

Version control with Git

June 4, 2015

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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 version-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.

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:

```
In [1]: from os import makedirs, chdir, curdir, walk, sep
        from os.path import expanduser, isdir, abspath, join, relpath, basename
        from shutil import rmtree

        workdir = expanduser('~/.git-training')

        # Remove possible existing working, and starts with a fresh one.
        if isdir(workdir):
            rmtree(workdir)
        makedirs(workdir)

        def changedir(directory):
            """Set up a directory relative to workdir"""
            directory = abspath(join(workdir,directory))
            if not isdir(directory):
                makedirs(directory)
            chdir(directory)
            print("We are in directory " + directory)

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

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

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.

```
In [2]: %%bash
        git init
        ls -la
```

```
Initialized empty Git repository in /nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/repo/.git/
total 12
drwxr-xr-x 3 froger sed 4096 Jun  4 13:18 .
drwxr-xr-x 3 froger sed 4096 Jun  4 13:18 ..
drwxr-xr-x 7 froger sed 4096 Jun  4 13:18 .git
```

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.

```
In [3]: %%bash
        echo "First line" > foo.txt
```

2.2 The add, commit and log commands

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

```
In [4]: %%bash
        git add foo.txt
        git commit -m "Initial commit."

[master (root-commit) cb1a8e7] Initial commit.
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
create mode 100644 foo.txt
```

The **add** command tells Git to track changes in the file `foo.txt` and says that the current content of this file should be committed 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 committed 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:

```
In [5]: %%bash
        git log

commit cb1a8e7e1afde0d21aa75e2188c0fdff1042fb2f
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:   Thu Jun 4 13:18:31 2015 +0200
```

Initial commit.

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:

```
In [6]: %%bash
        # git config --global user.name "Prénom Nom"
        # git config --global user.email prenom.nom@inria.fr
```

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

```
In [7]: %%bash
        #git commit --amend --reset-author
```

And let's make sure this actually worked:

```
In [8]: %%bash
        git log

commit cb1a8e7e1afde0d21aa75e2188c0fdff1042fb2f
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:   Thu Jun 4 13:18:31 2015 +0200
```

Initial commit.

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 configuration the default for all repositories, given that it can then be overloaded in each repository.

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

Working copy and database are concepts 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 separate commits, as we will see.

Suppose we add two lines to `foo.txt`:

```
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:

```
In [10]: %%bash
         #git add -p foo.txt
```

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

+Third line

so that the only line starting with 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:

```
In [11]: %%bash
         git diff --cached
```

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 cb1a8e7e1afde0d21aa75e2188c0fdff1042fb2f
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date: Thu Jun 4 13:18:31 2015 +0200
```

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 d3d41b9] Third commit
1 file changed, 2 insertions(+)
```

Two remarks are due here:

1. The example we have just seen to understand why the staging area is useful is quite artificial. It is however rather important, 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 losing 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?

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 0b6dacd] Add fourth line to foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
```

2.5 The log command

The `log` command prints an history of all the commits.

```
In [24]: %%bash
         git log

commit 0b6dacd6d0792b096a1d075614f100bb5d7afcd2
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:   Thu Jun 4 13:18:32 2015 +0200
```

Add fourth line to foo.txt

```
commit d3d41b9db307ba8d5698d23c4eefa5376b6dac06
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:   Thu Jun 4 13:18:32 2015 +0200
```

Third commit

```
commit cb1a8e7e1afde0d21aa75e2188c0fdff1042fb2f
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:   Thu Jun 4 13:18:31 2015 +0200
```

Initial commit.

```
In [25]: %%bash
         git log -p

commit 0b6dacd6d0792b096a1d075614f100bb5d7afcd2
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:   Thu Jun 4 13:18:32 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
@@ -1,3 +1,4 @@
 First line
 Second line
 Third line
+Fourth line
```

```
commit d3d41b9db307ba8d5698d23c4eefa5376b6dac06
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:   Thu Jun 4 13:18:32 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 cb1a8e7e1afde0d21aa75e2188c0fdff1042fb2f
Author: David Froger <david.froger@inria.fr>
Date:   Thu Jun 4 13:18:31 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.

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:

```
In [26]: %%bash
         git checkout master^
```

Note: checking out 'master^'.

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 d3d41b9... 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:

```
In [27]: %%bash
         cat foo.txt
```

```
First line
Second line
Third line
```

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

```
In [28]: %%bash
         git checkout master
```

Previous HEAD position was d3d41b9... Third commit
Switched to branch 'master'

And let's verify that this worked, too:

```
In [29]: %%bash
         cat foo.txt
```

First line
Second line
Third line
Fourth line

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.

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 developers 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.

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**:

```
In [30]: %%bash
         git branch bar
```

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).

```
In [31]: %%bash
         git branch
```

```
bar
* master
```

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

```
In [32]: %%bash
         git checkout bar
         git branch
```

```
* bar
  master
```

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 b166c88] First line of bar.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
create mode 100644 bar.txt
[bar e88fd6a] Second line of bar.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
[master 5791763] Fifth line of foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
[master 5f34e3a] Sixth line of foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
[bar 0880e14] Third line of bar.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
```

```
Switched to branch 'master'
Switched to branch 'bar'
```

2.10 The merge command

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

```
In [34]: %%bash
git checkout master
git merge bar
```

```
Merge made by the 'recursive' strategy.
bar.txt | 3 +++
1 file changed, 3 insertions(+)
create mode 100644 bar.txt
```

```
Switched to branch 'master'
```

Because there is no conflict, the merge is performed automatically. In case of conflict (same lines of a file modified in both branches):

- the merge operation stops,
- the developer edits the conflicting files to solve the conflict,
- the developer commits the merged files.

2.11 What Git branches are

Edit the file `~` 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
```

```
* e8971a6 (HEAD, master) Merge branch 'bar' (David Froger)
| \
| * 0880e14 (bar) Third line of bar.txt (David Froger)
| * e88fd6a Second line of bar.txt (David Froger)
| * b166c88 First line of bar.txt (David Froger)
* | 5f34e3a Sixth line of foo.txt (David Froger)
* | 5791763 Fifth line of foo.txt (David Froger)
| /
* 0b6dacd Add fourth line to foo.txt (David Froger)
* d3d41b9 Third commit (David Froger)
* cb1a8e7 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 the 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 will 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)

3 Exercise

During the exercise, experiment with `git log`, `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

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('')
```

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

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 `~` 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 `~`. 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.

```
In [42]: %%bash
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 13:18 branches
-rw-r--r-- 1 froger sed   66 Jun  4 13:18 config
-rw-r--r-- 1 froger sed   73 Jun  4 13:18 description
-rw-r--r-- 1 froger sed   23 Jun  4 13:18 HEAD
drwxr-xr-x 2 froger sed 4096 Jun  4 13:18 hooks
drwxr-xr-x 2 froger sed 4096 Jun  4 13:18 info
drwxr-xr-x 4 froger sed 4096 Jun  4 13:18 objects
drwxr-xr-x 4 froger sed 4096 Jun  4 13:18 refs

```

Alice clones the central repository:

```

In [43]: %%bash
          git clone file:///PWD/central.git alice

```

Cloning into 'alice'...

warning: You appear to have cloned an empty 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):

```

In [44]: changedir('alice')

```

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

```

In [45]: %%bash
          git config --local user.name "Alice"
          git config --local user.email alice@inria.fr

```

4.2 The remote command

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

```

In [46]: %%bash
          git remote

```

origin

When the central repository has been cloned, Git has given it the name **origin**, by convention.

Later, we will learn how to register additional 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) b4182d9] First line of foo.txt
 1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
 create mode 100644 foo.txt
[master 6a5b517] Second line of foo.txt
 1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)

```


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 [48]: %%bash
         git push origin master:master
```

```
To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git
```

```
* [new branch]      master -> master
```

Bob now clones the central repository too, enters it and configures his name and email:

```
In [49]: changedir('')
```

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

```
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 6a5b51790c06eb9405d665e51814218017e4da73
Author: Alice <alice@inria.fr>
Date:   Thu Jun 4 13:18:34 2015 +0200
```

```
    Second line of foo.txt
```

```
commit b4182d9b3880504ed53d0f60bbd89af90d01c77a
Author: Alice <alice@inria.fr>
Date:   Thu Jun 4 13:18:34 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 20c9479] Third line to foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
```

```
To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git
6a5b517..20c9479  master -> master
```

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
 6a5b517..20c9479  master    -> origin/master
```

4.5 Remote branches

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

```
In [57]: %%bash
          git branch
```

```
* master
```

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

```
In [58]: %%bash
          git branch -a
```

```
* 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**:

```
In [59]: %%bash
          git branch -r
```

```
origin/master
```

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

```
In [60]: %%bash
          git merge remotes/origin/master
```

```
Updating 6a5b517..20c9479
Fast-forward
 foo.txt |    1 +
 1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
```

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

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

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 badb1a5] First line of bar.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
create mode 100644 bar.txt
[exp 73ba4df] 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
* [new branch]      exp -> exp
```

4.7 Tracking branch

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 bb2e0af] Third line in foo.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
[master 4cd3a70] 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]      exp      -> origin/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.

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 6e69132] 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

* 6e69132      (HEAD, exp) Third line in bar.txt (Bob)
* 73ba4df      (origin/exp) Second line in bar.txt (Alice)
* badb1a5      First line of bar.txt (Alice)
| * 4cd3a70      (master) Fourth line in foo.txt (Bob)
| * bb2e0af      Third line in foo.txt (Bob)
|/
* 20c9479      (origin/master, origin/HEAD) Third line to foo.txt (Bob)
* 6a5b517      Second line of foo.txt (Alice)
* b4182d9      First line of foo.txt (Alice)
```

We note that:

- Bob's `master` branch has 2 more commits than the `central` one.
- Bob's `exp` branch has 1 more commit than the `central` one.

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

```
In [69]: %%bash
git branch -avv

* exp                6e69132 [origin/exp: ahead 1] Third line in bar.txt
master              4cd3a70 [origin/master: ahead 2] Fourth line in foo.txt
remotes/origin/HEAD -> origin/master
remotes/origin/exp   73ba4df Second line in bar.txt
remotes/origin/master 20c9479 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
73ba4df..6e69132 exp -> exp
To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git
20c9479..4cd3a70 master -> master
```

```
In [71]: %%bash
git gr

* 6e69132      (HEAD, origin/exp, exp) Third line in bar.txt (Bob)
* 73ba4df      Second line in bar.txt (Alice)
* badb1a5      First line of bar.txt (Alice)
| * 4cd3a70      (origin/master, origin/HEAD, master) Fourth line in foo.txt (Bob)
| * bb2e0af      Third line in foo.txt (Bob)
|/
* 20c9479      Third line to foo.txt (Bob)
* 6a5b517      Second line of foo.txt (Alice)
* b4182d9      First line of foo.txt (Alice)
```

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
git checkout master
git merge exp
git push origin master:master
git branch -d exp
git push origin :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 6e69132).
```

```
* 4a38f5c      (HEAD, origin/master, origin/HEAD, master) Merge branch 'exp' (Bob)
| \
| * 6e69132      Third line in bar.txt (Bob)
| * 73ba4df      Second line in bar.txt (Alice)
| * badb1a5      First line of bar.txt (Alice)
```

```

* | 4cd3a70          Fourth line in foo.txt (Bob)
* | bb2e0af          Third line in foo.txt (Bob)
|/
* 20c9479           Third line to foo.txt (Bob)
* 6a5b517           Second line of foo.txt (Alice)
* b4182d9           First line of foo.txt (Alice)

Switched to branch 'master'
To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git
    4cd3a70..4a38f5c  master -> master
To file:///nas/home3/f/froger/git-training/central.git
- [deleted]         exp

```

5 Distributed workflow

Committing to a central repository is okay for small teams where developers 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, cloning a repository means creating a copy of that repository that has exactly as much information. This opens the road to a workflow different from 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 developer wants to contribute to a project, he/she forks the original bare repository. It means that the developer 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**.

Let us see this in practice by adding **Emma** as a developer 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 functionality 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'

git push origin baz:baz
```

```
[baz 1ae59f8] First line in baz.txt
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+)
create mode 100644 baz.txt
[baz 569eae6] 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 **master** branch of **central**.

Note: GitHub provides functionality 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.

```
In [79]: %%bash
git remote add emma file:///HOME/git-training/central-emma-fork.git
git fetch emma
```

```
From file:///home/ROCQ/sedrocq/froger/git-training/central-emma-fork
* [new branch]      baz      -> emma/baz
* [new branch]      master   -> emma/master
```

At this point, Alice and Emma 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 20c9479..569eae6
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
 4a38f5c..569eae6  master -> master
```

6 Exercice

This exercise 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.

7 References

<http://www.git-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>