# git

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# 1 Version control with Git

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# 1.1 Git, a distributed Version Control System

Version control means keeping track of code evolution by recording the code's state after each meaningful change. This is useful: - To cancel a non-working modification - To perform regression tests / continuous integration

The database where the different states of the code are recorded can be: - Local: the project has only one developer - Centralised: it is available on a server but developers do not receive it when they get the project's sources (cvs, svn). - Distributed: every developer that has the sources also has the full code history (git, mercurial, darcs).

Version Control Manager: - Source code is frequently **committed** into Git database, and each **commit** can be retrieved, shared with team. - Keep, search your code history. - Develop software in team efficiently.

Distributed: - Unlike **SVN** which is **centralized**, **Git** is **distributed**. It means that Git does not require to use one central repository, but multiple ones may be used. - When one downloads source code from a Git repository, it creates a new Git repository, with the full database. There is no conceptual difference between the two repositories. - Offline work possibility - Multiple possible workflows to collaborate with other developers.

Some terminology: - Repository: the vesion-controlled project and optionally the database containing the project's history. - Commit: one record of the code's state in the project's history. - Branch: maintain several versions of the project in parallel

**Git** makes it easy to work with **branches**. - Branches are easy to create, merge and destroy. - Creating temporary branches to develop a feature is encouraged.

**Git** has a few core concepts that must be understood. - Without knowing these core concepts, using Git is frustrating and painful. - Knowing them, using Git is powerful and easy.

Thanks to Git's simplicity for creating new repositories and managing branches, a workflow adapted to your team may be chosen. For example: - working with a central repository and contributing into branches (small private teams); - working with forks and contributing with pull requests (large teams with external contributors).

This presentation deals with the core concepts of Git, so as to make its adoption easier.

# 1.2 Local version control (only one Git repository)

We start working on a single repository.

In this section, we will learn the core concepts of Git: - commits, - staging area (index), - branches. Start by creating a new empty directory to experiment with Git:

```
# The directory that will contain the Git repository
changedir('repo')
```

We are in directory /home/ROCQ/sedrocq/froger/git-training/repo

#### 1.2.1 The init command

A Git **repository** is created in the current directory using the **init** command.

This will create a .git hidden directory, where Git stores its database.

You can now start developing. For example, we may write "First Line" in a file called foo.txt. But in practice, we would probably want to write some real source code.

#### 1.2.2 The add, commit and log commands

To record (commit) the previous changes to Git's database, do as follows:

The add command tells Git to track changes in the file foo.txt and says that the current content of this file should be commited by the next commit command.

The **commit** command itself then records (commits) all the added changes to git's database and associates a few metadata to this set of changes.

The argument of -m is a commit message, that is, a description of the commited change. The commit message is mandatory. If -m is not given, the **commit** command will open an editor where the commit message should be typed.

To make sure things have been properly committed, one may use the log command:

As can be seen, the metadata associated with the commit includes its author. However, the name or e-mail address printed at the moment may not look so pretty. Here is how to improve this for future commits:

It is even possible to fix the authorship of our previous commit:

And let's make sure this actually worked:

Note: we used the **—local** flag here so that the configuration applies only to the current repository, but one can also use the **—global** flag to make the coniguration the default for all repositories, given that it can then be overloaded in each repository.

### 1.2.3 How it works: working copy, staging area (index) and database.

Woking copy and database are conceps which are well known in other revision control systems. To these, Git adds a third zone, the staging area. It is an intermediary place where changes go before being committed to Git's database.

Having this third area may seem odd at first, but it turns out to be useful e.g. to seperate commits, as we will see.

Suppose we add two lines to foo.txt:

Initial commit.

```
In [9]: %%bash
     echo "Second line" >> foo.txt
     echo "Third line" >> foo.txt
```

But then we realise that these two lines really represent two distinct changes and should thus be committed separately.

Git makes it possible to achieve this thanks to its index or staging area, like this:

And choose 'e' to edit the hunk, then remove the line

+Third line

so that the only line starting wih a + symbol "Second line".

To make sure only the second line has been added to the index and will thus be committed, use the **diff** command as follows:

Before continuing, notice how we now have three different versions of foo.txt:

- One in the working copy (3 lines)
- One in the index (2 lines)

• One in the database (1 line)

Let's commit what has been staged:

```
In [12]: %%bash
         git commit -m "Second commit"
# On branch master
# Changes not staged for commit:
    (use "git add <file>..." to update what will be committed)
#
    (use "git checkout -- <file>..." to discard changes in working directory)
#
#
#
         modified:
                      foo.txt
#
no changes added to commit (use "git add" and/or "git commit -a")
   Let's make sure the commit has worked:
In [13]: %%bash
         git log
commit 03ae0f2377799f15cc1988d24fe9f777e37b07f2
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
        Thu Jun 4 10:18:25 2015 +0200
Date:
    Initial commit.
   And note that the staging area is now empty:
In [14]: %%bash
         git diff --cached
   We can now commit our second change to foo.txt:
In [15]: %%bash
         git add foo.txt
         git commit -m "Third commit"
[master 2e8215d] Third commit
 1 file changed, 2 insertions(+)
   Two remarks are due here:
```

1. The example we have jsut seen to understand why the staging area is useful is quite artificial. It is however rather imortant, because the situation it describes can happen quite a lot in practice. For instance, suppose that while adding a feature to a program one discovers typos in the existing code. The new feature and the typo fixups could for sure be committed together, but doing two distinct commits is considered better practice because it gives a cleaner history (In particular, should the feature be removed later, that could be achieved without loosing the typo fixups.)

In such a situation, the -p flag to the add command turns out to be especially useful. Moreover, since the changes happen most of the time in different hunks (regions), it will be easier to use the interactive **add** in such situations than in the one above, since it will not require any manual hunk edition as before.

2. The three areas that have just been introduced (working copy, staging area and commit database) are of crucial importance. Indeed, almost all git commands either manipulate one of these areas or transfer content between two of them and understanding Git in terms of how the commands work on areas turns out to be especially helpful (if not fundamental) in practice.

Moreover, for one specific command, its arguments may change the areas it affects. As an example, git commit transfers content from the staging area to the database, but with the -a argument, the same command will transfer all the uncommitted (and unstaged) changes directly from the working copy to the database and leave the staging area unmodified.

Exercise: can you explain what **log** and **add** do in terms of the three areas?

#### 1.2.4 The diff and status commands

Modify the foo.txt file, and observe the outputs of the diff and status commands

```
In [16]: %%bash
         echo 'Fourth line' >> foo.txt
In [17]: %%bash
         git diff
diff --git a/foo.txt b/foo.txt
index 6da4d3e..5028ae5 100644
--- a/foo.txt
+++ b/foo.txt
@@ -1,3 +1,4 @@
First line
Second line
Third line
+Fourth line
In [18]: %%bash
         git status
# On branch master
# Changes not staged for commit:
    (use "git add <file>..." to update what will be committed)
#
    (use "git checkout -- <file>..." to discard changes in working directory)
#
         modified:
                     foo.txt
no changes added to commit (use "git add" and/or "git commit -a")
  Stage the file, and observe the new outputs of the diff and status commands
In [19]: %%bash
         git add foo.txt
In [20]: %%bash
         git diff
In [21]: %%bash
         git diff --cached
diff --git a/foo.txt b/foo.txt
index 6da4d3e..5028ae5 100644
--- a/foo.txt
+++ b/foo.txt
@@ -1,3 +1,4 @@
First line
Second line
Third line
+Fourth line
```

```
In [22]: %%bash
         git status
# On branch master
# Changes to be committed:
    (use "git reset HEAD <file>..." to unstage)
#
         modified:
                     foo.txt
  Commit the file.
In [23]: %%bash
         git commit -m 'Add fourth line to foo.txt'
[master a193ec0] Add fourth line to foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
1.2.5 The log command
The log command prints an history of all the commits.
In [24]: %%bash
         git log
commit a193ec04e8add2de6b09d0b6f65b47ea4ccb6f47
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:
       Thu Jun 4 10:18:26 2015 +0200
    Add fourth line to foo.txt
commit 2e8215d1d0dc787d7080dff8e544444134bc38d2
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:
       Thu Jun 4 10:18:26 2015 +0200
   Third commit
commit 03ae0f2377799f15cc1988d24fe9f777e37b07f2
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
       Thu Jun 4 10:18:25 2015 +0200
Date:
   Initial commit.
In [25]: %%bash
         git log -p
commit a193ec04e8add2de6b09d0b6f65b47ea4ccb6f47
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:
       Thu Jun 4 10:18:26 2015 +0200
    Add fourth line to foo.txt
diff --git a/foo.txt b/foo.txt
index 6da4d3e..5028ae5 100644
--- a/foo.txt
+++ b/foo.txt
```

```
00 - 1,3 + 1,4 00
First line
Second line
Third line
+Fourth line
commit 2e8215d1d0dc787d7080dff8e544444134bc38d2
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:
       Thu Jun 4 10:18:26 2015 +0200
    Third commit
diff --git a/foo.txt b/foo.txt
index 9649cde..6da4d3e 100644
--- a/foo.txt
+++ b/foo.txt
@@ -1 +1,3 @@
First line
+Second line
+Third line
commit 03ae0f2377799f15cc1988d24fe9f777e37b07f2
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
       Thu Jun 4 10:18:25 2015 +0200
    Initial commit.
diff --git a/foo.txt b/foo.txt
new file mode 100644
index 0000000..9649cde
--- /dev/null
+++ b/foo.txt
@@ -0,0 +1 @@
+First line
```

A common practice when writing commit messages is to start with a one-line description of the commit, optionally followed by a longer description which may be split into several paragraphs.

Another thing one may do when writing commit messages is to explain more why the change is done than the change itself, since the change can be figured out by studying the patch itself.

# 1.2.6 The checkout command

The **checkout** command updates files in the working tree to match the version in the index or the specified tree. For example:

You are in 'detached HEAD' state. You can look around, make experimental changes and commit them, and you can discard any commits you make in this state without impacting any branches by performing another checkout.

If you want to create a new branch to retain commits you create, you may

```
do so (now or later) by using -b with the checkout command again. Example:
```

```
git checkout -b new_branch_name
```

HEAD is now at 2e8215d... Third commit

Will ask Git to set-up the working copy according to the content of Git's database at commit master^, namely one commit before master as indicated by the ^ postfix operator.

Let's verify:

First line Second line Third line

And now let's restore the working copy as it was before this checkout:

Previous HEAD position was 2e8215d... Third commit Switched to branch 'master'

And let's verify that this worked, too:

First line Second line Third line Fourth line

#### 1.2.7 More on commits

To take advantage of all the powerful features of Git, it is important to understand what a **commit** actually is

The first thing to know is that Git has stored in its database 1 commit object, for each commit, each commit object containing a complete version of the foo.txt file. - For the first commit, Git has stored in its database a commit object containing First line. - For the second commit, Git has stored in its database a commit object containing not the difference between the two versions, but the whole file: First line (hence duplicated in Git's database), and Second line.

• After the second commit, First line is duplicated in the 2 different commit objects in Git's database.

Note that for performance, Git has the ability to efficiently compress its database and handle differences only (especially during network transfer), but the model is to store the whole content of files for each commit, as opposed to some other revision control systems which only store differences.

This yields a very simple model. A commit contains the directories and files we have committed (called tree and blob in Git), plus some metadata.

In Git, a commit object contains: - At least one parent commit (except for the initial commit) - The (root) tree (which itself contains trees and blobs). - The commit message. - The author. - The commit date.

#### 1.2.8 The SHA-1

With Git it is not possible to assign integer numbers to commits in a sequential way as is done in svn for instance, because Git's distributed nature and branches make the very notion of linear sequence vanish.

Git uses the **SHA-1** cryptographic hash function to identify each object (**commit**, **tree**, **blob**) with a hash value. Such a hash value may look like the following one: 0e1e060688a560015614cf7ec4b77d8a0df07c2f.

The hash value is computed from the object's content. It is very unlikely that two different commit objects have the same **SHA-1** hash value. The likelihood of such collisions is so low that it is generally considered to be 0, meaning that in practice it is considered that having same SHA-1 hash and being the same commit are equivalent propositions.

Each hash value identifies only one commit. It also identifies all the directories and files that belong to the commit. Note that parent commits are also part of the commit: two commits sharing the same files and directories, but with different commit parents, will have different hash values.

Note: - if two developpers create exactly the same commit on two different computers, the hash value will be the same, - we know that two commits are different by only comparing their hash values, - hash value are very fast to compute: if a whole tree in a commit has not changed, Git does not have to recompute its hash again.

#### 1.2.9 Git branches

Suppose we now want to try developing a new feature in our code, while continuing our previous work on foo.txt.

Git encourages creating a branch for this.

A branch is created with the **branch** command, followed by a branch **name**:

Without any argument, the **branch** command lists all the branches and marks the current one with an asterisk (git status also displays the current branch).

The **checkout** command allows you to switch to another branch:

Switched to branch 'bar'

It is very important to remember that git branch b creates branch b but does not change the current branch. This is similar to Unix's mkdir command which creates a new directory without changing the current directory to the one it just created. To continue the analogy with Unix commands, git checkout b changes the current branch in the same way cd changes the current directory.

It is however common when creating a branch that the intention is to switch to that branch right after it has been created and this is what the git checkout -b command does. In other words, what had been achieved in two steps before (namely git branch bar and git checkout bar) can be achieved with just the following command: git checkout -b bar.

Now, let us develop different things in the two branches:

```
In [33]: %%bash
         echo 'First line' > bar.txt
         git add bar.txt
         git commit -m 'First line of bar.txt'
         echo 'Second line' >> bar.txt
         git add bar.txt
         git commit -m 'Second line of bar.txt'
         git checkout master
         echo "Fifth line" >> foo.txt
         git add foo.txt
         git commit -m 'Fifth line of foo.txt'
         echo "Sixth line" >> foo.txt
         git add foo.txt
         git commit -m 'Sixth line of foo.txt'
         git checkout bar
         echo 'Third line' >> bar.txt
         git add bar.txt
         git commit -m 'Third line of bar.txt'
[bar cb6bf03] First line of bar.txt
 1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
 create mode 100644 bar.txt
[bar 34a5d44] Second line of bar.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
[master b4acc1d] Fifth line of foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
[master 3093c76] Sixth line of foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
[bar 95385f1] Third line of bar.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
Switched to branch 'master'
Switched to branch 'bar'
```

#### 1.2.10 The merge command

We merge the work of the two branches. More specifically, we merge the **bar** branch into the **master** branch

Because there is no conflict, the merge is performed automatically. In case of confict (same lines of a file modified in both branches): - the merge operation stops, - the developper edits the conflicting files to solve the conflict, - the developper commits the merged files.

### 1.2.11 What Git branches are

Edit the file  $\sim$  and add the content:

```
[alias]
gr = log --graph --full-history --all --color --pretty=tformat:"%x1b[31m%h%x09%x1b[32m%d%x1b[0m%x20%s
```

This adds a useful **gr** command to Git, that displays a colored graph of the branches.

```
In [35]: %%bash
         git gr
    32f06db
                    (HEAD, master) Merge branch 'bar' (David Froger)
1
| * 95385f1
                    (bar) Third line of bar.txt (David Froger)
I * 34a5d44
                    Second line of bar.txt (David Froger)
| * cb6bf03
                    First line of bar.txt (David Froger)
 3093c76
                    Sixth line of foo.txt (David Froger)
* | b4acc1d
                    Fifth line of foo.txt (David Froger)
17
                  Add fourth line to foo.txt (David Froger)
* a193ec0
* 2e8215d
                  Third commit (David Froger)
* 03ae0f2
                  Initial commit. (David Froger)
```

All the commits form a chain, in which each commit is linked to its parent(s).

Creating a branch means having two commits with the same parent, while merging means creating a commit with two parents.

We can now give a simple definition of a branch: a symbolic name that points to a commit with no children.

Two special branches are: - master, the original branch when a repository is created. That's a branch like the others. - HEAD, the current branch, which is updated after each commit (like \$PWD in Unix shells).

When a commit is checked out that is not the end of a branch (has children), it is said that the repository is in "detached head" mode. In that state, it is possible to create commits which will be linked to tehe one that has been checked out, but it must be kept in mind that no symbolic name (apart from HEAD) will be associated with the last commit, so when HEAD moves to a different branch the repo wil have a branch with no symbolic name associated to its tip and which may hence be garbage-collected later by Git. It is however possible and easy to associate a symbolic name with a commit at any time with the git branch command.

Note: with this knowledge on commits and branches, some Git features not demonstrated here will be easy to understand: - rebase - fast-forward - tags (symbolic names which don't move, as opposed to branches)

### 1.3 Exercice

During the exercice, experiment with git log, and git status, git gr, etc.

- 0- Initialize an empty Git repository.
- 1- Create a script main.py with the following content, and commit it.

```
In [36]: #!/usr/bin/env python

    def greet():
        print("Hello world!")

    greet()

Hello world!

2- Modify the the script, commit it
```

```
In [37]: #!/usr/bin/env python
         def greet(name):
             print("Hello %s!" % name)
         greet("Alice")
Hello Alice!
   3- Modify and commit the script again.
In [38]: #!/usr/bin/env python
         import sys
         def greet(name):
             print("Hello %s!" % name)
         if len(sys.argv) > 1:
             greet(sys.argv[1])
         else:
             sys.stderr.write("Usage: %s NAME\n" % sys.argv[0])
             sys.exit(1)
Hello -f!
   4- In a branch format_name, modify and commit the script:
In [39]: #!/usr/bin/env python
         import sys
         def greet(name):
             print("Hello %s!" % name.capitalize())
         if len(sys.argv) > 1:
             greet(sys.argv[1])
         else:
             sys.stderr.write("Usage: %s NAME\n" % sys.argv[0])
             sys.exit(1)
Hello -f!
   5- In the master branch, modify the script and commit:
In [40]: #!/usr/bin/env python
         import sys
         def greet(name):
             print("Hello %s! How are you?" % name)
         if len(sys.argv) > 1:
             greet(sys.argv[1])
         else:
             sys.stderr.write("Usage: %s NAME\n" % sys.argv[0])
             sys.exit(1)
Hello -f! How are you?
   6- Merge the format_name branch. You will have to resolve a conflict, and the commit
```

# 1.4 Centralized (à la cvs/svn) version control

Now that we have learned how to work with a single Git repository, we will learn how to send/receive commits between two Git repositories

In this section, we will assume a workflow with two developpers: Alice and Bob. Both of them have their own repository on their computer: - Alice's repository A on her computer, - Bob's repository B on his computer.

and a central repository on a computer which both Alice and Bob can communicate with: - central repository C on a "server".

For simplicity, we will demonstrate the commands on the same machine, using Git file:// protocol. However, Git commands would be exactly the same, but using instead the ssh:// or https:// protocols.

Note that configuring a "server" machine to host a Git repository and managing user permissions, backup, availability, Web views of the repository, etc. is not easy. Forges like **Inria's GForge**, **GitHub**, **Bitbucket**, **Gitorious** should be preferred.

```
In [41]: changedir('')
```

In [42]: %%bash

We are in directory /home/ROCQ/sedrocq/froger/git-training

### 1.4.1 The -bare option of the init command

We start by creating a central repository.

There is a subtlety. Suppose we create a git repository in  $\sim$  and that someone else edits files in this Git repository.

It is possible that someone else sends commits (in Git, this is called **push**) to this repository, which would be stored in  $\sim$ . Then Git's database and working copy would differ.

To avoid this situation, Git provides the **-bare** option to **init**. It creates a Git repository, but without a working copy. Nobody can **commit** directly into this repository, but only **push** commits.

Never **push** commits to a Git repository that is not **bare**, to avoid inconsistencies with its working copy. By convention, **bare** repositories are suffixed with **.git**, even if it is not necessary.

```
git init --bare central.git
ls -l central.git

Initialized empty Git repository in /nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git/
total 28
drwxr-xr-x 2 froger sed 4096 Jun 4 10:18 branches
-rw-r--r-- 1 froger sed 66 Jun 4 10:18 config
-rw-r--r-- 1 froger sed 73 Jun 4 10:18 description
-rw-r--r-- 1 froger sed 23 Jun 4 10:18 HEAD
```

drwxr-xr-x 2 froger sed 4096 Jun 4 10:18 hooks drwxr-xr-x 2 froger sed 4096 Jun 4 10:18 info

drwxr-xr-x 4 froger sed 4096 Jun 4 10:18 objects drwxr-xr-x 4 froger sed 4096 Jun 4 10:18 refs

Alice clones the central repository:

Alice enters her Git repository and configures her name and email for that repository (we assume here she didn't do it at the global level, to keep all the examples self-contained):

#### 1.4.2 The remote command

Without argument, the remote command lists the **remote** repositories Git knows about:

When the central repository has been cloned, Git has given it the name **origin**, by convention. Later, we will learn how to register additionnal remote repositories.

Alice works and commits into her repository:

```
In [47]: %%bash
        echo 'First line' > foo.txt
        git add foo.txt
        git commit -m 'First line of foo.txt'

        echo 'Second line' >> foo.txt
        git add foo.txt
        git commit -m 'Second line of foo.txt'

[master (root-commit) 5d6da4a] First line of foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
        create mode 100644 foo.txt
[master e25907a] Second line of foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
```

### 1.4.3 The push command

Now, Alice wants to send her commits to the central repository, so that Bob can get them.

To do so, she uses the **push** command, whose arguments are:

```
git push <remote_name> <local_branch>:<remote_branch>
```

The remote\_name is **origin**, Alice pushes the **master** branch of her repository to the **master** branch of the central repository:

```
In [50]: %%bash
         git clone file://$PWD/central.git bob
Cloning into 'bob'...
In [51]: changedir('bob')
We are in directory /home/ROCQ/sedrocq/froger/git-training/bob
In [52]: %%bash
         git config --local user.name "Bob"
         git config --local user.email bob@inria.fr
  Doing so, Bob fetches Alice's work.
In [53]: %%bash
         git log
commit e25907af8eaeb28bf671ee1a3ce10c65884880c2
Author: Alice <alice@inria.fr>
        Thu Jun 4 10:18:28 2015 +0200
    Second line of foo.txt
commit 5d6da4af17f62dcee5ded8bf4f873483db4bf1e8
Author: Alice <alice@inria.fr>
        Thu Jun 4 10:18:28 2015 +0200
    First line of foo.txt
  Bob makes some changes, commits and pushes:
In [54]: %%bash
         echo "Third line" >> foo.txt
         git add foo.txt
         git commit -m "Third line to foo.txt"
         git push origin master:master
[master f08edac] Third line to foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git
   e25907a..f08edac master -> master
1.4.4 The fetch command
In [55]: changedir('alice')
We are in directory /home/ROCQ/sedrocq/froger/git-training/alice
  Alice wants to get Bob's commits. She uses the fetch command, which donwloads all the commits of all
branches from a remote repository.
In [56]: %%bash
         git fetch origin
From file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central
   e25907a..f08edac master
                                -> origin/master
```

#### 1.4.5 Remote branches

The git branch command lists all branches of Alice's repository, also known as local branches:

\* master

But where are the **central** repository branches which have just been fetched? Adding the **-a** option to the **branch** command reveals them:

\* master

remotes/origin/master

remotes/central/master.git is called a remote branch.

A **remote branch** is a read-only branch that reflects the state of a branch of a remote repository. If the branch changes on the remote repository, use **fetch** again to refresh it.

Note: to see only remote branches rather than all branches one can use the -r flag instead of -a:

To get all commits of remotes/central/master remote branch into the master branch, merge it:

Note: **fetch** and **merge** operations can be accomplished in one command, **pull**:

```
git pull <remote_name> <remote_branch>:<local_branch>
```

#### 1.4.6 Pushing a (feature) branch

While Alice and Bob are working on the master branch, Alice wants to develop an experimental feature. She creates a branch for this, and works in it:

```
In [61]: %%bash
    git checkout -b exp

    echo "First line" > bar.txt
    git add bar.txt
    git commit -m 'First line of bar.txt'

    echo "Second line" >> bar.txt
    git add bar.txt
    git commit -m "Second line in bar.txt"
```

```
[exp 152052b] First line of bar.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
create mode 100644 bar.txt
[exp c6d459f] Second line in bar.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
Switched to a new branch 'exp'
   Alice then pushes her branch to a similarly named branch of the central repository:
In [62]: %%bash
         git push origin exp:exp
To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git
                      exp -> exp
 * [new branch]
      Tracking branch
1.4.7
At the same time, Bob has worked on the master branch:
In [63]: changedir('bob')
We are in directory /home/ROCQ/sedrocq/froger/git-training/bob
In [64]: %%bash
         echo "Third line" >> foo.txt
         git add foo.txt
         git commit -m "Third line in foo.txt"
         echo "Fourth line" >> foo.txt
         git add foo.txt
         git commit -m "Fourth line in foo.txt"
[master bbb36ce] Third line in foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
[master 2420c80] Fourth line in foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
   Bob wants to see Alice's work on the exp branch. He fetches all branches of the central repository:
In [65]: %%bash
         git fetch
         git branch -r
origin/HEAD -> origin/master
  origin/exp
  origin/master
From file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central
 * [new branch]
                                 -> origin/exp
                      exp
   Bob has remote branch central/exp, but how to work with it?
   Adding the -track option to the checkout command makes Git create a tracking branch:
In [66]: %%bash
         git checkout --track origin/exp
Branch exp set up to track remote branch exp from origin.
```

```
Switched to a new branch 'exp'
```

A tracking branch is our local copy of a remote branch. Unlike the remote branch, we have write access to it.

Tracking branches can also be used to call the **pull** and **push** commands without arguments.

Note that Alice and Bob can work on the exp branch without changing anything to the master branch.

- if exp was not a good idea, the branch can be dropped, - if exp is a good idea, it may be merged into the master branch.

### 1.4.8 Visualizing branches

Bob helps Alice to develop the exp branch by making a new commit:

```
In [67]: %%bash
         echo "Third line" >> bar.txt
         git add bar.txt
         git commit -m "Third line in bar.txt"
[exp ac69ae8] Third line in bar.txt
 1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
   At this point, it is instructive to visualize the different branches:
In [68]: %%bash
         git gr
* ac69ae8
                   (HEAD, exp) Third line in bar.txt (Bob)
* c6d459f
                   (origin/exp) Second line in bar.txt (Alice)
* 152052b
                  First line of bar.txt (Alice)
| * 2420c80
                     (master) Fourth line in foo.txt (Bob)
                    Third line in foo.txt (Bob)
* bbb36ce
1/
                   (origin/master, origin/HEAD) Third line to foo.txt (Bob)
* f08edac
* e25907a
                  Second line of foo.txt (Alice)
* 5d6da4a
                  First line of foo.txt (Alice)
```

We note that: - Bob's master branch has 2 more commits than the central one. - Bob master branch has 1 more commit that the central one.

The verbose option of **branch** is useful to see tracking branches:

```
In [69]: %%bash
         git branch -avv
* exp
                        ac69ae8 [origin/exp: ahead 1] Third line in bar.txt
                        2420c80 [origin/master: ahead 2] Fourth line in foo.txt
  master
  remotes/origin/HEAD
                        -> origin/master
                        c6d459f Second line in bar.txt
  remotes/origin/exp
  remotes/origin/master f08edac Third line to foo.txt
  Bob pushes the commits of the two branches.
In [70]: %%bash
         git push origin exp:exp
         git push origin master:master
To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git
   c6d459f..ac69ae8 exp -> exp
To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git
   f08edac..2420c80 master -> master
```

```
In [71]: %%bash
         git checkout master
         git push origin master:master
         git gr
* ac69ae8
                  (origin/exp, exp) Third line in bar.txt (Bob)
* c6d459f
                  Second line in bar.txt (Alice)
* 152052b
                  First line of bar.txt (Alice)
                    (HEAD, origin/master, origin/HEAD, master) Fourth line in foo.txt (Bob)
| * 2420c80
* bbb36ce
                    Third line in foo.txt (Bob)
17
                  Third line to foo.txt (Bob)
* f08edac
* e25907a
                  Second line of foo.txt (Alice)
                  First line of foo.txt (Alice)
* 5d6da4a
Switched to branch 'master'
Everything up-to-date
  Finally, the exp branch is merged into master. The merge commit is pushed to the central repository,
and the exp branch is deleted:
In [72]: %%bash
         # We already are in the master branch
         git merge exp
         git push origin master:master
         git branch -d exp
         git gr
Merge made by the 'recursive' strategy.
bar.txt |
              3 +++
1 file changed, 3 insertions(+)
create mode 100644 bar.txt
Deleted branch exp (was ac69ae8).
   5a1c308
                    (HEAD, origin/master, origin/HEAD, master) Merge branch 'exp' (Bob)
1
| * ac69ae8
                    (origin/exp) Third line in bar.txt (Bob)
| * c6d459f
                    Second line in bar.txt (Alice)
                    First line of bar.txt (Alice)
| * 152052b
* | 2420c80
                    Fourth line in foo.txt (Bob)
* | bbb36ce
                    Third line in foo.txt (Bob)
17
* f08edac
                  Third line to foo.txt (Bob)
```

To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git 2420c80..5a1c308 master -> master

Second line of foo.txt (Alice)

First line of foo.txt (Alice)

### 1.5 Distributed workflow

\* e25907a

\* 5d6da4a

Committing to a central repository is okay for small teams where developpers know and trust each other. For larger projects, though, it is blocking and dangerous to give write access to the project's main repository to an external contributor.

Since Git is a distributed revision control system, clloning a repository means creating a copy of that repository that has exactly as much information. This opens the road to a workflow different rom the previous one, where each developer has a public repository from which everybody can read. When this developer wants to share code, he/she pushes the code to be shared to his/her public repository and informs the maintainers of the project that there is some code available that may be integrated to the project. The maintainers review the code and, if they find it useful, integrate it to the project's main code base.

This workflow is made possible by the way Git has been designed. The GitHub platform provides two mechanisms (fork and pull request) that help developers adopting this workflow, but the workflow itself relies only on Git features and does not require GitHub to be implemented.

When a developper wants to contribute to a project, he/she forks the original bare repository. It means that the developper gets his own bare repository. In this repository, he develops a feature in a branch. When the work is done, he asks an administrator to pull the feature branch from his repository to the master branch of the project's main repository.

In GitHub terminology, this is called a **pull request**.

git push origin baz:baz

Let us see this in practice by adding Emma as a developper to our previous example.

```
In [73]: changedir('')
We are in directory /home/ROCQ/sedrocq/froger/git-training
   Emma starts by forking the central repository to her own bare repository.
  Note: this is a functionnality provided out of the box by GitHub.
  Then Emma clones her bare public repository.
In [74]: %%bash
         git clone --bare central.git central-emma-fork.git
         git clone central-emma-fork.git emma
Cloning into bare repository 'central-emma-fork.git'...
done.
Cloning into 'emma'...
done.
In [75]: changedir('emma')
We are in directory /home/ROCQ/sedrocq/froger/git-training/emma
In [76]: %%bash
         git config --local user.name "Emma"
         git config --local user.email emma@inria.fr
   Emma creates a topic branch, works on it, and pushes it to her public repository:
In [77]: %%bash
         git checkout -b baz
         echo "First line" > baz.txt
         git add baz.txt
         git commit -m 'First line in baz.txt'
         echo "Second line" >> baz.txt
         git add baz.txt
         git commit -m 'Second line in baz.txt'
```

```
[baz b404311] First line in baz.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
create mode 100644 baz.txt
[baz 80e082f] Second line in baz.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
Switched to a new branch 'baz'
To /nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central-emma-fork.git
* [new branch] baz -> baz
In [78]: changedir('alice')
We are in directory /home/ROCQ/sedrocq/froger/git-training/alice
```

The next step for Emma is to ask Alice to get the baz branch from central-emma-fork pulled into the

Note: GitHub provides functionnality to request a pull, and review the associated code.

Alice fetches Emma's bare repository. To do this, she first adds Emma's bare repository to the list of her remote repositories.

At this point, Alice and Emmma can interact with each other to add more commits to the baz branch. When her work is done, Alice merges it to master, and pushes.

```
In [80]: %%bash
         git checkout master
         git merge emma/baz
         git push origin master:master
Updating f08edac..80e082f
Fast-forward
bar.txt |
              3 +++
baz.txt |
              2 ++
foo.txt |
              2 ++
3 files changed, 7 insertions(+)
 create mode 100644 bar.txt
 create mode 100644 baz.txt
Switched to branch 'master'
To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git
   5a1c308..80e082f master -> master
```

#### 1.6 Exercice

master branch of central.

This exerice continues on the previous one, and re-use its Git repository. This will be the repository of the first developer.

- 0- Create a bare repository for the first developer.
- 1- Push existing commits to this repository.
- 2- Set up a bare repository and a fork for a second developer.
- 3- The second developer creates a feature branch, and pushes it to its bare repository.
- 4- The first developer get the feature branch of the second developer, and pushes it to its bare repository.

# 1.7 References

 $\rm http://www.git\text{-}scm.com/docs$ 

http://githowto.com

"Version Control with Git, Powerful tools and techniques for collaborative software development" By Jon Loeliger, Matthew McCullough

HitHug let's you learn Git through a nice game: https://github.com/gazler/githug

Another game: https://github.com/jlord/git-it