of the branch - only the branch name. Typing `remotes/origin` in front of the branch name will put you in a detached HEAD state. We will learn more about that later, but for now just remember this is not a state we want to be in.

[include](#)

The Two Stage Commit

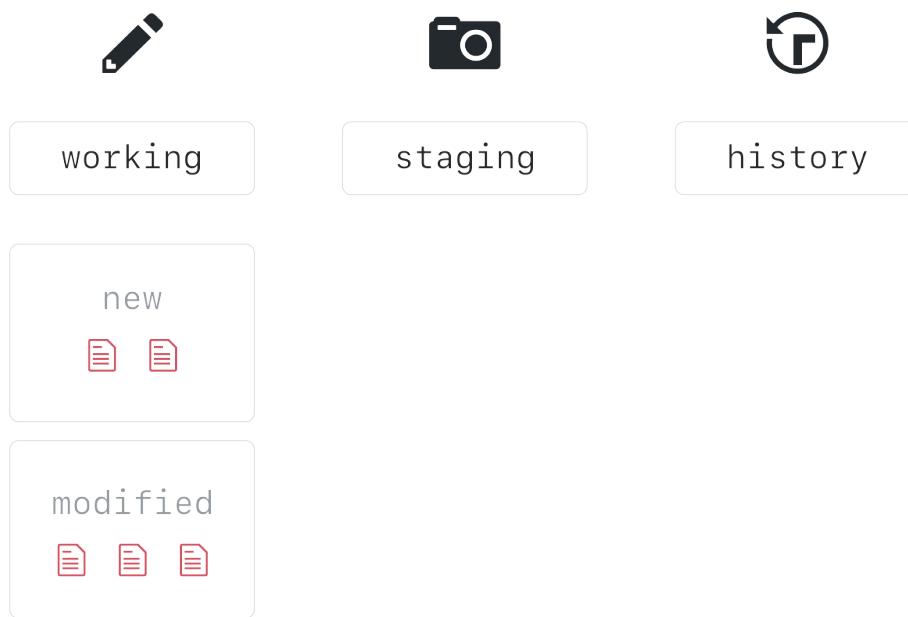
After you have created your file, it is time to create your first snapshot of the repository. When working from the command line, you will need to be familiar with the idea of the two stage commit.



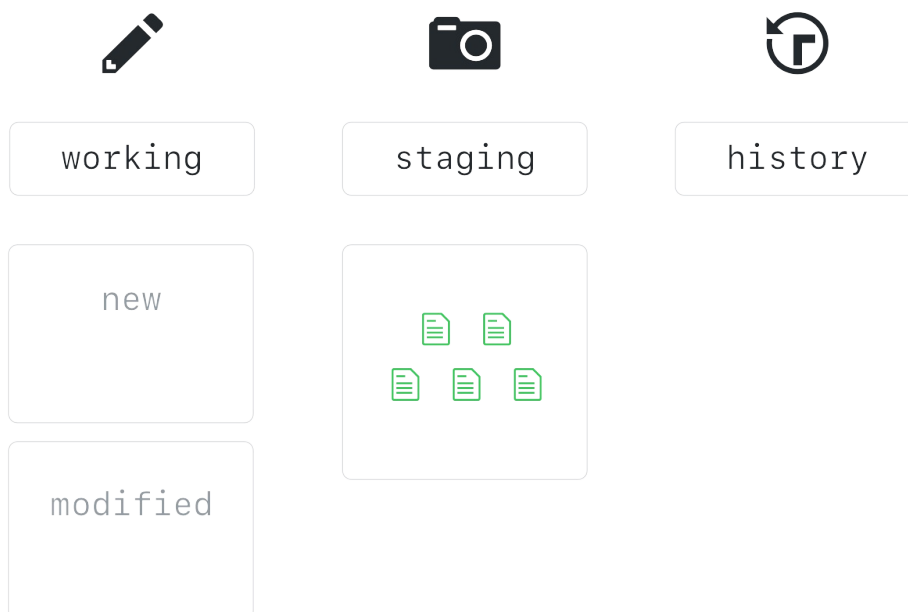
When you work locally, your files exist in one of four states. They are either untracked, modified, staged, or committed.

An untracked file is a new file that has never been committed.

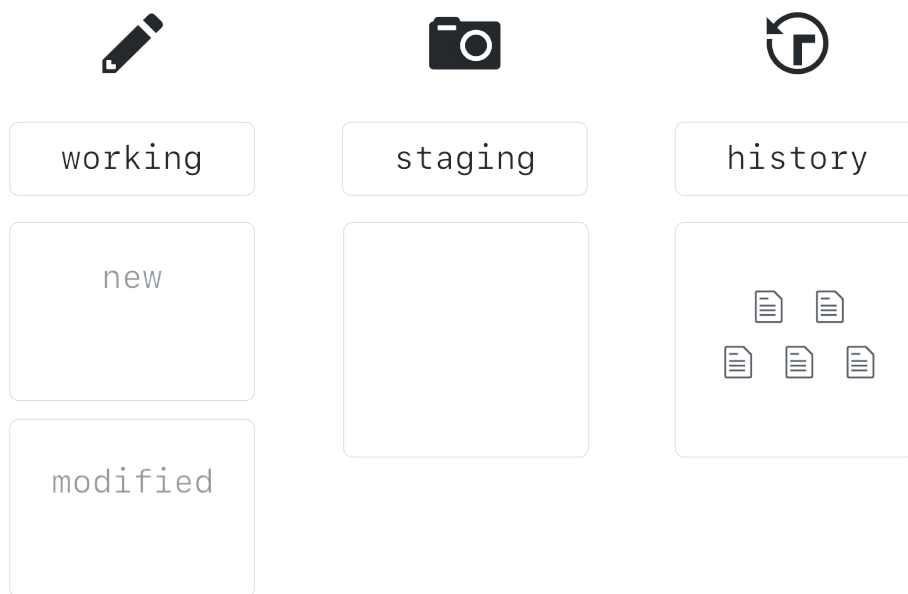
Git tracks these files, and keeps track of your history by organizing your files and changes in three working trees. They are Working, Staging (also called Index), and History. When we are actively making changes to files, this is happening in the working tree.



To add these files to version control, you will create a collection of files that represent a discrete unit of work. We build this unit in the staging area.



When we are satisfied with the unit of work we have assembled, we will take a snapshot of everything in the staging area. This is called a commit.



In order to make a file part of the version controlled directory we will first do a `git add` and then we will do a `git commit`. Let's do it now.

1. First, let's check the status of our working tree: `git status`
2. Move the file from the working tree to the staging area: `git add my-file.md`
3. Let's see what happened: `git status`
4. Now let's take our first snapshot: `git commit`
5. Git will open your default text editor to request a commit message. Simply type your message on the top line of the file. Any line without a `#` will be included in the commit message.
6. Save and close the commit message
7. Let's take another look at our repository status: `git status`

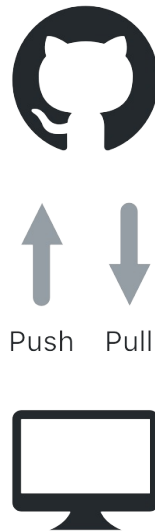
Good commit messages should:

- Be short. ~50 characters is ideal.
- Describe the change introduced by the commit.
- Tell the story of how your project has evolved.

Collaborating on Your Code

Now that you have made some changes in the project locally, let's learn how to push your changes back to the shared class repository for collaboration.

Pushing Your Changes to GitHub



In this case, our remote is GitHub.com, but this could also be your company's internal instance of GitHub Enterprise.

To push your changes to GitHub, you will use the command:

```
$ git push
```

When you push, you will be asked to enter your GitHub username and password. If you would like Git to remember your credentials on this computer, you can cache your credentials using:

- Windows: `git config --global credential.helper wincred`
- Mac: `git config --global credential.helper osxkeychain`

[include](#)

Exploring a Pull Request

Now that we have created a Pull Request, let's explore a few of the features that make Pull Requests the center of collaboration:

Conversation view

Similar to the discussion thread on an Issue, a Pull Request contains a discussion about the changes being made to the repository. This discussion is found in the Conversation tab and also includes a record of all of the commits made on the branch as well as assignments, labels and reviews that have been applied to the pull request.

Commits view

The commits view contains more detailed information about who has made changes to the files. Clicking each commit ID will allow you to see the changes applied in that specific commit.

Files changed view

The Files changed view allows you to see cumulative effect of all the changes made on the branch. We call this the `diff`. Our diff isn't very interesting yet, but as we make changes your diff will become very colorful.

Code Review in Pull Requests

To provide feedback on proposed changes, GitHub offers three levels of commenting:

General Conversation

You can provide general comments on the Pull Request within the *Conversation* tab.

Line Comments

In the files changed view, you can hover over a line to see a blue `+` icon. Clicking this icon will allow you to enter a comment on a specific line. These line level comments are a great way to give additional context on recommended changes. They will also be displayed in the conversation view.

Review

When you are making line comments, you can also choose to *Start a Review*. When you create a review, you can group many line comments together with a general message: Comments, Approve, or Request Changes. Reviews have special power in GitHub when used in conjunction with protected branches.

Activity: Code Review

One of the best ways to ensure code quality is to make peer reviews a part of every Pull Request. Let's review your partner's code now:

1. Click the *Pull Request* tab.
2. Use the *Author* drop down to locate your partner's pull request.
3. Click the *Files Changed* tab.
4. Hover over a single line in the file to see the blue `+`. Click the `+` to add a line comment.
5. Comment on the line and click *Start a review*.
6. Add additional line comments to the pull request.
7. Click *Review changes* in the top right corner.
8. Choose whether to *Approve* or *Request changes*
9. Enter a general comment for the review.
10. Click *Submit review*
11. Click the *Conversation* view to check out your completed review.

Editing Files on GitHub

Since you created the pull request, you will be notified when someone adds a comment or a review. Sometimes, the reviewer will ask you to make a change to the file you just created. Let's see how GitHub makes this easy.

Editing a File on GitHub

To edit a pull request file, you will need to access the *Files Changed* view.

1. Click the *pencil icon* in the top right corner of the diff to edit the file using the GitHub file editor.
2. Make changes to the file based on the comments from your reviewer or your personal perspective.

Committing Changes on GitHub

Once you have made some changes to your file, you will need to create a new commit.

1. Scroll to the bottom of the page to find the *Commit changes* dialog box.
2. Type a *Commit message*.
3. Choose the option to *Commit directly to your branch*.
4. Click *Commit changes*.

Activity: Editing Files in Pull Requests

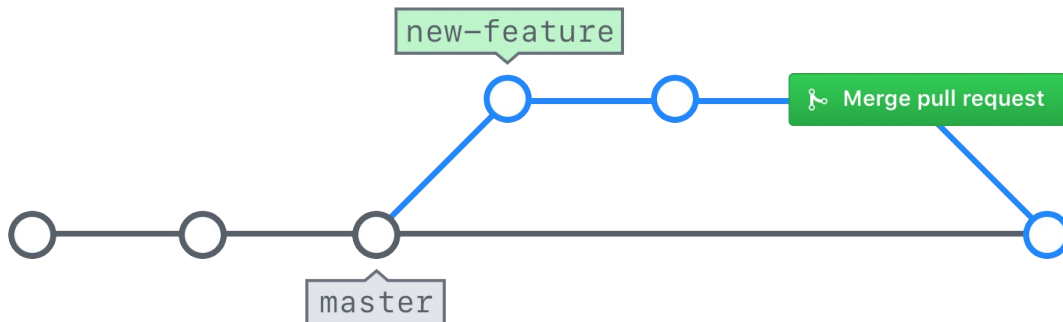
Go back to your Pull Request and make the edits requested by your collaborators.

Merging Pull Requests

Now that you have made the requested changes, your pull request should be ready to merge.

Merge Explained

When you merge your branch, you are taking the content and history from your feature branch and adding it to the content and history of the `master` branch.



Many project teams have established rules about who should merge a pull request.

- Some say it should be the person who created the pull request since they will be the ones to deal with any issues resulting from the merge.
- Others say it should be a single person within the project team to ensure consistency.
- Still others say it can be anyone other than the person who created the pull request to ensure at least one review has taken place.

This is a discussion you should have with the other members of your team.

Merging Your Pull Request

Let's take a look at how you can merge the pull request.

1. Navigate to your Pull Request (HINT: Use the Author or Assignee drop downs to find your Pull Request quickly)
2. Click *Conversation*
3. Scroll to the bottom of the Pull Request and click the *Merge pull request* button
4. Click *Confirm merge*
5. Click *Delete branch*
6. Click *Issues* and confirm your original issue has been closed

GitHub offers three different merge strategies for Pull Requests:

- **Create a merge commit:** This is the traditional option that will perform a standard recursive merge. A new commit will be added that shows the point when the two branches were merged together.
- **Squash and merge:** This option will take all of the commits on your branch and compress them into a single commit. The commit messages will be preserved in the extended commit message for the commit, but the individual commits will be lost.
- **Rebase and merge:** This option will take all of the commits and replay them as if they just happened. This allows GitHub to perform a fast forward merge (and avoids the addition of the merge commit).

Updating Your Local Repository

When you merged your Pull Request, you deleted the branch on GitHub, but this will not automatically update your local copy of the repository. Let's go back to our command line application and get everything in sync.

First, we need to get the changes we made on GitHub into our local copy of the repository:

1. Start by switching back to your default branch: `git checkout master`
2. Retrieve all of the changes from GitHub: `git pull`

`git pull` is a combination command that retrieves all of the changes from GitHub and then updates the branch you are currently on to include the changes from the remote. The two separate commands being run are `git fetch` and `git merge`

Cleaning Up the Unneeded Branches

If you type `git branch --all` you will probably see that, even though you deleted your branch on the remote, it is still listed in your local copy of the repository, both as a local branch and as a read-only remote tracking branch. Let's get rid of those extra branches.

1. Take a look at your local branches: `git branch --all`
2. Let's see which branches are safe to delete: `git branch --merged`
3. Delete the local branch: `git branch -d <branch-name>`
4. Take another look at the list: `git branch --all`
5. Your local branch is gone but the remote tracking branch is still there. Delete the remote tracking branch: `git pull --prune`

Adding the `--merged` option to the `git branch` command allows you to see which branches do not contain unique work when compared to the checked out branch. In this case, since we are checked out to master, we will use this command to ensure all of the changes on our feature branch have been merged to production before we delete the branch.

If you would like pruning of the remote tracking branches to be set as your default behavior when you pull, you can use the following configuration option: `git config --global fetch.prune true`.

Viewing Local Project History

In this section, you will discover commands for viewing the history of your project.

Using Git Log

When you clone a repository, you receive the history of all of the commits made in that repository. The `log` command allows us to view that history on our local machine.

Let's take a look at some of the option switches you can use to customize your view of the project history. You can find these options, and many more, on git-scm.com. (Note: `--graph` is default on most Git Bash for Windows terminals.)

```
$ git log
$ git log --oneline
$ git log --oneline --graph
$ git log --oneline --graph --decorate
$ git log --oneline --graph --decorate --all
$ git log --stat
$ git log --patch
```

Use the up and down arrows or press enter to view additional log entries. Type `q` to quit viewing the log and return to the command prompt.

Streamlining Your Workflow with Aliases

So far we have learned quite a few commands. Some, like the log commands, can be long and tedious to type. In this section, you will learn how to create custom shortcuts for Git commands.

Creating Custom Aliases

An alias allows you to type a shortened command to represent a long string on the command line.

For example, let's create an alias for the log command we learned earlier.

Original Command

```
$ git log --oneline --graph --decorate --all
```

Creating the Alias

```
$ git config --global alias.lol "log --oneline --graph --decorate --all"
```

Using the Alias

```
$ git lol
```

Explore Other Helpful Aliases

Check out these resources for a list of common aliases:

- git-scm.com/book/en/v2/Git-Basics-Git-Aliases A helpful overview of some of the most common git aliases.

We also encourage you to read through these three blog posts by GitHub developer Phil Hack. His tips are referenced throughout the manual.

- [GitHub Flow Aliases](#)
- [Git Migrate](#)
- [Git Alias Open URL](#)

Pro Tip # 1: To edit aliases by hand, you can open the gitconfig file with your default editor.

```
git config --global alias.ec "config --global -e"
```

Pro Tip # 2: To checkout to another branch, you can make a quick shortcut.

```
git config --global alias.ch "checkout"
```

Pro Tip # 3: To checkout to a brand new branch, you can easily extend your existing shortcut.

```
git config --global alias.cob "checkout -b"
```

Pro Tip # 4: You can create aliases that only call one command.

```
git config --global alias.s "status -s"
```

Pro Tip # 5: Clean up branches quickly and easily.

```
$ git config alias.dlb '!git checkout <DEFAULT-BRANCH> && git pull --prune && git branch --merged | grep -v "\*" | xargs -n 1 git branch -d'
```


What is a merge conflict?

When you work with a team (and even sometimes when you are working alone) you will occasionally create merge conflicts. At first, merge conflicts can be intimidating, but resolving them is actually quite easy. In this section you will learn how!

These exercises will focus on the technical "how". In real merge conflicts, it's important to know who to ask in case you aren't sure how to resolve the conflict on your own. Usually it's a good idea to ask the person who made the conflicting changes, or someone who is a CODEOWNER on the file.

Local Merge Conflicts

Merge conflicts are a natural and minor side effect of distributed version control. They only happen under very specific circumstances.

- Changes to the same "hunk" of the same file
- Two different branches
- Changes on both branches happened since the branches have diverged

Resolving a Merge Conflict

Let's try to create a merge conflict, and fix it together. You and a partner will each create separate branches, create a file with the same name, and then try to merge. The first will merge cleanly, the second will have a merge conflict. Work together to resolve the merge conflict.

1. In our class repository, create the branch that you will be working on and name it something memorable like `USERNAME-conflict`.
2. Choose a file that both you and your partner will edit. (One of your files from earlier would work well.) On your branch, edit that file. The file name must be the same file name that your partner uses. Make sure the content inside of the file is different, and that neither file is empty.
3. Create a pull request in the class repository with `base: master` and `compare: USERNAME-conflict`.
4. You will see that the *first* pull request can merge well.
5. When you see the merge conflict in the *second* pull request, work together to resolve the merge conflict.
 - i. Working locally, merge `master` into the feature branch.
 - ii. When you see there's a conflict, that's OK! The files that have conflicts are listed under `Unmerged Paths`. Type `git status` to verify which file has the conflict.
 - iii. Open that file in your text editor, and look for the merge conflict markers. (`<<<<<<` , `=====` , `>>>>>>`)
 - iv. Both branches' versions of code are present - pick which one you want to keep, and save the changes.
 - v. Add and commit the saved changes to resolve the merge conflict.
 - vi. Push the feature branch up to the remote, and see the resolution in the pull request.
6. Merge the pull request.

What is a merge message? In this example, we are doing a recursive merge. A recursive merge creates a new commit that permanently records the point in time when these two branches were merged together. We will talk more about Git's merge strategies a little later.

Project: GitHub Games

In this section, we will work on a project repository called `github-games`.

A `github-games` repository has been created for you in the `githubschool` organization. You can access the repository at `https://github.com/githubschool/github-games-USERNAME`.

If you're using the Fork and Pull Workflow, [don't forget to look in the appendix for a more thorough explanation](#).

Workflow Review: Updating the README.md

Now you will practice the GitHub Flow from beginning to end by updating the link in the README to point to your fork of the repository.

Remember, your copy of the website will be rendered at `https://githubschool.github.io/github-games-USERNAME`.

This link also appears in the repository description. It is a good idea to edit the website URL in the description so you can easily access your game.

If you click the link, you will see the text in the `README.md`. We have intentionally broken this repository so we can fix it together.

Since this is a review, we have written these steps at a high level. As we complete the review, we will show you a few shortcuts for the commands you learned in the previous activity:

1. Clone your copy of the repository: `git clone https://github.com/githubschool/github-games-USERNAME.git`
2. Create a new branch called `readme-update`: `git checkout -b readme-update`
3. Edit the URL in the README.md.
4. Commit the changes to your branch.
5. Push your branch to GitHub: `git push -u origin readme-update`
6. Create a Pull Request *in your repository* (base: `master`, compare: `readme-update`)
7. Merge your Pull Request.
8. Delete the branch on GitHub.
9. Update your local copy of the repository: `git pull --prune`

`git checkout -b readme-update` is a shortcut command that allows you to combine the creation of the branch (`git branch readme-update`) and checking out to that branch (`git checkout readme-update`). The `-b` tells Git to create a new branch.

`git push -u origin readme-update` is the slightly longer version of the push command that should be used when you push a new branch for the first time.

The `-u` is the short version of the option `--set-upstream`. This option tells Git to create a relationship between our local branch and a remote tracking branch of the same name.

You only need to use this long command the first time you push a new branch. After that, you can simply use `git push`.

`git config --global alias.bclean '!f() { branches=$(git branch --merged ${1-master} | grep -v " ${1-master}$"); [-z "$branches"] || git branch -d $branches; }; f'` could be helpful here. **Take a peek in the appendix to learn how!**

Protected Branches & CODEOWNERS

In some workflows, you will want to protect critical branches to ensure the code being merged to those branches has passed the required checks and received appropriate peer review. There are several methods for this, including **Protected Branches** and **Code Owners**.

Protected Branches

Repository maintainers can prevent merges to specific branches that have not met pre-defined criteria. This criteria can include peer reviews, tests run by integrations such as a Continuous Integration services or code quality, or until a specific code owner has reviewed and approved changes.

Let's enable protected branches:

1. Select the **Settings** tab.
2. Select **Branches** from the menu on the left side of the screen.
3. Click the **Choose a branch...** dropdown and select the branch you would like to protect, for example, `master`.
4. Check the **Protect this branch** option.

Without checking any other options, basic branch protection prevents force-pushes and prevents it from being deleted. To learn more about the options available, check out [the documentation for this feature](#).

CODEOWNERS

Repository maintainers can define exactly which people and teams need to review sets of changes by creating a **CODEOWNERS** file. For example, you could use CODEOWNERS to ensure:

- your team's Javascript expert reviews all files with a `.js` extension
- your technical documentation team reviews all changes in the `docs/` folder
- your security team reviews any new dependencies listed in the `package.json` file

Let's create a CODEOWNERS file:

1. Go out to the `Code` tab of your repository.
2. Click the `Create new file` button.
3. In the `Name your file...` textbox enter `CODEOWNERS` (no extension necessary). You can add this to a `.github/` directory if desired by entering `.github/CODEOWNERS`.
4. On the first line, type `* @YOUR_USERNAME`
 - This means that you will be the default owner for everything in the repo, unless a later match takes preference.
5. On the next line, type `*.js @GITHUBTEACHER`
 - Order is important. The last matching pattern for a given change takes precedence.
6. Scroll down, and type a commit message into the `Commit new file` dialog box.
7. Click the `Commit new file` button to save your changes.
8. Now that you have created a CODEOWNERS file, go back to your branch protection settings and select the option to **Require pull request reviews before merging** and **Require review from Code Owners**. Remember to click **Save changes**.

For more information on how to format the CODEOWNERS file, check out [the documentation](#)

Searching for Events in Your Code

In this section, we will learn how we can use `git bisect` to find the commit that introduced a bug into our repository.

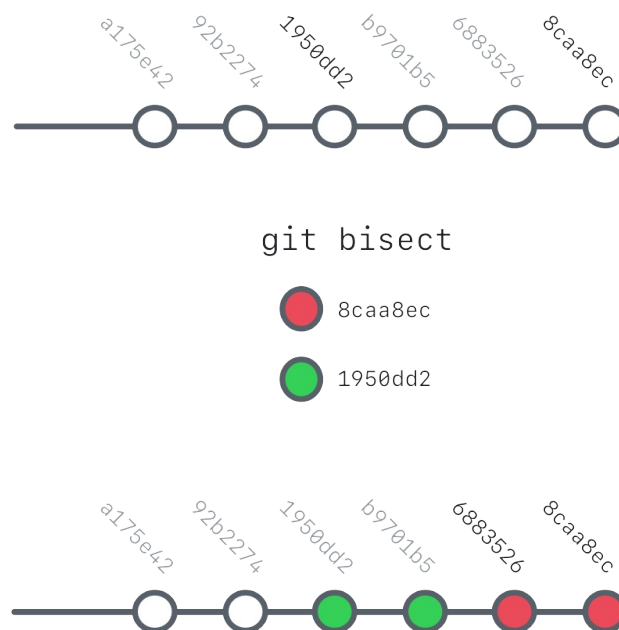
What is `git bisect` ?

Using a binary search, `git bisect` can help us detect specific events in our code. For example, you could use bisect to locate the commit where:

- a bug was introduced.
- a new feature was added.
- a benchmark's performance improved.

How it works

`git bisect` works by cutting the history between two points in half and then checking you out to that commit. You then check whether the bug/feature exists at that point and tell Git the result. From there, Git will do another division, etc until you have located the desired commit.



When you are doing a bisect, you are essentially in a detached head state. It is important to remember to end the bisect with `git bisect reset` before attempting to perform other operations with Git.

Finding the Bug in Our Project

The Long Way

1. Initiate the binary search: `git bisect start` .
2. Specify the commit where you noticed the code was broken: `git bisect bad <SHA>` .
3. Specify the commit where you knew things were working: `git bisect good <SHA>` .
4. Bisect will check you out to the midpoint between good and bad.
5. Run a test to see if the game would work at this point. Our test is to use `ls` to see if an `index.html` file exists.

6. If the game is still broken (there *is no* `index.html` file), type: `git bisect bad` .
7. If the game works (and there *is an* `index.html` file), type: `git bisect good` .
8. Git will bisect again and wait for you to test. This will happen until Git has enough information to pinpoint the first bad commit.
9. When Git has detected the error, it will provide a message that `SHA is the first bad commit.`
10. Exit the bisect process: `git bisect reset` .

The Short Way

Bisect can also run the tests on your code automatically. Let's try it again using a shortcut command and a test:

1. `git bisect start <bad-SHA> <good-SHA>`
2. `git bisect run ls index.html`
3. `git bisect reset`

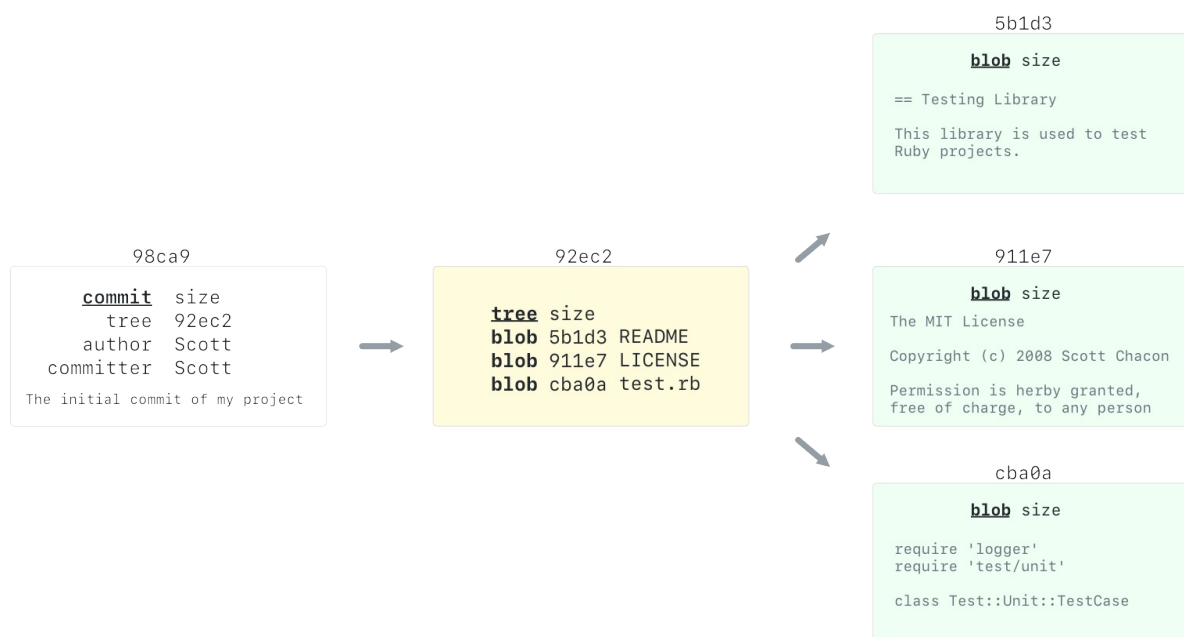
Reverting Commits

In this section, we will learn about commands that re-write history and understand when you should or shouldn't use them.

How Commits Are Made

Every commit in Git is a unique snapshot of the project at that point in time. It contains the following information:

- Pointers to the current objects in the repository
- Commit author and email (from your config settings)
- Commit date and time
- Commit message



Each commit also contains the commit ID of its parent commit.

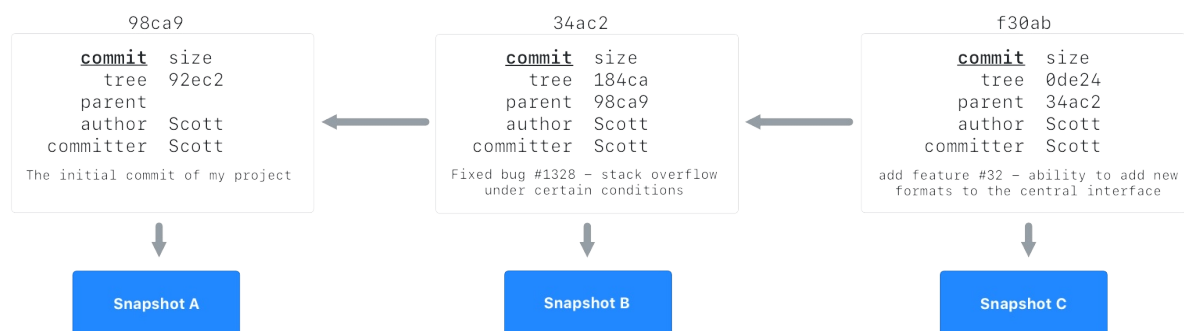


Image source: ProGit v2 by Scott Chacon

Safe Operations

Git's data structure gives it integrity but its distributed nature also requires us to be aware of how certain operations will impact the commits that have already been shared.

If an operation will change a commit ID that has been pushed to the remote (also known as a public commit), we must be careful in choosing the operations to perform.

Guidelines for Common Commands

Command	Cautions
<code>revert</code>	Generally safe since it creates a new commit.
<code>commit --amend</code>	Only use on local commits.
<code>reset</code>	Only use on local commits.
<code>cherry-pick</code>	Only use on local commits.
<code>rebase</code>	Only use on local commits.

Reverting Commits

To get your game working, you will need to reverse the commit that incorrectly renames `index.html`.

Warning: Before you reverse the commit, it is a good idea to make sure you will not be inadvertently reversing other changes that were lumped into the same commit. To see what was changed in the commit, use `git show SHA`.

1. Initialize the revert: `git revert <SHA>`
2. Type a commit message.
3. Push your changes to GitHub.

Helpful Git Commands

In this section, we will explore some helpful Git commands.

Moving and Renaming Files with Git

1. Create a new branch named `slow-down`.
2. On *line 9* of the `index.html` file, change the background url to `(images/texture.jpg)`.
3. On *line 78*, change the timing for the game to speed it up or slow it down.
4. Save your changes.
5. See what git is tracking: `git status`
6. Create a new, empty directory: `mkdir images`
7. Move the texture file into the directory with git: `git mv texture.jpg images/texture.jpg`

Staging Hunks of Changes

Crafting atomic commits is an important part of creating a readable and informative history of the project.

1. See what git is tracking: `git status`.
2. Move some parts of some files to the staging area with the `--patch` flag: `git add -p`.
3. Stage the hunk related to the image move: `y`
4. Leave the hunk related to the speed change in the working area: `n`

Wondering what all of those other options are for the hunks? Use the `?` to see a list of options above the hunk.

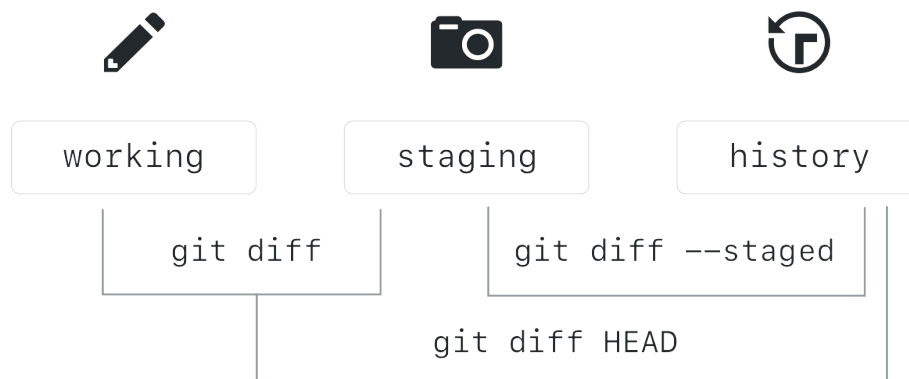
`git config --global alias.cm "!git add -A && git commit -m"` could be helpful here. Check out the appendix to see how!

Viewing Local Changes

Now that you have some files in the staging area and the working directory, let's explore how you can compare different points in your repository.

Comparing Changes within the Repository

`git diff` allows you to see the difference between any two refs in the repository. The diagram below shows how you can compare the content of your working area, staging, and HEAD (or the most recent commit):



Let's try these commands on the repository:

```
$ git diff
$ git diff --staged
$ git diff HEAD
$ git diff --color-words
```

`git diff` will also allow you to compare between branches, commits, and tags by simply typing:

```
$ git diff <REF-1> <REF-2>
$ git diff master slow-down
$ git diff origin/master master
$ git diff 2710 b745
```

Notice that, just like merges, diffs are directional. It is easiest to think of it as "diff back to starting at " or "see what is *not* in but *is* in ". The final example shows how to compare two commits based on their commit hashes. This exact command will not work for everyone since the commits in your own repository will have different hashes.

There's a helpful alias for opening the remote directly from your command line. Check out the appendix if you'd like to know more!

Tags and Releases

You may want to put tags or releases on certain commits in your code's history to mark specific states or places in time. To do this, you could use Git's **tag** feature, or you could use GitHub's **release** feature.

Tags

A tag is a pointer that points to a specific commit. Unlike commits, tags are *not* immutable. They can be moved and changed. Let's practice a bit with tags.

Tags can be created locally with Git, or on GitHub. When creating a tag from the command line, it's recommended to create an "annotated" tag. The following example creates an annotated tag with the `-a` flag, names the tag `v1.0`, and connects it to whichever commit SHA is included.

- `git tag -a v1.0 <SHA>`

To see all tags, type `git tag --list`.

Another caveat with tags is that they are not automatically pushed up with commits. To push tags, type `git push --tags`.

You can also set this as a default with configs using `git config push.followTags true` which will automatically push tags when their associated commits are pushed. [Read more about this config setting](#).

Releases

Releases are a GitHub feature that allow you to add an executable to the tag for easier access by visitors who just want to download and install your software. Releases are tags, because they point to a specific commit and can be named like any other tag. However, releases can also include attached binaries.

Add a Release to GitHub-Games

1. On GitHub, navigate to the **Code** tab of the repository.
2. Under your repository name, click Releases.
3. Click Draft a new release.
4. Type a name for the tag. We recommend you use semantic versioning.
5. Select a branch that contains the project you want to release. Usually, you'll want to release against your master branch, unless you're releasing beta software. You can also select a recent commit by choosing the recent commits tab.
6. Type a title and description that describes your release.
7. If you're ready to publicize your release, click Publish release. Otherwise, click Save draft to work on it later.

Notice that you could drag and drop or select files manually in the binaries box, or select "This is a pre-release" to notify users that it's not ready for production.

Discussion Guide: Team Workflows and Branching Strategies

Now is a good time to discuss workflows - what works for you and your team, what might work, and what you've been doing in the past. Here are some topics you will want to discuss with your team as you establish your ideal process. Have a conversation either synchronously or in issues in the class repository about different workflows.

1. Which branching strategy will we use?
2. Which branch will serve as our "master" or deployed code?
3. How will you protect your code?
4. Will we use naming conventions for our branches?
5. How will we use labels and assignees?
6. Will we use milestones?
7. Will we have required elements of Issues or Pull Requests (e.g. shipping checklists)?
8. Who is expected to review your work? Do you plan to involve other teams?
9. How will we indicate sign-off on Pull Requests?
10. Who will merge pull requests?
11. How will you teach your workflow to your team? If it already exists, how is it taught to new hires?
12. What integrations will be used in different stages of development? Will all teams be using the same tools?
13. If users have questions about Git, GitHub, or their workflows, who do they ask? How do they know who to ask?

Initializing a New Local Repository

Let's create a local repository that we can use to practice the next set of commands.

1. Navigate to the directory where you will place your practice repo (`cd ..` to get back to the parent folder).
2. Create a new directory and initialize it as a git repository: `git init practice-repo`
3. CD into your new repository: `cd practice-repo`
4. Create an empty new file named `README.md` :
 - o Bash: `touch README.md`
 - o PowerShell: `Out-File README.md`
5. Add and commit the README.md file.

Since we will be using this as our practice repository, we need to generate some files and commits. Here are some scripts to make this easier:

Bash:

```
for d in {1..6}; do touch "file${d}.md"; git add "file${d}.md"; git commit -m "adding file ${d}"; done
```

PowerShell:

```
for ($d=1; $d -le 6; $d++) { Out-File file$d.md; git add file$d.md; git commit -m "adding file$d.md"; }
```

You might see a command during this section, `tree .git`. If you're on a machine where `tree .git` doesn't work (probably a Windows machine), try `cmd //c tree` instead.

Fixing Commit Mistakes

In this activity, we will begin to explore some of the ways Git and GitHub can help us shape our project history.

Revising Your Last Commit

`git commit --amend` allows us to make changes to the commit that HEAD is currently pointing to. Two of the most common uses are:

- Re-writing commit messages
- Adding files to the commit

Let's see this in action:

1. Create a new file:
 - Bash: `touch file7.md`
 - PowerShell: `Out-File file7.md`
2. When you are adding files to the previous commit, they should be in the staging area. Move your file to the staging area: `git add file7.md`
3. `git commit --amend`
4. The text editor will open, allowing you to edit your commit message.

You can actually amend any data stored by the last commit such as commit author, email, etc.

Rewriting History with Git Reset

When you want to make changes to commits further back in history, you will need to use a more powerful command:

```
git reset .
```

Understanding Reset

Sometimes we are working on a branch and we decide things aren't going quite like we had planned. We want to reset some, or even all, of our files to look like what they were at a different point in history.



Before

After

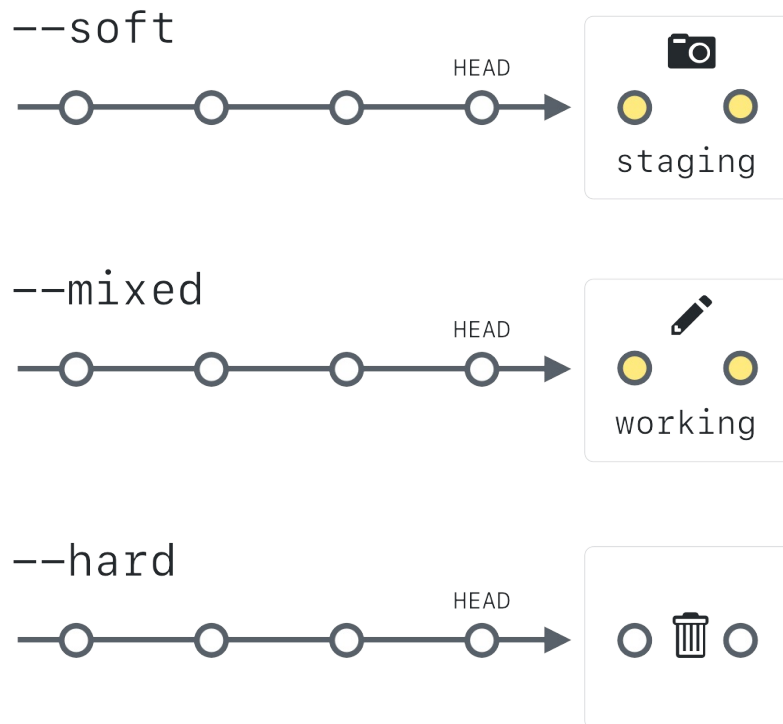


Remember, there are three different snapshots of our project at any given time. The first is the most recent commit (also known as HEAD). The second is the staging area (also called the index). The third is the working directory containing any new, deleted, or modified files.

The `git reset` command has three modes, and they allow us to change some or all of these three snapshots.

It also helps to know what branches technically are: each is a pointer, or reference, to the latest commit in a line of work. As we add new commits, the currently checked-out branch "moves forward," so that it always points to the most recent commit.

Reset Modes



The three modes for `git reset` are: `--soft`, `--mixed`, and `--hard`. For these examples, assume that we have a "clean" working directory, i.e. there are no uncommitted changes.

`--soft`

`git reset --soft <SHA>` moves the current branch to point at the `<SHA>`. However, the working directory and staging area remain untouched. Since the snapshot that current branch points to now differs from the index's snapshot, this command effectively stages all differences between those snapshots. This is a good command to use when you have made a large number of small commits and you would like to regroup them into a single commit.

`--mixed`

`git reset --mixed <SHA>` makes the current branch *and* the staging area look like the `<SHA>` snapshot. *This is the default mode*: if you don't include a mode flag, Git will assume you want to do a `--mixed` reset. `--mixed` is useful if you want to keep all of your changes in the working directory, but change whether and how you commit those changes.

`--hard`

`git reset --hard <SHA>` is the most drastic option. With this, Git will make all 3 snapshots, the current branch, the staging area, *and* your working directory, look like they did at `<other-commit>`. This can be dangerous! We've assumed so far that our working directory is clean. If it is not, and you have uncommitted changes, `git reset --hard` will *delete all of those changes*. Even with a clean working directory, use `--hard` only if you're sure you want to completely undo earlier changes.

Reset Soft

Using the practice repository we created earlier, let's try a `reset --soft`.

1. View the history of our project: `git log --oneline --decorate`
2. Identify the current location of `HEAD`.
3. Go back two commits in history: `git reset --soft HEAD~2`
4. See the tip of our branch (and `HEAD`) is now sitting two commits earlier than it was before: `git log --oneline --decorate`
5. The changes we made in the last two commits should be in the staging area: `git status`
6. All the files still exist locally: `ls`
7. Let's remove the extra file we created earlier: `git rm --cached file7.md`
8. Now, we'll re-commit these changes without the extra file: `git commit -m "re-add file 5 and 6"`

In this example, the tilde tells git we want to reset to two commits before the current location of `HEAD`. You can also use the first few characters of the commit ID to pinpoint the location where you would like to reset.

Reset Mixed

Next we will try the default mode of reset, `reset --mixed`:

1. Once again, we will start by viewing the history of our project: `git log --oneline`
2. Go back one commit in history: `git reset HEAD~`
3. See where the tip of the branch is pointing: `git log --oneline --decorate`
4. The changes we made in the last commit have been moved back to the working directory: `git status`
5. All the files still exist locally: `ls`
6. Move the files to the staging area before we can commit them: `git add file5.md file6.md`
7. Re-commit the files: `git commit -m "re-add file 5 and 6"`

Notice that although we have essentially made the exact same commit (adding file 5 and 6 together with the same `HEAD` and commit message) we still get a new commit ID. This can help us see why the reset command should never be used on commits that have been pushed to the remote.

Reset Hard

Last but not least, let's try a hard reset.

1. Start by viewing the history of our project with: `git log --oneline`
2. Reset to the point in time where the only file that existed was the `README.md`: `git reset --hard <SHA>`
3. See that all of the commits are gone: `git log --oneline`
4. Notice your working directory is clean: `git status`
5. See that the only files in your repository are the `README.md` and `file7.md`: `ls`

Warning: Remember, `git reset --hard` overwrites your working directory, staging area, and history. This means that uncommitted changes you have made to your files will be completely lost. Don't use it unless you really want to discard your changes. Any files that are untracked will remain and be unchanged.

Does Gone Really Mean Gone?

The answer: It depends!

```
$ git reflog
```

The reflog is a record of every place `HEAD` has been. In a few minutes we will see how the reflog can be helpful in allowing us to restore previously committed changes. But first, we need to be aware of some of the reflog's limitations:

- **The reflog is only local.** It is not pushed to the remote and only includes your local history. In other words, you can't see the reflog for someone else's commits and they can't see yours.
- **The reflog is a limited time offer.** By default, reachable commits are displayed in the reflog for 90 days, but unreachable commits (meaning commits that are not attached to a branch) are only displayed for 30 days.

Sometimes, you'll want to save your work in a commit without having to think of a commit message, or before you're ready to organize your changes. If that's the case, you can create aliases to create "save points". See the appendix with aliases to learn how!

Getting it Back: `git cherry-pick`

We just learned how `reflog` can help us find local changes that have been discarded. So what if:

You Just Want That One Commit

Cherry picking allows you to pick up a commit from your `reflog` or another branch of your project and move it to your current branch. Right now, your file directory and log should look like this:

```
$ ls
README.md
$ git log --oneline
84nqdkq initializing repo with README
```

Let's cherry pick the commit where we added file 4:

1. Find the commit ID where you added `file4.md`: `git reflog`
2. Cherry-pick that commit: `git cherry-pick <SHA>`

Now when you view your directory and log, you should see:

```
$ ls
file4.md
README.md
$ git log --oneline
eanu482 adding file 4
84nqdkq initializing repo with README
```

Is the commit ID the same as the one you used in the cherry pick command? Why or why not?

Remember, when using any commands that change history, it's important to make these changes before pushing to GitHub. When you change a commit ID that has been pushed to the remote, you risk creating problems for your collaborators. {`.warning`}

Oops, I Didn't Mean to Reset

Sometimes, you `git reset --hard` a little further than intended and want to restore that work. The good news is, that `git reset --hard` doesn't just work by going back in time, it can also go forward:

1. View the history of everywhere HEAD has pointed: `git reflog`
2. Reset to the point in time where the original `file6.md` was created: `git reset --hard <SHA>`
3. See your restored history: `git log --oneline`

Take a look at the commit IDs in `git log --oneline` compared to `git reflog`. What do you notice?

Why didn't this command cause a merge conflict since we had already cherry-picked file 4. The reason is that `git reset --hard` is not trying to merge the two histories together, it is simply moving the branch to point to a new commit. In this case, this was what we wanted. In other cases, this could cause us to lose any work we may have done after the original reset.

See how to avoid tragedy with a convenient alias in the appendix.

Merge Strategies: Rebase

In this section, we will discuss another popular merge strategy, rebasing.

Understanding Git Merge Strategies

Git uses three primary merge strategies:

Fast Forward

A fast forward merge assumes that no changes have been made on the base branch since the feature branch was created. This means that the branch pointer for base can simply be "fast forwarded" to point to the same commit as the feature branch.

Recursive

A recursive merge means that changes have been made on both the base branch and the feature branch and git needs to recursively combine them. With a recursive merge, a new "merge commit" is made to mark the point in time when the two branches came together. This merge commit is special because it has more than one parent.

Octopus

A merge of 3 or more branches is an octopus merge. This will also create a merge commit with multiple parents.

About Git Rebase

`git rebase` enables you to modify your commit history in a variety of ways. For example, you can use it to reorder commits, edit them, squash multiple commits into one, and much more.

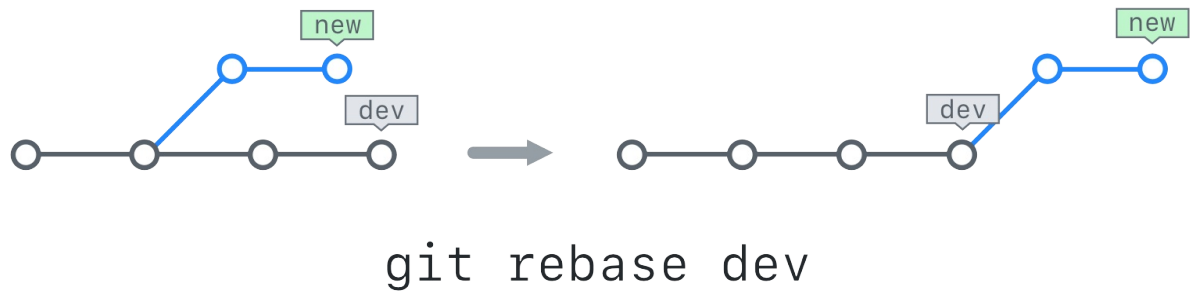
To enable all of this, `rebase` comes in several forms. For today's class, we'll be using interactive rebase: `git rebase --interactive`, or `git rebase -i` for short.

Typically, you would use `git rebase -i` to:

- Replay one branch on top of another branch
- Edit previous commit messages
- Combine multiple commits into one
- Delete or revert commits that are no longer necessary

Creating a Linear History

One of the most common uses of rebase is to eliminate recursive merges and create a more linear history. In this activity, we will learn how it is done.



Set Up

1. Find the SHA of the initial commit: `git log --oneline`
2. Reset to the SHA of the initial commit: `git reset --hard SHA`
3. Create a new branch and check out to it: `git checkout -b rebase-me`
4. Cherry-pick files 4-6 onto the `rebase-me` branch using the reflog.
5. Checkout to master: `git checkout master`
6. Cherry-pick files 1-3 onto the `master` branch using the reflog.
7. Look at your history: `git log --oneline --graph --decorate --all`
8. If you merged now, it would be a recursive merge.

Begin the Rebase

1. Checkout to the `rebase-me` branch: `git checkout rebase-me`
2. Start the merge: `git rebase -i master`
3. Your text editor will open, allowing you to see the commits to be rebased.
4. Save and close the `rebase-todo`.
5. Watch your rebase happen on the command line.
6. Take another look at your history: `git log --oneline --graph --decorate --all`
7. If you merged now, it would be a fast-forward merge.

Finish the Merge

1. Checkout to master, the branch you will merge into: `git checkout master`
2. Merge your changes in to master: `git merge rebase-me`

If you'd like some help keeping everything clean with an alias, don't forget to check the appendix!