

1) A blog on Difference between HTTP1.1 vs HTTP2

The Background

For better contextualization of the certain alterations that HTTP/2 made to its precursor, we'll take a quick look at their basic functionalities and development details first.

HTTP/1.1

HTTP protocol was developed in 1989 as the common language that enables client and server machines' interaction. Process steps are as enlisted:

1. The client (browser) has to send a request to the server using the method (GET/POST).
2. Server responds with the requested resource, for example – image, alongside the status of what it did to the client's request.

Keep in mind that this is not a one-time process. Such requests and responses needs to be transferred between both these machines until the client receives all the resources, essential to load a web page on the end-user's (your) screen.

This request-response exchange can be regarded as an IP stack being handled by transfer layer and networking layers before finally reaching to the application layer. Now, let's see how HTTP/2 handles the same scenario.

HTTP/2

HTTP/2 was released at Google as the significant improvement of its predecessor. It was initially modeled after the SPDY protocol and went through significant changes to include features like multiplexing, header compression, and stream prioritization to minimize page load latency. After its release, Google announced that it would not provide support for SPDY in favor of HTTP/2.

The major feature that differentiates HTTP/2 from HTTP/1.1 is the binary framing layer. Unlike HTTP/1.1, HTTP/2 uses a binary framing layer. This layer encapsulates messages – converted to its binary equivalent – while making sure that its HTTP semantics (method details, header information, etc.) remain untamed. This feature of HTTP/2 enables gRPC to use lesser resources.

Delivery Models

As discussed before, HTTP/1.1 sends messages as plain text, and HTTP/2 encodes them into binary data and arranges them carefully. This implies that HTTP/2 can have various delivery models.

Most of the time, a client's initial response in return for an HTTP GET request is not the fully-loaded page. Fetching additional resources from the server requires that the client send repeated requests, break or form the TCP connection repeatedly for them.

As you can conclude already, this process will consume lots of resources and time.

HTTP/1.1

HTTP/1.1 addresses this problem by creating a persistent connection between server and client. Until explicitly closed, this connection will remain open. So, the client can use one TCP connection throughout the communication sans interrupting it again and again.

This approach surely ensures good performance, but it also is problematic.

For example – If a request at the queue head cannot retrieve its required resources, it can block all requests behind it. This phenomenon is called head-of-line blocking (HOL blocking).

From the above, we can conclude that multiple TCP connections are essential.

HTTP/2

Considering the bottleneck in the previous scenario, the HTTP/2 developers introduced a binary framing layer. This layer partitions requests and responses in tiny data packets and encodes them. Due to this, multiple requests and responses become able to run parallelly with HTTP/2 and chances of HOL blocking are bleak.

Not only has it solved the HOL blocking problem in HTTP/1.1, but it also concurrent message exchange between the client and the server. This way, both of them can have more control while the connection management quality is boosted too.

The problems of HTTP/1.1 looks resolved to a great extent here. However, at times, multiple data streams demanding the same resource can hinder HTTP/2's performance. To achieve better performance, HTTP/2 has another way. It has the capability of stream prioritization.

Predicting Resource Requests

As already discussed, the client receives an HTML page on sending a GET request. While examining the page contents, the client determines that it needs additional resources for rendering the page and makes further requests to fetch these resources. As a consequence of these requests, the connection load time increases. Since the server already knows that the client needs additional files, it can save the client time by sending these resources before requesting; thus, offering a great solution to the problem.

HTTP/1.1

To accomplish this, HTTP/1.1 has a different technique called resource inlining, wherein the server includes the required source within the HTML page in response to the initial GET request. Though this technique reduces the number of requests that the client must send, the larger, non-text format files increase the size of the page.

As a result, the connection speed decreases, and the primary benefit obtained from it also nullifies. Another drawback is the client cannot separate the inlined resources from the HTML page. For this, a deeper level of control is required for connection optimization – a need that HTTP/2 meets with server push.

HTTP/2

As HTTP/2 supports multiple simultaneous responses to the client's initial GET request, the server provides the required resource along with the requested HTML page. This is called the server push process, which performs the resource inlining like its precursor while keeping the page and the pushed resource separate. This process fixes the main drawback of resource inlining by enabling the client machine to decide to cache/decline the pushed resource separate from the HTML page.

Buffer Overflow

HTTP/1.1

The flow control mechanism in HTTP/1.1 relies on the basic TCP connection. In beginning itself, both the machines set their buffer sizes automatically. If the receiver's buffer is full, it shares the receive window details, telling how much available space is left. The receiver acknowledges the same and sends an opening signal.

Note that flow control can only be implemented on either end of the connection. Moreover, since HTTP/1.1 uses a TCP connection, each connection demands an individual flow control mechanism.

HTTP/2

It multiplexes data streams utilizing the same (one) TCP connection. So, in this case, both machines can implement their flow controls instead of using the transport layer. The application layer shares the available buffer size data, after which, both machines set their receive window details on the multiplexed streams level. In addition, the flow control mechanism does not need to wait for the signal to reach its destination before modifying the receive window.

Compression

Every HTTP transfer contains headers that describe the sent resource and its properties. This metadata can add up to 1KB or more of overhead per transfer, impacting the overall performance. For minimizing this overhead and boosting performance, compressions algorithms must be used to reduce the size of HTTP messages that travels between the machines.

HTTP/1.1

HTTP/1.x uses formats like gzip to compress the data transferred in the messages. However, the header component of the message is always sent as plain text. Though the header itself is small, it gets larger due to the use of cookies or an increased number of requests.

HTTP/2

To deal with this bottleneck, HTTP/2 uses HPACK compression to decrease the average size of the header. This compression program encodes the header metadata using Huffman coding, which significantly reduces its size as a result. In addition, HPACK keeps track of previously transferred header values and further compresses them as per a dynamically modified index shared between client and server.

2) A blog about objects and its internal representation in Javascript

Objects, in JavaScript, is its most important data-type and forms the building blocks for modern JavaScript. These objects are quite different from JavaScript's primitive data-types (Number, String, Boolean, null, undefined and symbol) in the sense that while these primitive data-types all store a single value each (depending on their types).

Objects are more complex and each object may contain any combination of these primitive data-types as well as reference data-types.

An object, is a reference data type. Variables that are assigned a reference value are given a reference or a pointer to that value. That reference or pointer points to the location in memory where the object is stored. The variables don't actually store the value.

Loosely speaking, objects in JavaScript may be defined as an unordered collection of related data, of primitive or reference types, in the form of "key: value" pairs. These keys can be variables or functions and are called properties and methods, respectively, in the context of an object.

For Eg. If your object is a student, it will have properties like name, age, address, id, etc and methods like `updateAddress`, `updateName`, etc.

Objects and properties

A JavaScript object has properties associated with it. A property of an object can be explained as a variable that is attached to the object. Object properties are basically the same as ordinary JavaScript variables, except for the attachment to objects. The properties of an object define the characteristics of the object. You access the properties of an object with a simple dot-notation:

```
objectName.propertyName
```

Like all JavaScript variables, both the object name (which could be a normal variable) and property name are case sensitive. You can define a property by assigning it a value. For example, let's create an object named `myCar` and give it properties

named `make`, `model`, and `year` as follows:

```
var myCar = new Object();
myCar.make = 'Ford';
myCar.model = 'Mustang';
myCar.year = 1969;
```

Unassigned properties of an object are undefined (and not null).

```
myCar.color; // undefined
```

Properties of JavaScript objects can also be accessed or set using a bracket notation (for more details see [property accessors](#)). Objects are sometimes called *associative arrays*, since each property is associated with a string value that can be used to access it. So, for example, you could access the properties of the `myCar` object as

follows:

```
myCar['make'] = 'Ford';
myCar['model'] = 'Mustang';
myCar['year'] = 1969;
```

An object property name can be any valid JavaScript string, or anything that can be converted to a string, including the empty string. However, any property name that is not a valid JavaScript identifier (for example, a property name that has a space or a hyphen, or that starts with a number) can only be accessed using the square bracket notation. This notation is also very useful when property names are to be dynamically determined (when the property name is not determined until runtime). Examples are as follows:

```
// four variables are created and assigned in a single go,
// separated by commas
var myObj = new Object(),
    str = 'myString',
    rand = Math.random(),
    obj = new Object();
myObj.type           = 'Dot syntax';
myObj['date created'] = 'String with space';
myObj[str]           = 'String value';
myObj[rand]          = 'Random Number';
myObj[obj]           = 'Object';
myObj['']             = 'Even an empty string'; console.log(myObj);
```

You can also access properties by using a string value that is stored in a variable:

```
var propertyName = 'make';
myCar[propertyName] = 'Ford'; propertyName = 'model';
myCar[propertyName] = 'Mustang';
```

You can use the bracket notation with [for...in](#) to iterate over all the enumerable properties of an object. To illustrate how this works, the following function displays the properties of the object when you pass the object and the object's name as arguments to the function:

```
function showProps(obj, objName) {
    var result = ``;
    for (var i in obj) {
        // obj.hasOwnProperty() is used to filter out properties from the object's
        // prototype chain
        if (obj.hasOwnProperty(i)) {
            result += `${objName}.${i} = ${obj[i]}\n`;
        }
    }
    return result;
}
```

So, the function call `showProps(myCar, "myCar")` would return the following:

```
myCar.make = Ford
myCar.model = Mustang
myCar.year = 1969
```

Creating Objects In JavaScript :

Create JavaScript Object with Object Literal

One of easiest way to create a javascript object is object literal, simply define the property and values inside curly braces as shown below

```
let bike = {name: 'SuperSport', maker: 'Ducati', engine: '937cc'};
```

Create JavaScript Object with Constructor

Constructor is nothing but a function and with help of new keyword, constructor function allows to create multiple objects of same flavor as shown below

```
function Vehicle(name, maker) {
    this.name = name;
    this.maker = maker;
}
```

```
let car1 = new Vehicle('Fiesta', 'Ford');
let car2 = new Vehicle('Santa Fe', 'Hyundai')
console.log(car1.name);    //Output: Fiesta
console.log(car2.name);    //Output: Santa Fe
```

Using the JavaScript Keyword new

The following example also creates a new JavaScript object with four properties:

Example

```
var person = new Object();
person.firstName = "John";
person.lastName = "Doe";
person.age = 50;
person.eyeColor = "blue";
```

Using the `Object.create` method

Objects can also be created using the [Object.create\(\)](#) method. This method can be very useful, because it allows you to choose the prototype object for the object you want to create, without having to define a constructor function.

```
// Animal properties and method encapsulation
var Animal = {
  type: 'Invertebrates', // Default value of properties
  displayType: function() { // Method which will display type of Animal
    console.log(this.type);
  }
};
// Create new animal type called animal1
var animal1 = Object.create(Animal);
animal1.displayType(); // Output:Invertebrates
// Create new animal type called Fishes
var fish = Object.create(Animal);
fish.type = 'Fishes';
fish.displayType(); // Output:Fishes
```