

This is CS50x

OpenCourseWare

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Lecture 5

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Networking

- Today we'll transition from building command-line programs in C to web applications, and though we'll see new languages and ideas and concepts will stay the same.
- **TCP/IP** (Transmission Control Protocol and Internet Protocol) are two protocols, or rules that specify how computers can communicate with each other. The modern internet relies on these protocols to work.
- We might have sent handwritten letters in the mail in the past. On the outside of the envelope, we need to write an address including information like a name, street, and city. We also write our own name and address as the return address.
- Each address, too, should uniquely identify a building or place.
- Our computers also have addresses that uniquely identify them on the internet, called IP addresses. In IPv4, or version 4 of the protocol, these addresses are numbers in the format `#.#.#.#`, four numbers between 0 and 255 separated by dots. And to represent each number (with 256 possible values), we need exactly 8 bits, and so each IP address is made of 32 bits. But with 32 bits, we can only represent 4 billion values. And since there are more than 4 billion devices connected to the internet, we have a newer version of the protocol, IPv6, which has 128-bit addresses, that the world is starting to transition to.
- A **server**, which is just a computer connected to the internet that can listen for and respond to messages, might provide many services, such as a web site or email. To specify that a message is intended for a particular service, such as web browsing, a number called the port number is added to the address. For example, HTTP, for browsing websites, is usually communicated on port 80. So an envelope with a message might have `1.2.3.4:80` as the destination address, and `5.6.7.8` as the return address. And there are other complexities, but that's the basics of how computers can communicate over a network.
- Let's say we wanted to visit a **URL**, Uniform Resource Locator, like `http://www.example.com/`. It turns out that there's another technology called DNS, Domain Name System, that many internet providers and organizations maintain, which converts domain names (like `example.com`) into IP addresses.
 - There are actually now hundreds of TLDs, top-level domains in addition to `.com`, such as `.net`, `.org`, `.us`, `.uk`, and many more.
 - The `www` in front of a domain name is actually a subdomain, and there might be many of them created, each of which points to a different server or set of servers. It's not required, and `www` is only used by convention. For example, MIT uses `web.mit.edu` for their main website's address.

- The `/` at the end implies that we’re asking for the root page of the site, which is conventionally `index.html`, where indicates that the file is written in HTML, a language we’ll soon look at.
- When we type that URL in a browser, our browser first uses DNS to look up the IP address for that domain, and then sends a request (in a virtual envelope) to the right IP address for the website. And when the server at that address responds, it will send us the content of the website in a virtual envelope with our address as the destination.

HTTP

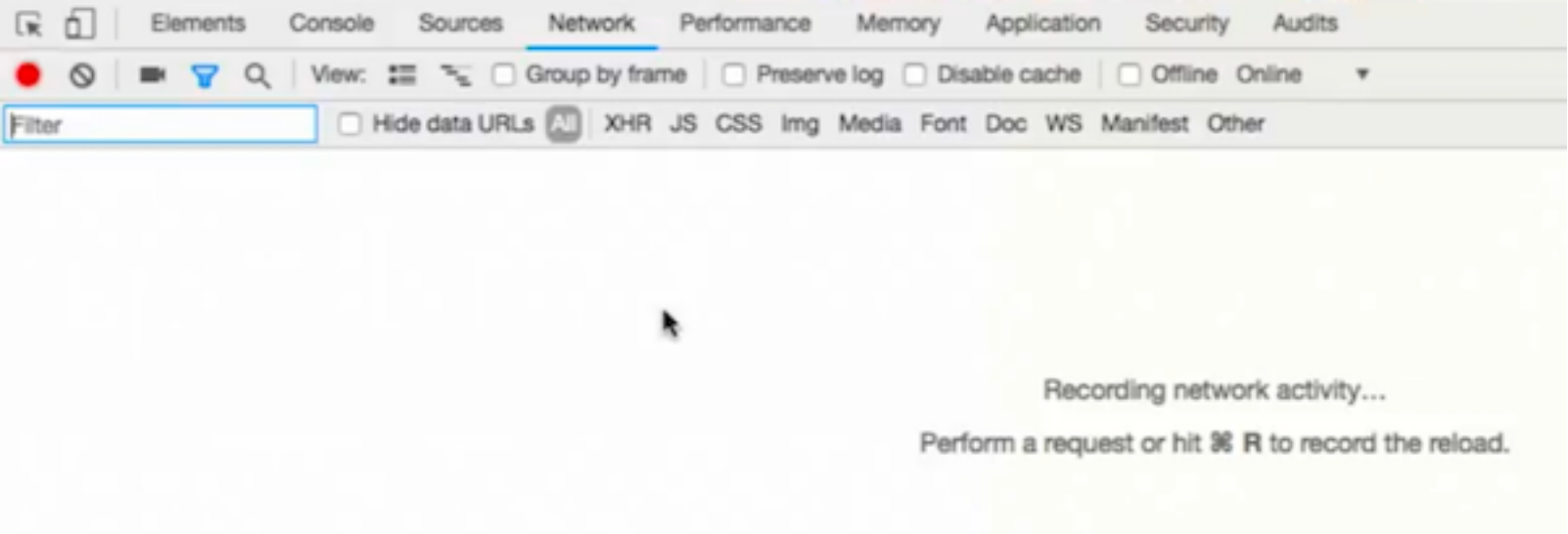
- **HTTP**, Hypertext Transfer Protocol, is another set of rules and conventions for communicating. For example, humans might have a convention of shaking hands when meeting for the first (or subsequent) times. When our browser communicates to web servers through HTTP, too, both computers follow a protocol for making requests and responses.
- A request for a webpage will look like this:

```
GET / HTTP/1.1
Host: www.example.com
...
```

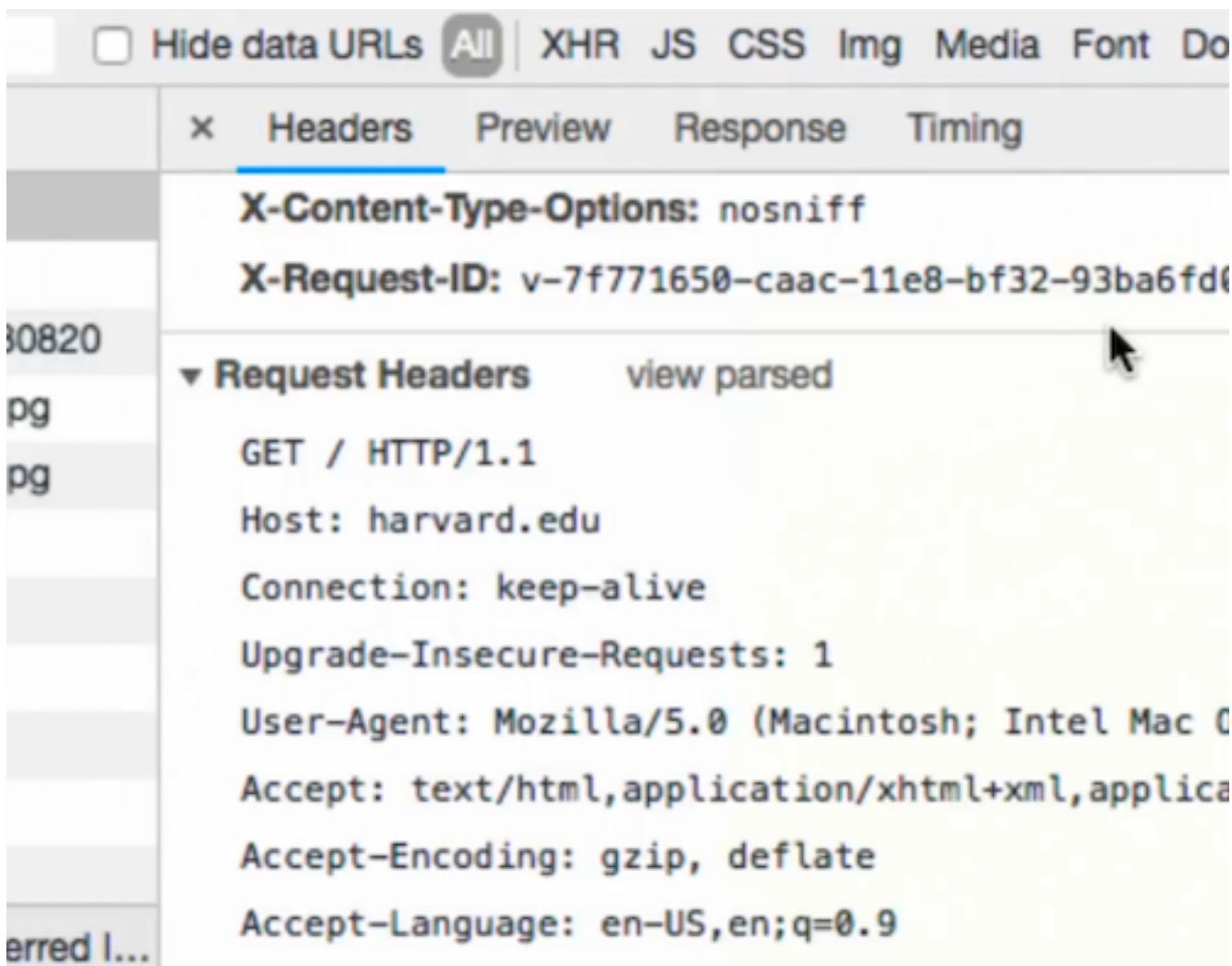
- `GET` is an HTTP verb that indicates we want to fetch some resource. The `/` indicates we’re looking for the default page.
- `HTTP/1.1` indicates the version of HTTP our browser is using.
- Then, `Host: www.example.com` is included, since the same server might be listening for and responding to requests for multiple websites. There are also other pieces of information included in the `...`, to help the server respond to us appropriately.
- The response from the server might look like this:

```
HTTP/1.1 200 OK
Content-Type: text/html
...
```

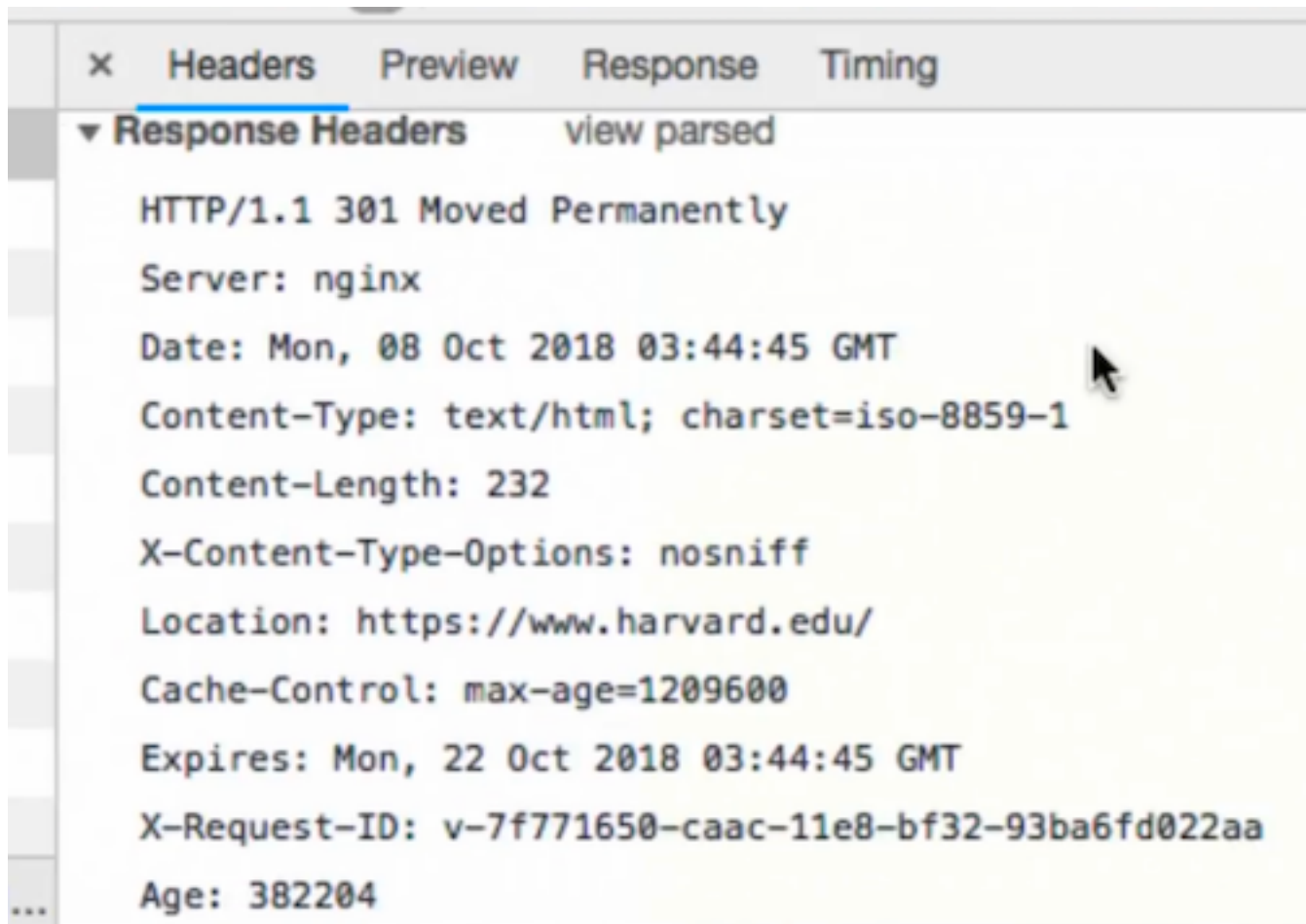
- First, we get back the version of HTTP, `HTTP/1.1`. Then, `200` is a numeric code that means `OK`, that the server was able to understand and respond to the request.
- `Content-Type: text/html` indicates that the content of the response is in the language called HTML, in text format.
- We can open a browser like Chrome, and open the Developer Tools with View > Developer > Developer Tools. A panel will open.



- We can click the Network tab, and if we type `harvard.edu` into the address bar and press enter, a lot will happen very quickly. We can scroll to the very top, click the first request for `harvard.edu`, and see in the right panel, under “Request Headers”, that the browser indeed sends a request that starts with what we expected:



- We can scroll in the same panel and see that the response headers are slightly different:

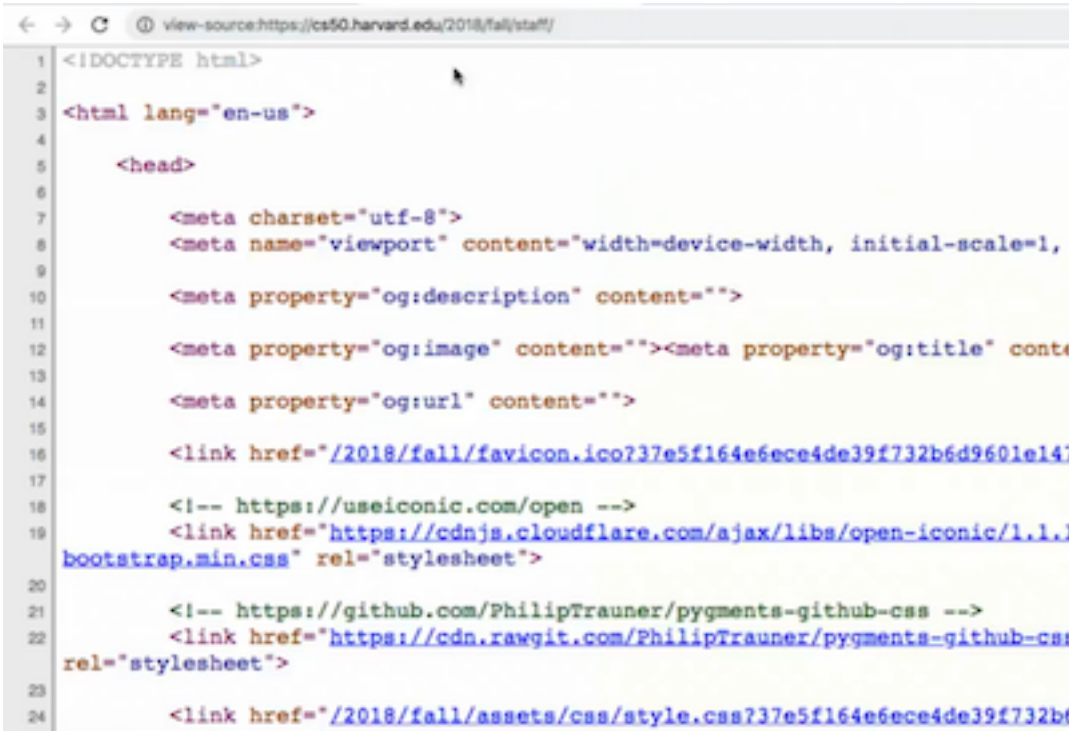


- The response code, **301**, seems to say “Moved Permanently”. And if we look down to “Location:”, we see that the new location is **https://www.harvard.edu**. There’s a **www**, and also a different protocol, HTTPS, which will encrypt our communication more securely.
- Another HTTP code, **404**, is “Not Found”, and we get that back if we’re trying to get some URL that the server can’t find. There are some interesting ones:
 - **200 OK**
 - **301 Moved Permanently**
 - **302 Found**
 - **304 Not Modified**
 - **401 Unauthorized**
 - **403 Forbidden**
 - **404 Not Found**
 - **418 I'm a Teapot**
 - **500 Internal Server Error**
 - ...

HTML

- Now that our computers can communicate, we can start thinking about creating the content that websites are comprised of

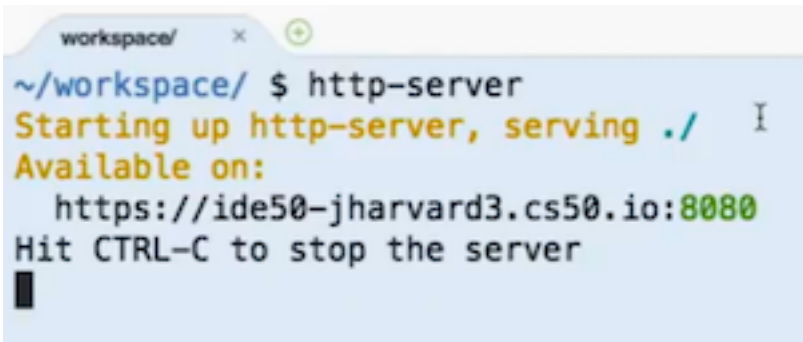
- **HTML**, Hypertext Markup Language, is a standard with which webpages are written. It’s interpreted by browsers from top to bottom and each line might have some text, image, or styling instructions.
- In our browser, we can click View > Developer > View Source on a website to see the HTML that drives websites:



- We can see that this is just text, and the first line, `<!DOCTYPE html>`, indicates to browsers that the page is written in HTML.
 - Then, we see a pattern of lines and indentations, and many tags that start with `<` and end with `>`. First, we have the `<html>` tag, and nested inside is a `<head>` tag, which will include information about the webpage, that might not necessarily appear.
 - Then, we eventually see a `<body>` tag, which will have the content of the webpage.
- We can look at a simple example:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <title>
      hello, title
    </title>
  </head>
  <body>
    hello, body
  </body>
</html>
```

- Inside the `<head>` of the webpage, we have a `<title>` tag that indicates the title of our webpage, “hello, title”. And we also have a line with `</title>`, which is a closing tag that indicates the end of the title.
 - Notice that the indentation and opening and closing tags are symmetric. Like in C, the whitespace is not necessary, but it is stylistically important.
 - The content of this page is just “hello, body”.
- With the text editor in CS50 IDE, we can create and save a file called `index.html` with our example code. The CS50 IDE is web-based, and it can run a web server, which is a program that can listen for and respond to web requests.
 - We can run a server in the terminal, called `http-server`, a free and open-source package. If we run that command, we’ll see the following information:



- `./` is the current directory, and in this case we are in our `~/workspace/` folder.
- Then, we see a URL to our IDE’s web server, and since we want to serve these files separately from the IDE itself, the URL is `https://ide50-jharvard3.cs50.io:8080`, indicating that we’re using port number 8080.
- If we click that link, we’ll see a page that says `Index of /` with the files in our workspace. We can click on `index.html` to see our page. We can also change the code in our editor, save, and refresh to see our changes. Since HTML is interpreted by a browser, we don’t need to compile it.

- Let’s take a look at examples of other tags:

```

```

- Images can be included with the `` tag, and `src` is an attribute on the tag that modifies it. In this case, it will specify the source of the image, and the value can be a file or other URL. (In the CS50 IDE, we should upload a file called `cat.jpg` to our workspace folder for this to work.) Finally, we don’t close image tags (and other “empty tags”), since there’s nothing inside the element.
- We can also add another attribute tag, `alt`, to add alternative text for the image. So our image will look like this: ``
- We can add links with something like `Visit Harvard.` in our body. The `<a>` and `Harvard` pieces are just text, but the `<a>` tag surrounding `Harvard` is an anchor tag, which specifies a link with the `href` attribute. In fact, we can phish, or trick, people, into clicking a link to a site that isn’t really what they expect. A bad actor could copy the HTML of some site, and create a site of their own that appears to be the same. (Though, they won’t have access to the data and data stored on the server.)
- We can wrap text with the `` tag to tell browsers to make it bolder.
- There’s also the `<p>` tag for paragraphs:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <title>paragraphs</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    <p>
      Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Nullam in tincidunt augue. Donec
    </p>
    <p>
      Ut tempus rutrum arcu eget condimentum. Morbi elit ipsum, gravida faucibus sodales quis
    </p>
    <p>
      Mauris eget erat arcu. Maecenas ac ante vel ipsum bibendum varius. Nunc tristique nunc
    </p>
  </body>
</html>
```

- Without the `<p>` tags, all of these lines would be displayed together on the page, since HTML ignores whitespace like new lines, and instead combines them to at most one space.
- We look at a few more tags from HTML like headings (`<h1>` through `<h6>` indicating the level of heading) and tables (`<tr>` for rows, `<td>` for cells), but through practice and documentation, we can learn to use them fully. Once we understand the pattern of tags and attributes, we can write our own HTML.
- We can use tools like the [W3C Markup Validator \(https://validator.w3.org/\)](https://validator.w3.org/) to check that our HTML is valid.

Forms

- On Google, if we search for something, we get redirected to a long URL. It turns out that the URL has our search term in it, and going to a link like `https://www.google.com/search?q=cats` will bring us directly to the results page for a search for ‘cats’.
 - The page is called `search`, and that goes to code on their servers that generates a response for that page dynamically and programmatically.
 - The `?` in the URL adds additional input for the page, and `q=cats` is telling the server that we are passing in “cats” for the user input (search box in this case) with the name “q”, which probably stands for “query”.
- We can write the HTML for a form that takes us to the Google search results for some user input:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <title>search</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    <form action="https://www.google.com/search" method="get">
      <input name="q" type="text">
      <input type="submit" value="Search">
    </form>
  </body>
</html>
```

- With the `form` tag, we can create a form. The `action` attribute tells the browser where the form should go, and the `method` attribute indicates how to send the form inputs.
- The first `input` tag is a text box, which we will name `q` so that it can be sent to Google correctly, and the second `input` tag is a submit button that we'll label "Search".

CSS

- While HTML is used for layout and structure, **CSS**, Cascading Style Sheets, is another language we can use to style, or change the aesthetics, of our webpages.
- Let's take a look at `css0.html` :

```
<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <title>css0</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    <header style="font-size: large; text-align: center;">
      John Harvard
    </header>
    <main style="font-size: medium; text-align: center;">
      Welcome to my home page!
    </main>
    <footer style="font-size: small; text-align: center;">
      Copyright &#169; John Harvard
    </footer>
  </body>
</html>
```

- Here, for each of these tags, we've added a `style` attribute and some set of key-value pairs as the value that will apply to just those elements. These pairs, like `font-size: large;`, are setting CSS properties and can change many aesthetic aspects of elements.
- Notice that we have semantic, or meaningful, tags like `<header>`, `<main>`, and `<footer>` that separates our page into sections.
- Since CSS is inherited by nested elements in HTML, we can factor out the common styles:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <title>css1</title>
  </head>
  <body style="text-align: center;">
    <header style="font-size: large;">
      John Harvard
    </header>
    <main style="font-size: medium;">
      Welcome to my home page!
    </main>
    <footer style="font-size: small;">
      Copyright &#169; John Harvard
    </footer>
  </body>
</html>
```

- Here, the `text-align: center;` style is applied to the `<body>` element, so it will cascade, or be inherited by each inside `<body>`.
- We can factor out CSS into the `<head>`, with CSS classes:

```

<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <style>

      .centered
      {
        text-align: center;
      }

      .large
      {
        font-size: large;
      }

      .medium
      {
        font-size: medium;
      }

      .small
      {
        font-size: small;
      }

    </style>
    <title>css2</title>
  </head>
  <body class="centered">
    <header class="large">
      John Harvard
    </header>
    <main class="medium">
      Welcome to my home page!
    </main>
    <footer class="small">
      Copyright 1999 John Harvard
    </footer>
  </body>
</html>

```

- Now, the HTML in the `<body>` specifies a `class` for each element, but all the CSS for the styling has been moved to `<head>`, so we can compartmentalize it more easily. And in CSS, we use `.something` to apply properties to elements with a class of `something`. Each class, too, can have many CSS properties, not just one.
- We could even apply CSS to all elements of a certain type, using CSS selectors:


```

<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <style>

      body
      {
        text-align: center;
      }

      header
      {
        font-size: large;
      }

      main
      {
        font-size: medium;
      }

      footer
      {
        font-size: small;
      }

    </style>
    <title>css3</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    <header>
      John Harvard
    </header>
    <main>
      Welcome to my home page!
    </main>
    <footer>
      Copyright &#169; John Harvard
    </footer>
  </body>
</html>

```

- Notice that now we can use `body` and `header` to select those elements, without attaching a class to them in the HTML.
- Finally, we can include external stylesheets, or CSS in separate files, that multiple HTML pages can include and share:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <link href="css4.css" rel="stylesheet">
    <title>css4</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    <header>
      John Harvard
    </header>
    <main>
      Welcome to my home page!
    </main>
    <footer>
      Copyright &#169; John Harvard
    </footer>
  </body>
</html>
```

- We need to create a file called `css4.css`, and place our CSS code inside that, for this to work. But now we can use the `<link>` tag to include it.
- There are tradeoffs, too, to having separated CSS files, since a simple webpage may not need the additional complexity overhead of a linked stylesheet. But having separation of concerns allows for easier collaboration and clearer organization of code.
- Phew, we covered lots of concepts here! But, now that we're familiar with some of these patterns, we can learn to use additional features by reading examples and documentation online.

JavaScript

- **JavaScript**, a programming language, can be used on our webpages to make them more dynamic. The user's browser runs the JavaScript code we write, to make changes to the page.
- JavaScript is similar to C, and is interpreted by a browser from top to bottom.
- Many of the programming elements are the same:

```
let counter = 0;
```

- We use the `let` keyword in JavaScript to initialize a variable, and we don't need to specify what the type of the variable will be.
- Adding 1 to a variable has the exact same syntax as it does in C.

```
counter = counter + 1;
counter += 1;
counter++;
```

- Conditions and loops, too, are the same.

```
if (x < y)
{

}
else if {

}
else
{

}

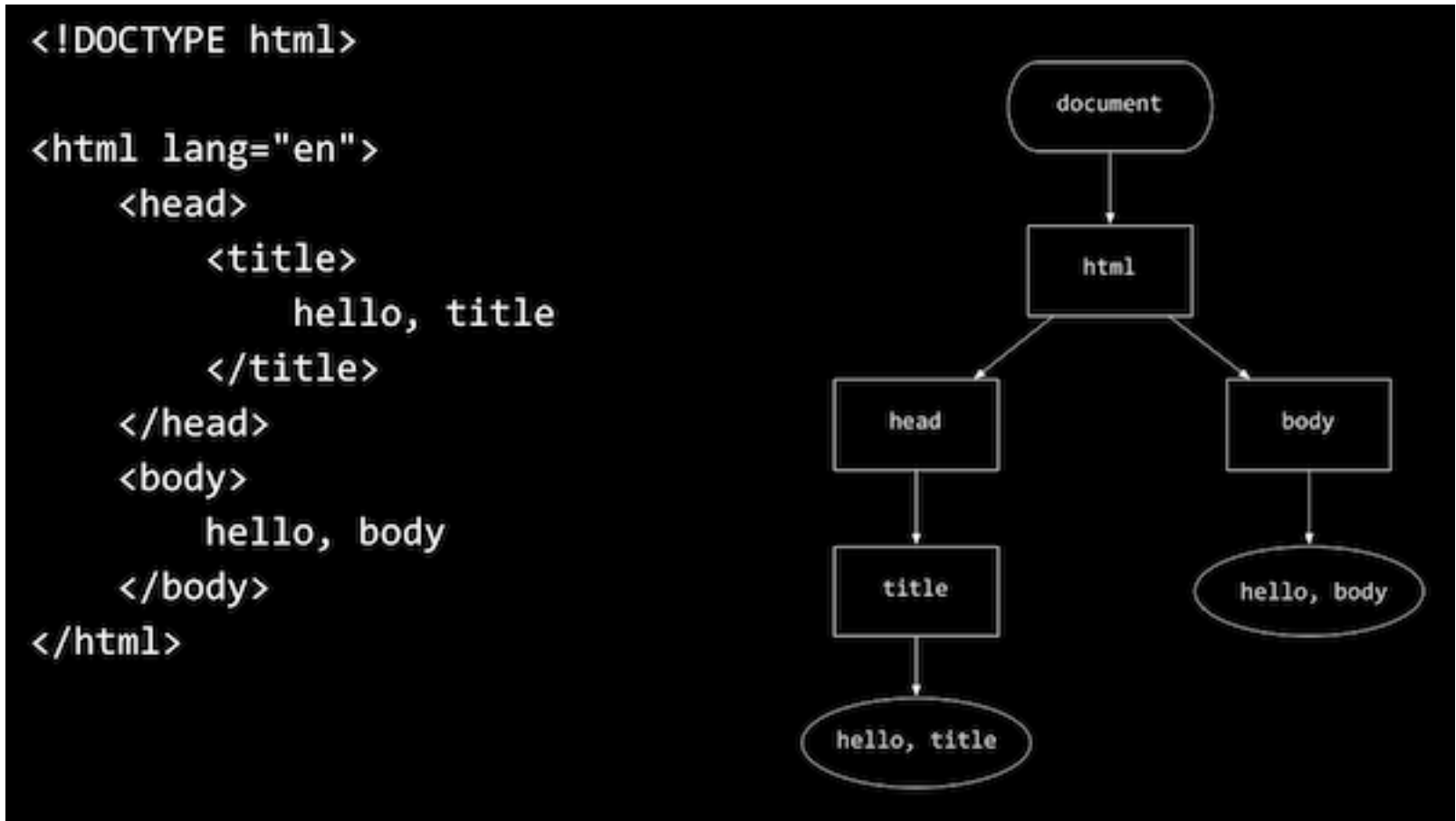
while (true)
{

}

for (let i = 0; i < 50; i++)
{

}
```

- Our example webpage can be represented by a tree, in what's called the DOM, Document Object Model:



- Notice that each node is an element on the page, and nested nodes show as children nodes. A browser, when it loads a webpage, automatically builds a tree in memory with elements from the HTML.
- With JavaScript, we can add or change any of these nodes in the DOM.
- We can make an interactive page like the following:

```

<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <script>

      function greet()
      {
        alert('hello, ' + document.querySelector('#name').value);
      }

    </script>
    <title>hello1</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    <form onsubmit="greet(); return false;">
      <input autocomplete="off" autofocus id="name" placeholder="Name" type="text">
      <input type="submit">
    </form>
  </body>
</html>

```

- We have a form element in the `<body>` with a text input and a submit button. But when the form is submitted, we want the browser to call a `greet()` function, and with `return false;`, we tell the browser to do nothing else with the form. We put that into the `onsubmit` attribute of the form. Notice that we also have `id="name"` for the text input element. The `autocomplete="off"` attribute turns off the autocomplete in the browser, and `autofocus` selects the input box when the page is loaded so the user can start typing into it right away.
- The `greet()` function is defined in the `<head>` of our page, inside a `<script>` tag that allows us to write our own JavaScript. In JavaScript, we can define a function with the `function` keyword, and if it takes no inputs, we can simply use `()`. And this function in turn calls the `alert()` function, which is built into browsers, to create an alert box.
- The content of the alert box will be `hello,` plus the value of the element in the webpage (called `document`) with the `name`. The `querySelector` function is attached to the object that represents the webpage, so we call it with `document.querySelector()`. Then, the element that gets selected will also have an attribute called `value` that we can access with `.value`.
- We look at another example, that can change the style of a webpage:

```

<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <title>background</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    <button id="red">R</button>
    <button id="green">G</button>
    <button id="blue">B</button>
    <script>

      let body = document.querySelector('body');
      document.querySelector('#red').onclick = function() {
        body.style.backgroundColor = 'red';
      };
      document.querySelector('#green').onclick = function() {
        body.style.backgroundColor = 'green';
      };
      document.querySelector('#blue').onclick = function() {
        body.style.backgroundColor = 'blue';
      };

    </script>
  </body>
</html>

```

- It turns out that we can attach JavaScript functions to events in the browser, like the following:
 - blur
 - change
 - click
 - drag
 - focus
 - keypress
 - load
 - mousedown
 - mouseover
 - mouseup
 - submit
 - touchmove
 - unload
 - ...
- We can add code called event listeners to elements like `document.querySelector('#red')`. The `onclick` value of each element can be a function that is automatically called by the browser, when the element is clicked. And the function attached doesn't have a name, but is defined with `function() {}`.
- With `body.style.backgroundColor`, we can access the `style` of the `body`, and set its `backgroundColor` value.
- We can change the font size, too:


```
<!DOCTYPE html>
```

```
<html lang="en">
```

```
  <head>
```

```
    <title>size</title>
```

```
  </head>
```

```
  <body>
```

```
    <p>
```

```
      Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Nullam in tincidunt augue. D
```

```
    </p>
```

```
    <select>
```

```
      <option value="xx-large">xx-large</option>
```

```
      <option value="x-large">x-large</option>
```

```
      <option value="large">large</option>
```

```
      <option selected value="initial">initial</option>
```

```
      <option value="small">small</option>
```

```
      <option value="x-small">x-small</option>
```

```
      <option value="xx-small">xx-small</option>
```

```
    </select>
```

```
    <script>
```

```
      document.querySelector('select').onchange = function() {  
        document.querySelector('body').style.fontSize = this.value;  
      };
```

```
    </script>
```

```
  </body>
```

```
</html>
```

- We have a set of `option` elements in a `select` (a dropdown menu in HTML that we can look up the documentation for [here](#)) and now, whenever the `select` element is changed, we set the `fontSize` of the `style` of the `body` element. We set the value to `this.value`, and `this` refers to the `select` element when the function is called, since the function is called from that element.
- We can write a page with an element that blinks, or appears and disappears repeatedly:

```

<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <script>

      // Toggles visibility of greeting
      function blink()
      {
        let body = document.querySelector('body');
        if (body.style.visibility == 'hidden')
        {
          body.style.visibility = 'visible';
        }
        else
        {
          body.style.visibility = 'hidden';
        }
      }

      // Blink every 500ms
      window.setInterval(blink, 500);

    </script>
    <title>blink</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    hello, world
  </body>
</html>

```

- We use the `visibility` attribute to make the `body` visible or hidden, and `window.setInterval` to call this function every 500 milliseconds.
- Browsers also have a geolocation function, which we can call to get the user's current location:

```

<!DOCTYPE html>

<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <title>geolocation</title>
  </head>
  <body>
    <script>

      navigator.geolocation.getCurrentPosition(function(position) {
        document.write(position.coords.latitude + ", " + position.coords.longitude);
      });

    </script>
  </body>
</html>

```

- `navigator` refers to the user's browser, and the `geolocation.getCurrentPosition` function will return a `position` object. When we get that `position` object, we want to call a function that will then write the `latitude` and `longitude` values to the document.