

Introduction to the Shell

How to become hackerman in less than 4 hours

Programming Practices for Economics Research

Department of Economics, Univeristy of Zurich

Fall 2018



Learning Objectives

At the end of the session you will:

- ➊ Understand the structure of your computer a bit better
- ➋ Do basic tasks on your computer using the Shell
- ➌ Have an idea of the power of more advanced Shell commands
- ➍ Know where to look up stuff

What is it?

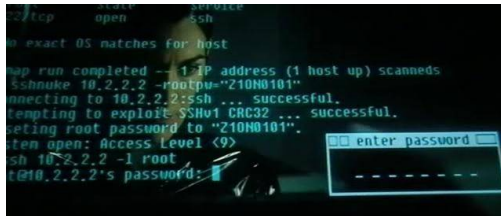


Figure 1: The Matrix

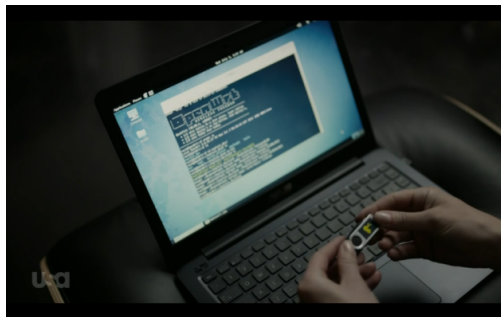


Figure 2: Mr Robot

Background

At a high level, computers do four things:

- run programs
- store data
- communicate with each other
- interact with us

Shell:

The shell is a **comand line interface (CLI)**

- offers a way to interact with the computer via text
- is a program like any other but it's main job is to run other programs
- The most popular Unix shell is bash (Bourne Again SHell).
- It works in a **read-evaluate-print loop (REPL)**.
- When you type a command and press Return,
 - ① The shell **reads** your command
 - ② The shell **evaluates** what it means and executes it
 - ③ The shell **prints** the output of the command

Why should you learn it?

Many programs and tools do not have a graphical interface. You run them via a shell command, e.g.

- apt-get / homebrew to quickly install software
- snakemake to automatically run a whole research project

Reproducing the first stages of a project (moving files / data by hand) is very hard

- The shell allows us to document the exact order in which every step was taken
- This is especially useful for public / messy data to make your work reproducible

Why should you learn it? #2

The command line is often the easiest way to interact with remote machines

- Allows you to execute projects in the cloud

The shell is very powerful

- allows you to combine existing tools with only a few keystrokes
- to set up pipelines
- to handle large volumes of data automatically

For Windows users

Shells of most Unix derivatives (Linux, OS X) are fairly similar and the basic tools are available

- Linux users just press `Ctrl + Alt + T`
- Mac Users press `Cmd + Space` and start typing `terminal`

The Windows shell differs considerably from this

- Download `cygwin` to use the functionality and the commands of the Linux shell (see the installation guide)

Command structure and types

- `$ command -options (or --longoption) arguments`
- `$ which [executable]`; determines the exact location of an executable

Note:

- a whitespace on the command line is an argument separator,
- a `-` starts options,
- a `--` starts longoptions.
- but it's in the programmers freedom to violate this standard

Starting and Exiting a program

Starting

- You can start programs in an interactive mode
- e.g. by typing `python`, you just started a python session
- Now you type python code, not shell code

Exiting

- It is therefore important to know how to exit a program.
- A program should tell you how, if not normally the following work:
 - The `exit` command for the program, e.g. `quit()` in python or `R`
 - Press `CTRL+C`
 - Press `CTRL+X`
 - Type `quit` or `q`

... Except for VIM

VIM:

- Press ESC, then type :q! (without saving) or :x (with saving)

Hands on

Getting help

- `$ whatis [command]`; display a brief description of a command
- `$ apropos [string]`; search the whatis database
- `$ man [executable]`; most executables provide a piece of documentation, called the manual page. Don't google a command, rtfm
- `$ help [builtins]`; help facility for shell builtins
- `$ [executable] --help`; option that displays a description of the command's supported syntax and options

Files and Directories

Before we get started...

- the part of the Operating System that handles files and directories is called the filesystem
- We differentiate between files which hold information and directories (or folders) which hold files
- A handful of commands are used frequently to interact with these structures. You will know them by the end of the lecture

Basic Bash

- The dollar sign stands for a prompt waiting for input

\$

- Type `whoami` and press Enter to see how the current user is named

\$ `whoami`

Basic Bash

- When type `whoami` the shell finds the program
- The program is run
- The output of the program is shown
- A new prompt is displayed, indicating that it's ready for new commands

Basic Bash

- To know where in the filesystem you are type `pwd` (print working directory)

```
$ pwd
```

Directory structure

- To understand what our home directory is, let's look at the directory structure
- It is organized as a tree with the root directory `/` at the very top
- Everything else is contained in it
- `/` refers to the leading slash in `/Users/me` (Mac and Linux) or `/cygdrive` (Windows with cygwin)

Directory structure

Mac and Linux:

- Underneath `/Users` the data of the other user accounts on the machine is stored
- E.g. `/Users/someusername`
- If we see `/Users/me`, we are inside `/Users` because of the first part of its name. Similarly, `/Users` resides in the root `/`

Windows:

- Underneath `/cygdrive` you find the drives of your system (i.e, C, D, etc.)

What files are in the directory?

- list directory contents

```
$ ls [directory ...]
```

- important options:
 - -F (for flag); distinguish directories ('/'), executables ('*'), symbolic links, etc.
 - -a (for all); include directory entries whose names begin with a dot (i.e., .git)
 - -l (for long); prints the output in the long format
 - -h (for human readable): prints filesize in KB, MB, GB, TB instead of #Bytes
 - -d (for directories): show directories only

How can I change my working directory?

- to change your working directory

```
$ cd [directory]
```

- some shortcuts:
 - change to the current directory: `$ cd .`
 - change to the parent directory: `$ cd ..`
 - change to the home directory: `$ cd ~` | `cd`
 - change to previous directory: `$ cd -`
 - tab completion (press TAB once, twice, ALT+*)

How can I view the content of a file?

- View the file in the shell

```
$ less [filename]
```

NOTE: `man` uses `less` to show the manual page

- to navigate in `less`:
 - space: jump a page
 - b: jump a page back
 - /: search and highlight string in file/manualpage
 - q: quit
- Print out the file into the shell

```
$ cat [filename]
```

```
$ tail [filename]
```

```
$ head [filename]
```

```
$ more [filename] # less is more more
```


In action...

- Navigate to your home directory
- list the files in your home directory
- go to Nelle's Data, read some of her .txt files
- read the haiku.txt file in Nelle's writing folder

Creating Stuff

The Atom editor

What you should have got from the installation guide:

- download Atom
- the command palette: `CMD+SHIFT+P`

Add atom command to the shell (Mac and Linux)

- run `atom --help`
- enter the following commands to make Atom your default editor:

```
$ export EDITOR='atom -w'
```

```
$ export TEXEDIT='atom'
```

```
$ alias atom="atom --new-window"
```

- those settings will only be active for the current session. If you want to make them persistent, you can copy those terms into your `.bash_profile` in your home directory

Create a new file

```
$ touch [filename]
```

```
$ touch myproject/data.txt
```

Remove a file or a directory

```
$ rm [filename | directory]
```

- there is **no undelete**
- important options
 - `-i` (for interactive); request confirmation before removing
 - `-v` (for verbose); show files which are being removed
 - `-r` (for recursive); required for directories; attempt to remove the file hierarchy rooted in each file argument
- Exmaples:

```
$ rm somefile.txt
```

```
$ rm some-subfolder/somefile.txt
```

```
$ rm -r some-directory/
```

Create or remove an empty directory

```
$ mkdir [directory] | rmdir [directory]
```

Copy file, or copy files to directory

```
$ cp [source file ...] [target file | target directory]
```

- important options
 - `-i` ; ask for permission before overwriting
 - `-r` ; required for directories
 - `-u` (for update); copy files that don't exist or are modified than in the existing directory
 - `-v` ; display messages
- Examples:

```
$ cp somefile.txt ../some-other-directory/samename.txt
```


Rename files and directories, or move files to directory

```
$ mv [filename ...] [target file | target directory]
```

- important options
 - `-i` ; ask for permission before overwriting
 - `-v` ; display messages
- Examples:

```
$ mv somefile.txt someothername.txt
```

```
$ mv data.{csv,backup}
```

Wildcards

- Working with shell commands becomes powerful when you work with wildcards
- Wildcards are special characters that help you to rapidly specify groups of filenames
- Four important wildcards are:
 - any character: `*`
 - any single character: `?`
 - any character that is a member of the set characters: `[characters]`
 - any character that is *not* a member of the set characters: `[!characters]`

Wildcards Examples

- Here are some examples

type	results
*	all files
g*	any file beginning with g
b*.txt	Any file beginning with b followed by any characters and ending with .txt
Data???	Any file beginning with Data followed by exactly three characters
[abc]*	Any file beginning with either a, b, or c

In action...

- In your home folder, create a new folder, create a .txt file, open the file using atom, type some stuff, save it, rename the file, delete the file.
- use wildcards to copy all .txt files from the exercise folder to your folder
- rename some files, create some backups
- delete the folder you created

Redirections, Pipes, and Filters

I/O redirections

- Most of our programs read your input, execute it, and print output
- We call the input facility *standard input*, which by default is your keyboard
- Our programs send their results to a special file called *standard output*, which by default is print to the screen and not saved into the hard disk
- I/O redirection allows us to redefine where standard output goes. For example,
 - redirect the output to a file instead of to the screen

```
$ ls -l [directory] > [filename.txt]
```

- or redirect the output to a file and appends instead of rewriting it

```
$ ls -l [directory] >> [filename.txt]
```

Read files sequentially and print the output in a file

```
$ cat table0* > table.txt
```

Pipelines

- The standard output of one command can be *piped* into the standard input of another using the pipe operator |
- The general structure is

```
$ command | command
```

- For example,

```
$ ls -l Data | less
```

```
$ history | grep cp
```

- Pipes allow you to do complex data manipulations in one line, the pipeline

Filters

- When working with pipelines, it is often useful to use filters
- Filters take input, change it somehow, and then output it
- Some useful filters are the following:
 - `$ sort`
 - `$ uniq`
 - `$ wc`
 - `$ head` and `$ tail`

- sort lines of text files and writes to standard output; it does not change the file

```
$ sort [filename]
```

- some options:
 - -f (for fold); fold lower case to upper case characters
 - -n (for numerical); compare according to string numerical value
 - -r ; reverse the result of comparisons

- report or filter out repeated lines in a file

```
$ uniq [input file] [ouput file]
```

- often used with sort

```
$ ls file1 data/file2 | sort | uniq | less
```

```
* `-d` (for duplicates); print list of duplicates
```

```
$ wc [file] ...
```

- count number of words, lines, characters, and bytes count
 - -w: words
 - -l: lines
 - -m: characters
- example:

```
ls file1 data/file2 | sort | uniq | wc -l > lines.txt
```

head and tail

- print first / last part of files; by default 10 lines

```
$ head [file ...]
```

and

```
$ tail [file ...]
```

- `-n [count]`; determines the number of lines you want to print
- `-f [follow]`; display the file and update if the files get updated

In action...

- Make a subdirectory, navigate to it, copy the data .txt files from Nelle's Data into it.
- Create a file that contains the line counts of planets.txt
- how many unique salmons are in the salmon.txt file

print out the the argument on standard output

```
$ echo
```

- print out hello world

```
$ echo hello world
```

- pathname expansion; print any file in the working directory

```
$ echo *
```

- print all hidden files

```
$ echo .*
```

- parameter expansion; print the variable USER

```
$ echo $USER
```

- command substitution; print the output of ls

```
$ echo $(ls)
```

A note on naming files

- consider the file *two words.txt*. If you use this on the command line, the shell will treat this as two separate arguments

```
$ ls -l two words.txt
```

- use double quotes to suppress word splitting.

```
$ ls -l "two words.txt"
```

- best practice:

```
$ mv "two words.txt" two_words.txt
```


Troubleshooting: spacing, double quotes "", and escaping characters

- consider `$ echo this is a test.`
 - the Shell removes the extra whitespace
 - use `$ echo "this is a test"`
- consider `$ echo The total is $100`
 - the Shell views `$1` as a parameter and, by parameter expansion, substitutes an empty string
 - use `$ echo The total is \ $100`
 - **NOTE:** the `\` backslash starts the so called escape sequence, e.g. for whitespace `\`

A note on quotes and expansion

- `$ echo text $USER has files in ~/* directory`
- `$ echo "text $USER has files in ~/* directory"`
- `$ echo 'text $USER has files in ~/* directory'`
- with each level of quoting, more and more expansion will be suppressed.

View the list of your last 500 commands

`$ history`

- `!4` ; the Shell expands this into the content of the 4th line in the history list and repeats it
- `!!` ; or arrow up and ENTER to repeat the last command
- `sudo !!` ; to give elevated privileges to command
- `!$` ; last argument, e.g.
- `mkdir test;`
- `cd !$;`

Keyboard shortcuts

- CTRL-A ; move the cursor to the beginning of the line
- CTRL-E ; move the cursor to the end of the line
- CTRL-K ; delete everything to the left
- CTRL-U ; delete everything to the right, and paste it on CTRL-Y
- CTRL-C ; abort current execution of running process
- CTRL-R ; reverse search through command history
- CTRL-X,E ; open and edit current command in an editor, execute on editor close

Shell Scripts

Writing and running a bash script

- write your script in the atom editor, selecting the shell syntax, or start an editor from the shell:

```
$ atom somescript.sh
```

- start with the “shebang”

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
```

- run the script

```
$ bash somescript.sh
```

- to check the content

```
$ cat somescript.sh
```

Some notation: \$1, \$@, and

- when the script contains \$1, then `$ bash somescript.sh file.txt` will use the first file or parameter on the command line
- when the script contains \$@, then `$ bash somescript.sh *.txt` will be use all files or parameters on the command line
- do your future self a favour, comment your script using #

Write a useful script...

... that automates a tedious task for you.

- for example, write a shell script that creates a backup of Nelle's folder

Finding Stuff & REGEX

find files in path and below which match an expression

```
$ find [path] [expression]
```

- helpful versions:

- \$ find . -type d; find directories in current working directory
- \$ find . -type f; find files in current working directory
- \$ find . -maxdepth 1 -type f; restrict the depth of search to current level
- \$ find . -mindepth 2 -type f; find all files that are two or more levels below
- \$ find . -name *.txt; find all txt files

Print lines which match a pattern

```
$ grep [pattern] [file ...]
```

- example: print lines containing “beta”:

```
$ grep beta results.txt
```

```
$ history | grep find
```

- Options include:
 - `-w` word; restrict matches to lines containing the word on its own (i.e., if beta, not beta1)
 - `-i` insensitive; makes search case-insensitive
 - `-n` number; number the lines that match
 - `-v` invert; print the lines that do not match
 - with `"` phrase;
- check `man grep`

Regular expressions

- `grep` becomes powerful when combined with *regular expressions*
- Regex are used to identify regular strings; this can be exceptionally handy for quickly scanning datasets to look for specific strings, i.e., phone numbers or email addresses.

Regular expressions

- What is a regular string? It's any string that can be generated by a series of linear rules, such as:
 - ① Write the letter "a" at least once.
 - ② Append to this the letter "b" exactly five times.
 - ③ Append to this the letter "c" any even number of times.
 - ④ Optionally, write the letter "d" at the end.
- Strings that follow these rules are: "aaaabbbbbcccd," "aabbbbbcc," and so on (there are an infinite number of variations). Regular Expressions are a shorthand way of expressing these sets of rules, here:

`aa*bbbb(cc)*c(d |)`

Regular expressions

- Regex are supported by many command-line tools and by most programming languages, however not all regular expressions are the same; they vary slightly from tool to tool and from programming language to programming language.
- Understand the concept, get manual for specific implementation

Classic example: identify email addresses

- Rule 1: The first part of an email address contains at least one of the following: uppercase letters, lowercase letters, the numbers 0-9, periods (.), plus signs (+), or underscores (_).
- Rule 2: After this, the email address contains the @ symbol.
- Rule 3: The email address then must contain at least one uppercase or lowercase letter.
- Rule 4: This is followed by a period (.).
- Rule 5: Finally, the email address ends with *com*, *org*, *edu*, or *net* (in reality, there are many possible top-level domains, but, these four should suffice for the sake of example).

Solution:

```
[A-Za-z0-9\._+]+@[A-Za-z]+\.(com|org|edu|net)
```

Commonly used regular expressions

Symbols	Meaning	Example	Ex Matches
*	Matches the preceding character, subexpression, or bracketed character, 0 or more times	a*b*	aaaaaaaaa, aaabbbbb, bbbbbb
+	Matches the preceding character, subexpression, or bracketed character, 1 or more times	a+b+	aaaaaaaaab, aaabbbbb, abbbbb
[]	Matches any character within the brackets (i.e., "Pick any one of these things")	[A-Z]*	APPLE, CAPITALS, QWERTY

Commonly used regular expressions

Symbols	Meaning	Example	Ex Matches
()	A grouped subexpression (these are evaluated first, in the “order of operations” of regular expressions)	(a*b)*	aaabaab, abaaab, ababaaaaab
{m, n}	Matches the preceding character, subexpression, or bracketed character between m and n times (inclusive)	a{2,3}b{2,3}	aabbbb, aaabbbb, aabb

Commonly used regular expressions

Symbols	Meaning	Example	Ex Matches
[^]	Matches any single character that is not in the brackets	[^A-Z]*	apple, lowercase, qwerty
	Matches any character, string of characters, or subexpression, separated by the " " (a vertical bar, or "pipe," not a capital "I")	b(a i e)d	bad, bid, bed
.	Matches any single character (including symbols, numbers, a space, etc.)	b.d	bad, bzd, b\$d, b d

Commonly used regular expressions

Symbols	Meaning	Example	Ex Matches
<code>^</code>	Indicates that a character or subexpression occurs at the beginning of a string	<code>^a</code>	apple, asdf, a
<code>\</code>	An escape character (this allows you to use “special” characters as their literal meaning)	<code>\. \ \\</code>	<code>. \</code>

Commonly used regular expressions

Symbols	Meaning	Example	Ex Matches
\$	Often used at the end of a regular expression, it means “match this up to the end of the string.” Without it, every regular expression has a defacto “.” at the end of it, accepting strings where only the first part of the string matches.	<code>[A-Z]*[a-z]*\$</code>	<code>ABCabc</code> , <code>zzzyx</code> , <code>Bob</code>

Commonly used regular expressions

Symb	Meaning	Example	Ex Matches
?!	“Does not contain.” This pairing of symbols, immediately preceding a character (or regular expression), indicates that that character should not be found in that specific place in the larger string. If trying to eliminate a character entirely, use in conjunction with a ^ and \$ at either end.	<code>^((?! [A-Z]) .)*\$</code>	<code>no-caps-here,</code> <code>\$ymb01s a4e</code> <code>f!ne</code>

Let's practice

Go to Nelle's Data

- find a file which matches a pattern
- print lines which match a pattern
- play with regex

Where to dig deeper?

- Here are two good books to look up stuff:
 - Newham and Rosenblatt (2005)
 - Shotts Jr (2012)

Recap

- ① Do you understand the tree structure of your operating system?
- ② Do you value the potential of the shell?
- ③ Can you do simple stuff using the shell?
- ④ Do know where to look if you want to learn more?

Acknowledgements

- This course is designed after and borrows a lot from:
 - Effective Programming Practices for Economists, a course by Hans-Martin von Gaudesacker
 - Software Carpentry and Data Carpentry designed by Greg Wilson
 - Shotts, W.E. (2012). The Linux Command Line. San Francisco: No Starch Press.
- The course material from above sources is made available under a Creative Commons Attribution License, as is this courses material.

Programming Practices for Economics Research was created by

- * Lachlan Deer
- * Adrian Etter
- * Julian Langer
- * Max Winkler

at the Department of Economics, University of Zurich. These slides are from the 2017 edition.

Bash Cheat Sheet

- `cd` change working directory. Without options: go to home directory
- `cd dir` change into `dir`
- `cd ..` change to parent

- `ls` list contents of current directory
- `ls dir` list contents of `dir`
- `ls -l` list in long format
- `ls -a` list all files
- `ls -R` recursively list files in subdirectories
- `ls -d` don't go into subdirectories, just list them
- `ls -S` list by size
- `ls -t` list by modification date

manpage aka rtfm

- `man cmd` get help for command `cmd`

create / manipulate timestamp

- `touch f` if `f` exists: update modification date. Otherwise create a new empty file `f`

- `cp` copies files
- `cp a b` copy file `a` to `b`
- `cp a b c dir/` copy files `abc` into `dir/`
- `cp -R old new` recursively copies directory `old` into `new`
- `cp -i a b` ask before overwriting files

- `mv` moves files
- `mv a b` move file `a` to `b`
- `mv a b cdir/` move files `abc` into `dir/`
- `mv -i a b` ask before overwriting files
- `rm` removes files
- `mv a` remove file `a`
- `rm -r dir/` recursively delete directory `dir` and all its contents
- `rm -i a` ask before removing files

create / delete directories

- `mkdir d` create directory `d`
- `rmdir d` remove directory `d` (only works on empty directories)

check file content

- `cat f` write `f` to screen
- `less f` display contents of `f`, with paging, keys: space for next page, `b` goes up, `q` for exit, `/` to search
- `open f` open file with associated program (Mac OS only)

- `reset` terminal if messed up by eg binary output

are replaced by bash by matching filenames

- `*` matches any string
 - `*txt` matches all `.txt` files
 - `a*` matches all files starting with `a`
- `?` matches a single character
 - `doc_v?.txt` matches `doc_v1.txt`, `doc_v2.txt`, `doc_va.txt` etc.
- `[ac5]` matches one of `a`, `c`, or `5`
- `[a-z]` matches a lowercase letter
- `[a-zA-Z]` matches any letter
- `[0-9]` matches any digit
- `(^A0-9)` caret inverts meaning: this matches any character that is not a digit

use this to generate strings

- `c{a,u}t` expanded to `cat cut`
- `c{1..4}t` range: expanded to `c1t c2t c3t c4t`

Tip: use the `echo` command to try out wildcards/braces.

output redirection

send output to a file

- `>` overwrite
- `>>` append
- `ld > f` saves output to file `f`. If it exists, `f` will be overwritten
- `ls >> f` appends output to file `f`.

input redirection

get input from file

- `grep x < file` equivalent to `grep x file`
- `tr a b < old> new` get the input for `tr` from file `old` and save output to `new`
 - this is necessary because `tr` does not accept a file

redirect output from one program to input of another program

- `ls | grep hello` puts output of `ls` through `grep`

command substitution

put output of command on command line ()

- `cat $(ls -rt | tail -n 1)` The part in braces outputs the filename of the last modified file.
 - `cat` will get that filename as its argument

command chaining

- `;` put multiple commands on a single line
- `&&` chain on success
- `||` chain on error
- `touch a; ls` first run touch, then ls
- `pandoc cheatsheet.md -s -o cheatsheet.pdf &&
open cheatsheet.pdf` if pandoc ran smoothly it will open the pdf

Keys

Key	Description	Key	Description
Ctrl+L	Clear Screen	'Ctrl+A	Jump to the beginning of line
Ctrl+C	End process	'Ctrl+E	Jump to the end of line
Ctrl+Z	Suspend process	'Ctrl+X	X' Toggle between the start of line and current cursor position
Up or 'C	trl+P' History back	'Ctrl+K	' Cut to the right
Down or	Ctrl+N History forward	'Ctrl+U	' Cut to the left
Ctrl+R	Search history	'Ctrl+W	' Cut word to the left
Ctrl+_	Step back, undo	'Ctrl+Y	' Past the last cut

sort input, without argument sorts alphabetically

- `sort -n`; sort numerically
- `sort -r`; reverse sort
- `sort -k2`; sort by second column
- `sort -k2 -t,;` sort by second column, and set delimiter to `,`.
Usefull vor csv

only shows unique elements of a list

- `uniq -c` print count of repetitions

search text

- `grep somestring file`; prints every line in file `file` containing string `somestring`
- `grep somestring *`; prints every line in all files matching `*` in the current directory containing string `somestring`
- `grep -i file` case-insensitive search
- `grep -c file` print number of matching lines
- `grep -v file` invert meaning of search: will filter out matching lines
- `grep -l file` only list files containing string => less time consuming
- `grep -n file` precede matching line with line number
- `grep 'my string' -r path` Recursively search files in `path` for string `my string`

head and tail

print either the first few or the last few lines of a file

- `head myfile.csv`; print the first 10 lines of file `myfile.csv`
- `head -n 5 myfile.csv`; print the first 5 lines of file `myfile.csv`
- `tail myfile.csv`; print the last 10 lines of file `myfile.csv`
- `tail -n 15 myfile.csv`; print the last 15 lines of file `myfile.csv`
- `tail -f myfile.csv`; print the last 10 lines of file `myfile.csv` and append new lines if lines get appended

find files and folder

- `find path`; lists all files in all subdirectories of `path`
- `find . -name "*.txt"`; finds all `.txt` files under the current directory
- `find path -name "*.txt" -mtime -60s -a -mtime -120s`; find all `.txt` files in the folder `path` that are older than 60 seconds but newer than 120 seconds

Example: find file that changed during an action

Shows all changed things which are newer then the created timestamp in the tmp folder.

```
touch /tmp/timestamp
```

```
*do stuff*
```

```
find /path/to/search/for/changes -newer /tmp/timestamp
```

read a file, do changes and print it to the standard output

- `sed 's/Glacier/Lake/n' lakes.txt`; changes all occurrences of Glacier in file `lakes.txt` to Lake

Newham, Cameron, and Bill Rosenblatt. 2005. *Learning the Bash Shell: Unix Shell Programming*. " O'Reilly Media, Inc."

Shotts Jr, William E. 2012. *The Linux Command Line: A Complete Introduction*. No Starch Press.