

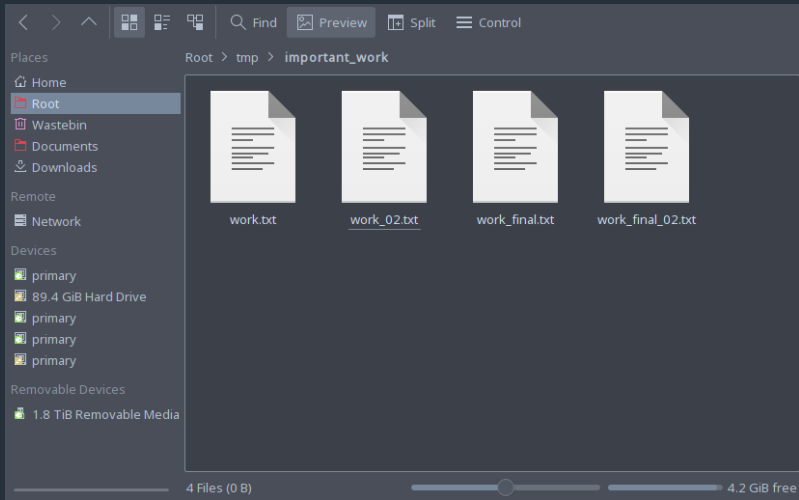
# Introduction to Version Control

Peter Hill

# Outline

- What and why version control
- Basics of git
- Using a web service

# What is version control?



[ls\\_this\\_version\\_control\\_meme.jpg](#)

# What is version control?

- Version control systems record changes to a file/set of files over time
  - Not just software! This talk is under version control
  - Allows you revert files back to a previous state, compare changes over time, see who last modified something, etc.
- Instead of keeping multiple copies of the same file, normally just store the *differences* (“diffs”) between versions of the files

# Why is version control important?

- Tracking versions
  - Know instantly which is the latest version
  - Roll back to previous versions
  - See history of project/file/line
  - Find out when bugs were introduced
  - Maintain/compare different versions
- Coordination between developers
  - Easier to keep track of when changes are made
  - Easier to work on separate features
  - Easier to merge distinct changes from separate developers
  - Easier to resolve conflicts on same features
  - Tracking who made what changes

If it's not under version control, it doesn't exist!

# The gist of git

## The building blocks: diffs

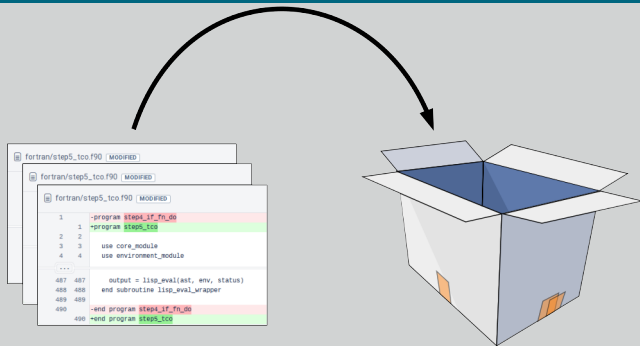
```
fortran/step5_tco.f90 MODIFIED
1      -program step4_if_fn_do
1      +program step5_tco
2      2
3      3      use core_module
4      4      use environment_module
...
487 487      output = lisp_eval(ast, env, status)
488 488      end subroutine lisp_eval_wrapper
489 489
490      -end program step4_if_fn_do
490      +end program step5_tco
```

A simple diff

- Shows differences between individual lines
- Lines beginning with “-” have been removed
- Lines beginning with “+” have been added
- Changed lines are shown as removal plus addition

# The gist of git

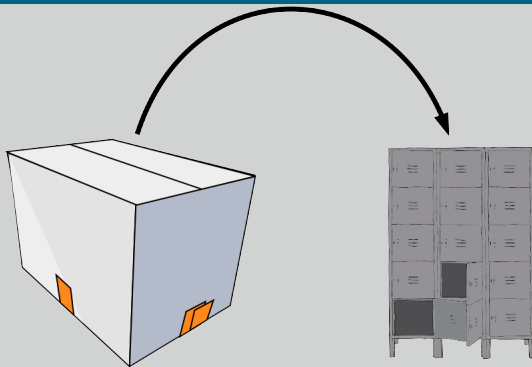
## Add diffs to a staging area



Add diffs to stage

# The gist of git

Commit the staging area to the repository

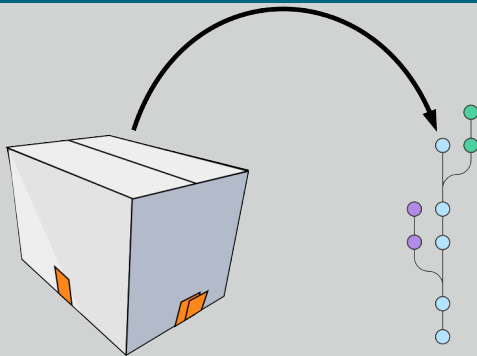


Commit changes to the repository



# The gist of git

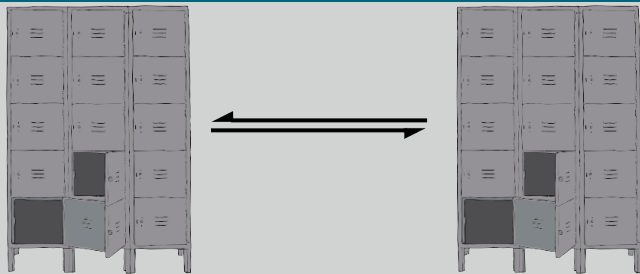
Commit the staging area to the repository



Commit changes to the repository

# This gist of git

## Sync with other people's repositories

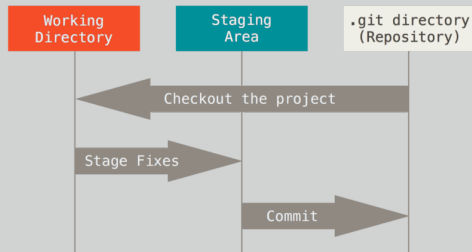


Sync local and remote repositories

# Using git

## The Three Stages

- Important to understand correctly
- Three main states that files can be in:
  - 1 Committed: data stored in repo
  - 2 Modified: file is changed but not committed
  - 3 Staged: modified file marked to go into next commit



git three stages

# Using git

## Graphical interfaces

For Mac and Windows:

- Sourcetree: <https://www.sourcetreeapp.com/>

For Linux:

- git-cola: <http://git-cola.github.io/>

For Emacs:

- magit: <https://magit.vc/>

# Today's toolkit

## What you'll need

- Linux
- A terminal
- A text editor
- Optionally: a file browser

# First steps

## Making a repository

- We need to create a repository first

```
$ mkdir my_git_test
```

```
$ git init
```

- Let's see what it looks like

- What do you see after typing each of the following commands?

```
$ ls
```

```
$ ls -A
```

```
$ git status
```

# git commands

## Getting help

```
$ git <command> --help
```

## git status

- `git status`: Show the working tree status
- **Glossary** “Working tree”: what the repository directory looks like, including any changes
- Going to be our most used command today!
- Use it whenever you’re not sure what’s going on

# First steps

## Initial commit

- Add some text to a new file and save it in your repository
- What does `git status` show now?
- Follow the instructions to add your new file to the staging area
- Check `git status` again

```
$ echo "Some text" > newfile.txt
```

```
$ git status
```

```
$ git add newfile.txt
```

```
$ git status
```



# First steps

## Initial commit

- Now we need to actually commit our commit  
\$ `git commit`
- Your default editor should pop up
  - If you hate it, change your `EDITOR` variable
- The traditional first commit message is “Initial commit”
- Now check `git status` again

# git commands

## git add

- `git add <file>`: Add file to the index
- **Glossary** “Index”: the stored form of the working tree, i.e. the staging area, our “box”

## git commit

- `git commit`: Record changes to the repository
- Until you run `git commit`, the changes made to the staging area (index) remain separate from the working tree and repository

# Writing commit messages

- Writing good commit messages is a skill!
- Commit messages serve as documentation for your project
- Finish the sentence: “This commit will. . .”

## Good

- Fix bug in boundary conditions
- Add new routine for calculating potential

## Bad

- update code
- I fixed some stuff

# First steps

## Making our first change

- Change the text in your file however you like
- Time for `git status`
- Ok, but how to actually see the changes?  
`$ git diff` # All files  
`$ git diff <file>...` # Just certain files
- Press `q` to quit the “pager”

## Commit the change

- It's a two-step step: add then commit  
`$ git add <file>`  
`$ git commit`

# git commands

## git diff

- `git diff`: Show changes between commits, commit and working tree, etc
- Without arguments, or with just files, shows differences between the working tree and the staging area
- Use `git diff --staged` to see the difference between staging area and latest commit (i.e. what's going into the *next* commit)

# The basics

## Updating the staging area

- Make a change and `git add` it
- Now make another change to the same bit of that file
- Check `git status`, what do you see?
- Try `git diff`, then `git diff --staged`, what's the difference?
- `git add` your second change, and try the two `diff` commands again

# The basics

## Updating the staging area

```
# Edit file
$ git add <file>
# Edit file again
$ git status
$ git diff
$ git diff --staged
$ git add <file>
$ git status
$ git diff
$ git diff --staged
```

# The basics

## Looking back

- Make some more changes and make two or three more commits
- View the history so far:  
`$ git log`
- View a particular commit in more detail:  
`$ git show <hash>`
- **Glossary** “commit hash”: a 40-digit hexadecimal “hash” that uniquely identifies a commit. Generally only ~7 digits are needed. The largest projects need upto 12



# git commands

## git log

- `git log`: Show commit logs
- There are lots of options here!
- Lots of ways to format the log, or search for particular commits

## git show

- `git show`: Show various types of objects
- Also lots of options for formatting the output, etc.

# The basics

## Undoing unwanted changes

- Delete your file!
- Check `git status` – can you see how to get it back (i.e. discard the change)?

## Undoing changes to the index

- Make a change to a file and now add but **don't** commit
- The usual – `git status` – how do you remove something from the staging area?

# The basics

## Undoing things

```
# Make a change to a file  
$ git checkout -- <file>  
# Make another change  
$ git add <file>  
$ git reset HEAD <file>
```

# git commands

## git checkout

- `git checkout [options]`: Switch branches or restore working tree files
- **Glossary** “checkout”: modify the working tree *en masse*
- Remove unwanted changes to a file:  
\$ `git checkout -- <file>`
- Note: one of the few things in git that can't be undone!

# git commands

## git reset

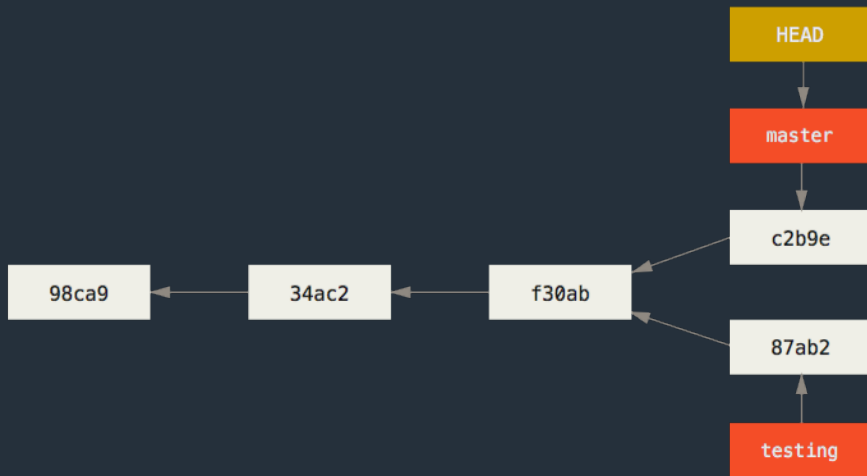
- `git reset`: Reset current HEAD to the specified state
- **Glossary** “HEAD”: the current commit that the working tree is based on
- `reset` can change the working tree and/or staging area, but doesn't change HEAD, i.e. what commit you're working from
- Remove a file from the staging area (but leave the changes in the working tree):  
\$ `git reset HEAD <file>`

# Beyond the basics: branches

## What is a branch?

- A git repo is like a tree (technically a directed acyclic graph), and like trees has branches
- More practically, a branch is just a label for a particular commit
- Can have lots of different labels on a given commit, i.e. lots of branches all the same
- Default first branch is called “master”
- You're not forced to share your local branches with others
- Can experiment and explore, then chuck away branches that didn't work out
- Making a new branch is always safe!

# Beyond the basics: branches



# Beyond the basics: branches

## Making a new branch

- `git branch` command is normally not what we want
- Make a new branch and check the status and log:

```
$ git checkout -b new_branch  
$ git status  
$ git log
```

## Switching branches

- Switch back to master, check status and log:

```
$ git checkout master  
$ git status  
$ git log
```



# Beyond the basics: branches

## Making changes on a branch

- Switch back to your new branch
- Create a new file, add some text and save it in your repo
- Add and commit this new file
- Let's look at a summary of all our branches:  
\$ `git log --oneline --all --graph`
- Can you see where `master`, `HEAD` and your new branch are?
- Switch back to `master` – what's happened to your new file?

# Beyond the basics: branches

## Making changes on a branch

```
$ git checkout <your branch>
# Add a new file
$ git add <new file>
$ git commit
$ git log --oneline --all --graph
$ git checkout master
$ ls
```

# Moving forward: Merging

## Merging

- Branches are only really useful if we can get those changes back into our main branch
- Merges are probably the biggest cause of problems, as it can be a tricky problem!
- Remember: it's **always** safe to make a new branch and try something out there!
- Several different ways to do a merge, with differing results

# Merging

## Fast-forwarding

- This works when the branch being merged *from* was forked from the tip of the branch being merged *into*
- Often the nicest way to merge if it's possible

```
^          C <-- branch2
|          |
|          B
|          /
time      A <-- branch1
```

# Merging

## Fast-forwarding

- This works when the branch being merged *from* was forked from the tip of the branch being merged *into*
- Often the nicest way to merge if it's possible

```
^           C <-- branch2 >   C <-- branch1, branch2
|           |                 >   |
|           B                 >   B
|           /                 >   |
time      A <-- branch1 >     A
```

# Merging

## A simple case

- You should have two branches: `master` and `<your branch>`
- Only difference should be `<your branch>` has an extra file in it
- Very simple to merge this case!
- Checkout `master` and merge your branch
- What does the full log look like now?

```
$ git checkout master
```

```
$ git merge <your branch>
```

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

# git commands

## git merge

- `git merge`: Join two or more development histories together
- From the branch you want to merge something **into**, run  
`$ git merge <other branch>`
- If you run into trouble, abort the merge, create a new branch from your “main” branch and try things out in there  
`$ git merge --abort`  
`$ git checkout -b test-merge-branch`

# Merging

## Non fast-forwarding

- If there are any “conflicts” between the two branches, it’s a little trickier
- You’ll need to resolve the conflicts, and a special “merge commit” will be created
  - This is special as it has two parents
- Some people/projects prefer to always have a merge commit as this may be easier to remove a feature if it has multiple commits

```
^      C    <- branch1
|      | B  <- branch2
|      | /
time   A
```



# Merging

## Non fast-forwarding

- If there are any “conflicts” between the two branches, it’s a little trickier
- You’ll need to resolve the conflicts, and a special “merge commit” will be created
  - This is special as it has two parents
- Some people/projects prefer to always have a merge commit as this may be easier to remove a feature if it has multiple commits

```

                > D   <- branch1 (merge commit)
                > | \
    ^           C   > C |
    |           | B > | B <- branch2
    |           | / > | /
time          A   > A
```

# Merging

## Fixing conflicts

- Conflicts happen when both branches touch the same line(s) in a file
- Conflicts are marked with a diff-like syntax
- To resolve the conflict, just go to the conflicting files and edit them appropriately
- There are lots of tools that can help you with this, e.g. ediff, meld, diff3

```
<<<<<<< HEAD
```

```
line changed in branch1
```

```
=====
```

```
line changed in branch2
```

```
>>>>>>> merging branch
```

- Just delete all the special markers and the lines(s) you don't want to keep
- Sometimes you want some combination of both regions – just edit the lines to keep what you want
- You can bail out of a merge with `git merge --abort`

# Merging

## Creating conflicts

- Make a new file call `conflicts.txt` with the contents “some words”
- Commit this file to `master`
- Now create and checkout a new branch called `conflict-branch`
- Change `conflicts.txt` to read “some **more** words”
- Commit this file on `conflict-branch`
- Checkout `master` again and change `conflicts.txt` to read “some **other** words”
- Commit this file on `master`
- Now try to merge `conflict-branch` into `master`
- Fix the conflict, save the file

# Merging

## Creating conflicts

```
$ echo "some words" > conflicts.txt
$ git add conflicts.txt; git commit
$ git checkout -b conflict-branch
$ echo "some more words" > conflicts.txt
$ git add conflicts.txt; git commit
$ git checkout master
$ git log --all --oneline --graph
$ echo "some other words" > conflicts.txt
$ git add conflicts.txt; git commit
$ git merge conflict-branch
# Remove conflict markers from conflicts.txt
$ git add conflicts.txt; git commit
$ git log --all --oneline --graph
```

# Merging

## Rebasing

- **DANGER!** This rewrites history!
- This has the biggest potential to cause headaches
- Rebasing a branch onto another one means to change the first branch's "base" to the new branch
- It works by "replaying" the commits on top of the second branch

```
^      C   <- branch1
|      | B <- branch2
|      |/
time   A
```

# Merging

## Rebasing

- **DANGER!** This rewrites history!
- This has the biggest potential to cause headaches
- Rebasing a branch onto another one means to change the first branch's "base" to the new branch
- It works by "replaying" the commits on top of the second branch

```
                > B' <- branch2
^      C      > |
|      | B    > C <- branch1
|      | /    > |
time   A      > A
```

- B' contains (roughly) the same diffs as B

# Beyond the basics: branches

## Stashes

- Very often the case that you want to switch branches, but you have made changes that either clash with the other branch, or you just don't want to carry over
- Stashes are like commits on “anonymous” branches
- They save both your staged and unstaged changes, then discard them from your working tree
- Change your file, then `stash` it
- View the stashes with `stash list`, and re-apply the latest stash with `stash apply`

```
$ git stash
```

```
$ git stash list
```

```
$ git stash apply
```

# Getting started with Bitbucket

## Signing up

- Sign up with York email address to get academic account
- Two steps: sign up for Bitbucket account, and then get a username
  - I know, it's weird



# Getting started with Bitbucket

## Make a repository on Bitbucket

- Click the big + on the left
- Click “Repository”
- Give it a name and decide if you want it public or private
- Click “Create repository”

## Add the remote repository

- Follow the instructions on Bitbucket:

```
# Add the remote
```

```
$ git remote add origin https://bitbucket.org/<username>/into_to_git.g
```

```
$ git push origin master
```

# git commands

## git push

- `git push`: Update remote refs along with associated objects
- **Glossary** “remote”: a version of this repository that is located elsewhere
- **Glossary** “refs”: reference to some git object (normally a branch)
- **Glossary**: “tracking branch”: a local reference to this branch on a remote repo

# Getting started with Bitbucket

## Getting remote changes

- From the three-dot menu in the top right, click “Add file”
- Name the file “README.md” and some text
- Click “Commit” in the bottom right
- Now we need to get this file in our local version...
- The quick way:  
\$ `git pull`

# git commands

## git pull

- `git pull`: Fetch from and integrate with another repository or a local branch
- If the branch has a tracking branch (i.e. is linked to some branch on a remote), then `git pull` does the Right Thing
- Otherwise, specify remote and branch: `git pull <remote> <branch>`

# Random notes

## Working with others

- git does not enforce a particular way of working with other people
- Easiest method is “feature branches”
- Everybody works in branches off the main “master” branch
- When it's ready to share with others, make a “pull request”
- Other people can check your work
- Easy to resolve conflicts

# Further reading

- Git book: <https://git-scm.com/book>
- Atlassian tutorial: <https://www.atlassian.com/git/tutorials>
- Codecademy: <https://www.codecademy.com/learn/learn-git>

## Image credits

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