**JUST: Bits and Pieces**

* Online W3C HTML Validator: <http://validator.w3.org/>
* This *document type declaration*—doctype for short—also points the Web browser to files on the Internet that contain definitions for that type of file. The doctype plays a key role in how a Web browser displays CSS—in fact a missing or incorrect doctype’s enough to make Internet Explorer completely mishandle the presentation of a CSS-heavy Web page. A DTD is an XML document that explains what tags, attributes, and values are valid for a particular type of HTML. And for each version of HTML, there’s a corresponding DTD.
* When you mistype the doctype declaration, you can throw most browsers into an altered state called *quirks mode*. For more technical information on quirks mode, visit <http://www.quirksmode.org/index.html?/css/quirksmode.html> and<http://hsivonen.iki.fi/doctype/>.
* Use HTML to organize your content, and CSS to make that content look great.
* Try to use only one <h1> tag per page and use that to identify the main topic in that page, something like chapter title. The page will get indexed properly for search engine benefit. Use headings to indicate other important topic. If two topics are of same importance, use <h2> on both. If one is main topic and the other is subtopic, use <h2> followed by <h3> for the subtopic.

**HTML: DOCTYPE DECLARATIONS**

The <!DOCTYPE> declaration must be the very first thing in your HTML document, before the <html> tag. The <!DOCTYPE> declaration is not an HTML tag; it is an instruction to the web browser about what version of HTML the page is written in.

In HTML 4.01, the <!DOCTYPE> declaration refers to a DTD, because HTML 4.01 was based on Standard Generalized Markup Language (SGML). The DTD specifies the rules for the markup language, so that the browsers render the content correctly.

HTML5 is not based on SGML, and therefore does not require a reference to a DTD. See: <http://www.w3.org/TR/REC-html40/intro/sgmltut.html>

HTML 5

<!DOCTYPE html>

HTML 4.01 Strict

This DTD contains all HTML elements and attributes, but does NOT INCLUDE presentational or deprecated elements (like font). Framesets are not allowed.

<!DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.01//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/html4/strict.dtd">

HTML 4.01 Transitional

This DTD contains all HTML elements and attributes, INCLUDING presentational and deprecated elements (like font). Framesets are not allowed.

<!DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.01 Transitional//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/html4/loose.dtd">

HTML 4.01 Frameset

This DTD is equal to HTML 4.01 Transitional, but allows the use of frameset content.

<!DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.01 Frameset//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/html4/frameset.dtd">

XHTML 1.0 Strict

This DTD contains all HTML elements and attributes, but does NOT INCLUDE presentational or deprecated elements (like font). Framesets are not allowed. The markup must also be written as well-formed XML.

<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Strict//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-strict.dtd">

XHTML 1.0 Transitional

This DTD contains all HTML elements and attributes, INCLUDING presentational and deprecated elements (like font). Framesets are not allowed. The markup must also be written as well-formed XML.

<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Transitional//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-transitional.dtd">

XHTML 1.0 Frameset

This DTD is equal to XHTML 1.0 Transitional, but allows the use of frameset content.

<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.0 Frameset//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml1/DTD/xhtml1-frameset.dtd">

XHTML 1.1

This DTD is equal to XHTML 1.0 Strict, but allows you to add modules (for example to provide ruby support for East-Asian languages).

<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD XHTML 1.1//EN" "http://www.w3.org/TR/xhtml11/DTD/xhtml11.dtd">

**XHTML: Introduction**

To make an XHTML files comply with XML, however, there are a few strict rules to keep in mind:

* **Begin the page with a document type declaration**. That’s the first few lines in the file, starting with <!DOCTYPE. The document type declaration is the most important part of an XHTML page. The doctype denotes that the page is a type of XML document, in particular, an XHTML document
* **Tags and tag attributes must be lowercase**. Unlike with HTML, typing the tag <BODY> is a no-no; when you’re writing XHTML, capitalized tags aren’t invited to the party.
* **Quotation marks are required for tag attributes**. For example, links written like this: <a href=<http://www.google.com>> is valid in HTML, but won’t work in XHTML. You have to enclose the value of the Href property in quotes: <a href=”<http://www.google.com>“>.
* **All tags (even empty tags) must be closed**. To create a paragraph in XHTML, for example, you must begin with <p> and end with </p>. Trouble is, some tags don’t come in pairs. These tags, called empty tags have no closing tag. The line break tag’s one example. To close an empty tag, include a forward slash at the end of the tag, like this: <br />.

**SIMPLE HTML IS SEARCH ENGINE FRIENDLY**

Once you take the mental leap of picturing HTML as the way to structure a document’s content, and CSS as the tool for making that content look good, you’ll discover additional benefits to writing lean, mean HTML. For one thing, you may boost your search engine ranking as determined by sites like Google, Yahoo, and MSN. That’s because when search engines crawl the Web, indexing the content on Web sites, they must go through *the entire* HTML on a page to discover the actual content. The old HTML-way of using special tags (like <font>) and lots of tables to design a page gets in the way of a search engine’s job. In fact, some search engines stop reading a page’s HTML after a certain number of characters. When you use a lot of HTML just for design, the search engine may miss important content on the page, or even fail to rank it at all.

By contrast, simple, structured HTML is easy for a search engine to read and index. Using an <h1> tag to indicate the most important topic of the page (as opposed to just making the text big and bold) is smart strategy: Search engines give greater weight to the contents inside that tag while indexing the page.

To see Google’s suggestions for building search-friendly Web sites, visit <http://www.google.com/webmasters/guidelines.html>.

You can also hear a podcast of an excellent speech on SEO (search engine optimization) from the 2005 Web Visions conference at<http://www.webvisionsevent.com/podcasts/WV05_Alan_Knecht.mp3> and read an article by that speaker covering the same topic at:[http://www.digital-web.com/articles/seo\_and\_your\_web\_site/](http://www.digital-web.com/articles/seo_and_your_web_site/" \t "_top).

**HTML TAGS TO AVOID: Quick Reference**

* <font> - For controlling the display of text. **STOP** using this tag. Use CSS.
* <b> - For making text bold. **STOP** using this tag. Use CSS. Can use <strong> tag if required. Browser will show the text in bold.
* <i> - For making text italic. **STOP** using this tag. Use CSS. Can use <em> to emphasize a text. Browser will italicize the content.
* <table> - Use this tag only to display the content in tabular format like spreadsheet, schedule or chart. **STOP** using this tag for page layout. Use CSS.
* Attributes for <body> tag: **STOP** using presentation related <body> tag attributes like
* background
* bgcolor
* text
* link
* alink
* vlink

to set colors and images for page, text and links. Use CSS.

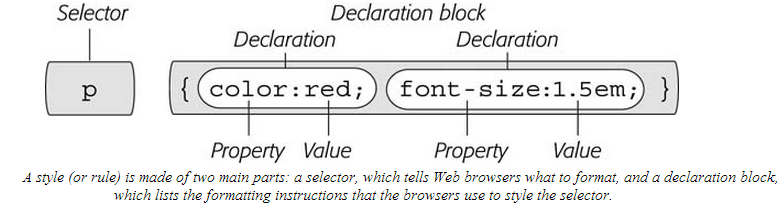
* Attributes to set page margin: **STOP** using browser specific browser attributes to set page margins. Use CSS
* leftmargin
* topmargin
* marginwidth
* marginheight

**HTML TAGS: Quick Reference**

* <div> - Stands for division. It has no inherent visual properties. Used for dividing a page into logical sections like header-section, menu-bar-section, footer-section, etc.
* <span> - Used for inline elements i.e. words or phrases that appear within a large paragraph. Other common inline HTML tags are <a> and <strong>.
* <cite> - Use this when you would want a text to be cited (to list the source from which one took information from i.e. like bibliography). It will make the text italic and also for search engine benefit.
* <br/> - **Don’t abuse this tag**. If your purpose to use this tag is to insert a line break without creating a new paragraph, then the different browsers can show the result differently. They can automatically insert a bit of space between paragraphs, including between headers and <p> tag. Use CSS margin controls to set the amount of space between paragraphs, headers and other block level elements.
* <p> - Use this tag for paragraphs of text.
* <ul> - Use unordered list when we have several related items such as navigation links, headlines.
* <ol> - Use ordered list (also called numbered list) to indicate steps in a process or to define the order of a set of items.
* <dl> - In HTML 4.01 it’s called definition list. In HTML 5 it’s called description list. It’s used in conjunction with <dt> and <dd> tags.
* <dt> - This tag defines terms/names. It’s called definition term. Used within <dl> tag.
* <dd> - This tag describes each term/name. It’s called definition description. Used within <dl> tag along with <dt>.
* <blockquote> - To include a quotation like a snippet of text from another Web site, a movie review. This is used for long passages. Browsers usually indent <blockquote> elements i.e. we might not see quotes around the text like we can see when using <q> tag. In HTML 4.01, this tag denotes a long quotation. In HTML 5, this tag denotes a section that is quoted from another source.
* <q> - Similar to <blockquote> tag i.e. to include a quotation like snippet of text. But this is used for one liner. Browsers usually insert quotation marks around the quoted text.
* <address> - Use this tag identify and supply contact information for the author of a page. Good for copyright notice section.

**CSS: Bits and Pieces**

* Online W3C CSS Validator: <http://jigsaw.w3.org/css-validator/>
* A CSS style/rule is made up of two elements: *selector* and *declaration block*. A selector is a web page element that the browser will format. The declaration block will contain the actual formatting instructions.
* Elements that make up a CSS style are
* Selector: it tells a Web browser, which element or elements on a page to style
* Declaration Block: the code following the selector which includes all the formatting options that should be applied to element(s) identified via the selector. The block begins with an opening brace ({) and ends with a closing brace (}).
* Declaration: Between the opening and closing braces of the declaration block, we add one or more declaration or formatting instructions. Every declaration has two parts: a property and a value, and ends with a semicolon (;).
* Property: They are the formatting options to indicate certain style effect like color, background-color, etc. It’s a work or few hyphenated words (we cannot have space between words for a single property. They have to be a single word).
* Value: the value assigned for the property like red for the property color.



* Internal Style Sheets: Present within the web page file, always between opening and closing HTML’s <style> tag within the <head> element. Web designer’s prefer to place the <style> tag just before closing the <head> element i.e. <style> should be the last child node within <head> tag.
* External Style Sheets: Attach the style sheet to a HTML page using <link rel=”stylesheet” type=”text/css” href=”path/to/stylesheet.css” />. Can also use ‘@import’ directive to connect the style sheet to the HTML page.
* @import directive has one advantage over <link> tag: attach an external style sheet to another external style sheet. Also @import directive is part of CSS language and not HTML.
* To import multiple style sheets using <link>, add multiple <link> tags each pointing to a unique stylesheet.
* To import style sheet using @import directive, have the following under <script> tag. Have a semi-colon in the end. Also the quotes around URL are optional, personally I prefer to have, as it becomes easier to copy to <link> attribute if we want to change it. To include multiple style sheets, have multiple @import statements.

<style type=”text/css”>

@import url(“path/to/stylesheet.css”);

@import url(“path/to/another-stylesheet.css”);

</style>

* We can add regular CSS styles after the @import statement within the same <style> tag. It’s advisable to have @import statements at the start of <style> tag if they are present. Browsers can ignore @import directive after a regular CSS styles in the <style> tag.
* Not all CSS properties are inherited. Properties like color, font are inherited. Properties like border are not inherited. For the complete list, visit: <https://developer.mozilla.org/en-US/docs/Web/CSS/Reference> and <https://developer.mozilla.org/en-US/docs/Web/CSS/CSS3>
* CSS Inheritance: As a general rule, properties that affect the placement of elements on the page, or the margins, background-colors and border of an element are not inherited.

**CSS: SELECTORS**

* Type of selectors: tag selectors, class selectors, id selectors
* Tag Selectors
* Page-Wide styling.
* Apply the declaration block to every occurrence of an HTML tag on the page.
* Selectors will bear the same name as the tag they style like p, h1, table, span, etc.
* Disadvantage: If we want some paragraphs to look red and some green, this will not help.
* Class Selectors
* Selective group styling like applying a style to some group of elements like apply the same styling for paragraph and heading or a certain group of paragraph.
* Apply the declaration block to all the HTML tags that have an attribute named ‘class’. Example: <p class=”some-class”>This is some text</p>
* Selectors will start with a period(.) followed by the class name (as defined in the HTML tag). For the above example, the class selector will be .some-class
* Allowed characters in class name are: letters, numbers, hyphens and underscores. Class name should always start with a letter.
* Class names are case-sensitive. So .some-class and .Some-class are two different selectors.
* ID Selectors
* For specific page elements.
* Apply the declaration block to the HTML tag that has the attribute named “id”.

Example: <p id=”some-id”>This is some text</p>

* Selectors will start with a hash (#) followed by the id (as defined in the HTML tag). For the above example, id selector will be #some-id
* Allowed characters in id are: letters, numbers, hyphens and underscores. Id should always start with a letter.
* Id’s are case-sensitive. So #some-class and #Some-class are two different selectors.
* Salient points to remember when using Class or Id selector
* To use a style rule several times on a page, choose class selector. As per HTML specification, an id should be unique across the web page (though web browsers ignore multiple tags having the same id’s)
* Id selectors have priority over Class selectors. So, if a web browser encounters two styles that apply to the same tag but specify different background color, *the Id selector will get preference over Class selector*.
* Descendent Selectors (were also known as contextual selectors) allows formatting of a tag based on the relationship to other tag. They take advantage of HTML family tree. Example: h1 a{color: red;} means change the color of all <a> tag inside <h1> to red. Do nothing to <a> tag’s, which are NOT child <h1> tags.

Note that, the selectors are separated by space. **Descendant selector applies to all the descendants of a tag (it can be child, grandchild, and deeper)**

* Group selector is useful when the same style to multiple elements. Instead of repeating the same declaration block for different selectors, we can group the selectors. All the selectors who need the styling are separated by comma (,) followed by declaration block. Example: h1,h2,p,span{color: red;} means change the color of all h1, h2, p and span elements to red.
* Universal Selector (\*) is short hand for selecting every single tag in the page. Can be used in combination of descendent selector like #someImpDiv \*{font-weight: bold;} means apply the style to all the tags that are descendant of a tag with id someImpDiv.

**CSS: Pseudo-Classes and Pseudo-Elements**

* Identify elements which are not tags actually, but still easy to identify. For instance, we need first line of a paragraph or a link which has been visited, these can be styled using CSS pseudo-classes and pseudo-elements.
* Selectors for links
* a:link: Select all the links which has not yet been clicked i.e. unclicked web link. Select it when the mouse is not hovering or clicking it.
* a:visited: Select all the links which have been clicked as per Web browser’s history. Select it when the mouse if not hovering over it.
* a:hover: Can allow us to change the look of the link when the mouse hovers over the link. Can give a visual feedback to the user, may be like on a navigation bar. Common example is to change the mouse from pointer to a finger effect, to indicate this can be clicked.
* a:active: Select the link when it’s clicked and before the mouse is released (for a few nanoseconds). It can let us determine, how the link should look as the user clicks on it.
* Selectors for some typography style
* :first-letter: This pseudo-element helps us select the initial letter of a paragraph. Can make it look different from rest of the paragraph, give effect that is seen in printed pages.
* :first-line: This pseudo-element helps us select the first line of a paragraph. Can be used to color the first line in a different color.
* Some other pseudo-classes and pseudo-elements
* :hover: Most common of this pseudo-element is in combination with <a> like a:hover. Can be used with other elements like p:hover, to give a different styling when the mouse is moved over it.
* :before: A powerful selector that gives us the ability to add content/style preceding a given element. For example, say you wanted to put “HOT TIP!” before certain paragraphs to make them stand out, like the boxes in this book that say “UP TO SPEED” and “POWER USERS’ CLINIC.” Instead of typing that text in your page’s HTML, you can let the *:before* selector do it for you. This approach not only saves on code, but if you decide to change the message from “HOT TIP!” to, say, “Things to know,” then you can change every page on your site with one quick change to your style sheet.

*Example:* <p class=”tip”>I am very useful</p>

p .tip:before{content:”HOT TIP! ”;}

In the browser it will show as = HOT TIP! I am very useful

* :after: A powerful selector that gives us the ability to add content/style after a given element.
* :first-child: This pseudo-element lets us select and style just the first children of the element. Select the first child from the descendants of an element like ul:first-child{color: blue;}
* :focus: This selector, selects the element when a user click on a text box or tabbing to that text box. For example, when a user click on a text box to enter user name, :focus can be used to change the background color or provide a highlighted background to give a visual feedback. For example input:focus{border-color: blue;}

**CSS: Advance Selectors**

* To translate a selector into straightforward language: <http://gallery.theopalgroup.com/selectoracle/>
* **Child Selectors**
* Similar to descendant selector, but this selector can help define the relationship between the two elements which we would like to style.
* Child selector uses the greater than symbol (>).
* Unlike a descendent selector, which applies to *all* descendants of a tag (children, grandchildren, and so on), the child selector lets you specify which child of which parent you mean. For example body > h1 will select all the <h1> tags which is a direct child of <body> tag and apply the style. Ignore all the other <h1> tags which might be grandchild of the <body> tag.

Example:

<!DOCTYPE html >

<head>

<title>HTML TAGS - Quick Reference</title>

<meta http-equiv="Content-Type" content="text/html; charset=iso-8859-1" />

<style type="text/css">

body > h1{color: red;}

body h1{background-color: yellow;}

</style>

</head>

<body>

<h1>HTML TAGS - QUICK Reference</h1>

<div>

<h1>I am some H1 heading</h1>

<h2>I am some H2 heading</h2>

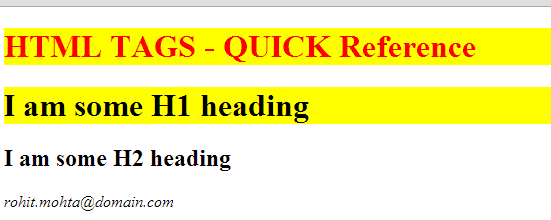
</div>

<address>rohit.mohta@domain.com</address>

</body>

</html>

Gives the output as



* **Adjacent Siblings**
* If we need to select an element not based on parent-child relationship, but on surrounding sibling relationship.
* Surrounding siblings are elements that share the same parent tag.
* Adjacent selector uses plus (+) sign.
* If we would like to apply some styling to <p> following every <h2> tag, then we would use the selector as

h2 + p {color: blue;}. Here all the <p> elements sharing the same parent as <h2>, will have text color as blue.

* **Attribute Selectors**
* Format a tag based on any attribute it has.
* For example, say you want to place borders around the images on your page—but only around the important photos. You don’t want to include your logo, buttons, and other little doodads that also have an <img> tag. Fortunately, you realize that you’ve given all the photos descriptions using the *title* attribute, which means you can use an *attribute selector* to identify just the important images.
* Attribute selector uses opening and closing square brackets i.e. []. So if we would like to select all the <img> tags which have title attribute in it, then we write img[title]. We can even use a class selector to narrow down the eligible HTML tags and then look for a given attribute like .photoClass[title].

**CSS: Cascading Rules**

* TODO

**CSS: Formatting Text**

* font-family
* To apply a font : {font-family: Arial;}
* We can provide multiple font-family, browser will search for them in the order and apply if found. Like

{font-family: Arial, Helvetica, sans-serif;}

* When a font name is more than a single word, then it should be enclosed in double quotes like “Times New Roman”

**UP TO SPEED: KNOW YOUR FONT TYPES**

You can find literally tens of thousands of different fonts to express your every thought: from bookish, staid, and classical typefaces to rounded, cartoonish squiggles. But almost all fonts fall into one of two categories: *serif* and *sans-serif*. Serif fonts are best for long passages of text, as it’s widely believed that the serifs—those tiny “hands” and “feet” at the end of a letter’s main strokes—gently lead the eye from letter to letter, making text easier to read. Examples of serif fonts are Times, Times New Roman, Georgia, and the font in the main body paragraphs of this book.

Sans-serif fonts, on the other hand, are often used for headlines, thanks to their clean and simple appearance. Examples of sans-serif fonts include Arial, Helvetica, Verdana, and Formata, which you’re reading now. Some people believe that you should use *only* sans-serif fonts on Web pages because they think the delicate decorative strokes of serif fonts don’t display well on the coarse resolution of a computer screen. In the end, your aesthetic judgment is your best guide. Pick the types of fonts you think look best.

* color
* To color the text.
* Helpful website: <http://www.colorschemer.com/schemes/>
* The value for the property is mostly provided in hexadecimal notation like # 5f9794. This can be split in three groups 5F, 97 and 94 where each group specifies the amount of red, green and blue respectively.
* We can also shorten the hexadecimal notation to just three characters, if each set contains the same number. For example #6600FF can be written as #60F or #FFFFFF as #FFF.
* Can provide color using rgb notation where each number represent a percentage (0 to 100) or number (0 to 255) also. For example, {color: rgb(10%,20%,70%);} and {color: rgb(10,120, 240);}
* Final way is to use color keywords. There are about 17 colors: aqua, black, blue, fuchsia, gray, green, lime, maroon, navy, olive, orange, purple, red, silver, teal, white, and yellow.
* font-size
* To change the size of font.
* Most common sizing units to use: px, em, % or keywords (like large, small)
* Pixels (px): Specific control on the text size. {font-size: 10px;}.
* Keywords: provides seven keywords which let you assign a size that’s relative to the base text size: *xx-small, x-small, small, medium, large, x-large*, and *xx-large.* {font-size: x-small;}
* Percentage(%): Relative to the base text which is denoted as 100% i.e. the font-size to be the browser’s base-text size. {font-size: 125%;} or {font-size: 90%;} to reduce the font-size by 10% of base-text.
* Ems(em)” Relative to base text which is denoted as 1em i.e. the font-size to be the browser’s base-text size. {font-size: 1.25em;} or {font-size: 0.9em;} to reduce the font-size by 0.1em of base-text.
* font-style
* Possible values are italic and normal. If we want a text to be italicized, then have a css rule like {font-style: italic;}. And normal is to make sure, text is not italicized.
* font-weight
* To make the text bold or not. Possible values are bold and normal. Use them like {font-weight: bold;}
* text-transform
* To make the text all uppercase, all lowercase or capitalize the first letter of each word
* Possible values: uppercase, lowercase, capitalize and none. Use them like h1,h2{text-transform: capitalize;}
* The property value can be inherited.
* font-variant
* A bit more typographic sophistication. Possible value: small-caps.
* In small cap style, lowercase letters appear as slightly downsized capital letters.
* text-decoration
* Decorate the text.
* Possible values: underline, overline, line-through, blink, none.
* Can have multiple effects by combining multiple keywords like {text-decoration: underline overline;}
* **Do not use this, just because it’s there**. An underlined text generally means a clickable link. Can use border to give effect of combination of “underline overline”
* letter-spacing
* Adjust the space between letters.
* Reducing the space between letters using the CSS letter-spacing property can tighten up headlines making them seem even bolder and heavier while fitting more letters on a single line. Conversely, increasing the space can give headlines a calmer, more majestic quality.
* To reduce space use a negative value and to increase space use a positive value. For example {letter-spacing: -1px;} or {letter-spacing: 1.2em;}
* Can use: px, ems, percentage with it.
* word-spacing
* Adjust the space between words.
* Reduce the space between words using this property. A negative value will reduce the space between words and a positive will increase the word spacing.
* For example {word-spacing: 120%;}
* Can use: px, ems, percentage with it.
* line-height
* Adjust the height between the lines.
* Can use em, px and percentage. Normal line height is 120%.
* To determine the amount of space that appears between lines of text, a Web browser subtracts the font size from the line height. The result—called *leading*—is the amount of space between lines in a paragraph. Say the font size is 12 pixels, and the line height (set to 150 percent) works out to 18 pixels. 18 minus 12 equal 6 pixels, so the browser adds 6 pixels of space between each line.
* Other way is just by having number {line-height:1.5;}.
* text-align
* Paragraph alignment.
* Possible values: left, right, justify, center
* text-indent
* To indent the first line of a paragraph as we see in books.
* A negative value will create ‘hanging indent’. The first line starts further to the left than the other lines in the paragraph. (Think of it as “hanging” off the left edge.)
* Can use px and em. Px are absolute values and em specifies the number of letters to indent based on the current font size.
* Can also use a percentage value, but with the text-indent property, percentages take on a different meaning than you’ve seen before. In this case, percentages aren’t related to the font size; they’re related to the width of the element containing the paragraph. For example, if the text-indent is set to 50 percent, and a paragraph spans the entire width of the Web browser window, then the first-line of the paragraph starts half the way across the screen.
* margin-top and margin-bottom
* Alvdcl
* Alcn
* Alvn
* A;klc
* Alkcvn
* alaknc

**WORKAROUND WORKSHOP: DON’T GET CAUGHT IN THE CACHE**

A browser’s cache is a great speed-boost for Web surfers. Whenever the cache downloads and stores a frequently used file—like an external CSS file or an image—it saves precious moments traveling the relatively sluggish highways of the Internet. Instead of re-downloading the next time it needs the same file, the browser can go straight to the new stuff—like a yet-to-be-viewed page or graphic.

But what’s good for your visitors isn’t always good for you. Because the Web browser caches and recalls downloaded external CSS files, you can often get tripped up as you work on a site design. Say you’re working on a page that uses an external style sheet, and you preview the page in a browser. Something doesn’t look quite right, so you return to your Web editor and change the external CSS file. When you return to the Web browser and reload the page, the change you just made doesn’t appear! You’ve just been caught by the cache. When you reload a Web page, browsers don’t always reload the external style sheet, so you may not be seeing the latest and greatest version of your styles.

You have two ways around this snafu: turn off the cache or force the browser to reload everything.

In most browsers you can force reload a page (which also reloads all linked files) by pressing the Ctrl (⌘) key and pressing the browser’s Reload button; Ctrl+F5 also works on Windows for Internet Explorer; and Ctrl+Shift+R (⌘-Shift-R) is Firefox’s keyboard shortcut.

You can also completely turn off the cache. In Internet Explorer, choose Tools → Internet Options → General tab; in the Temporary Internet Files section, click Settings. Make sure the “Check for newer versions of stored pages” option’s set to “Every visit to the page.” Click OK twice to close the Internet Options window. In Firefox, choose Tools → Options (on Windows), or Firefox → Preferences (Mac) to open Firefox’s Preferences window; click the Privacy button, then the Cache tab, and then set the cache disk space to 0.

For Safari on the Mac, download the free Safari Enhancer at <http://www.versiontracker.com/dyn/moreinfo/macosx/17776>.

Turning off the cache can drastically slow your regular Web surfing activity, so make sure you turn it back on once you’re done editing your CSS files.

**GEM IN THE ROUGH: DIVS AND SPANS**

We have <div> and <span>, two generic HTML tags that you can bend to your CSS wishes. When there’s no HTML tag that exactly delineates where you want to put a class or ID style you’ve created, use a <div> or <span> to fill in the gaps.

The div tag identifies a logical division of the page like a banner, navigation bar, sidebar, or footer. You can also use it to surround any element that takes up a chunk of the page, including headings, bulleted lists, or paragraphs. (Programmer types call these block-level elements because they form a complete “block” of content, with line breaks before and after them.) The <div> tag works just like a paragraph tag: type the opening <div>, add some text, a photo, or some other content inside it, and then end it with the closing </div>.

The div tag has the unique ability to contain several block-level elements, making it a great way to group tags that are logically related such as the logo and navigation bar in a page’s banner, or a series of news stories that compose a sidebar. Once grouped in this way, you can apply specific formatting to just the tags inside the particular div, or move the entire div-tagged chunk of content into a particular area, such as the right side of the browser window (CSS can help you control the visual layout of your pages in this manner as described in Part 3 of this book).

For example, say you added a photo to a Web page; the photo also has a caption that accompanies it. You could wrap a <div> tag (with a class applied to it) around the photo and the caption to group both elements together:

<div class="photo">

<img src="holidays.jpg"

alt="Penguins getting frisky"/>

<p>Mom, dad and me on our yearly trip

to Antarctica.</p>

</div>

Depending on what you put in the declaration block, the .photo class can add a decorative border, background color, and so on, to both photo and caption. Part 3 of this book shows you even more powerful ways to use <div> tags—including nested divs.

A <span> tag, on the other hand, lets you apply a class or ID style to just part of a tag. You can place <span> tags around individual words and phrases (often called inline elements) within paragraphs to format them independently. Here, a class called .companyName styles the inline elements “CosmoFarmer.com,” “Disney,” and “ESPN”:

<p>Welcome to <span class="companyName">

CosmoFarmer.com</span>, the parent

company of such well-known corporations

as <span class="companyName">Disney

</span> and <span class="companyName">

ESPN</span>…well, not really.</p>

**AngularJS – Bits and Pieces**

ng-app

ng-controller

ng-hide

ng-model

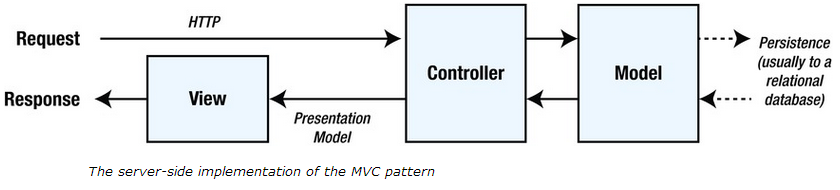
angular.module( String, Array)

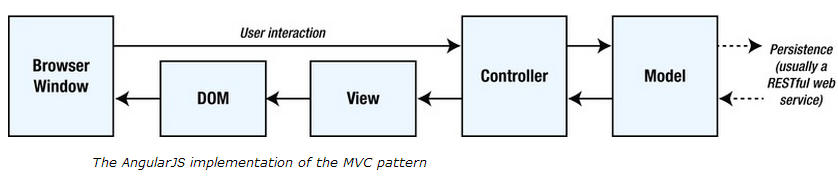
angular.controller (String, function)

**AngularJS - Notes**

🡺**MVC: Model-View-Controller**

The goal of the MVC framework is to divide an application into three functional areas i.e. model, view and controller; each area to contain both logic and data.





🡪Models

(a) Two types of models: view models and domain models.

(b) View Models: Represents data passed from Controller to View.

© View Models data are not persisted. It’s created by synthesizing some aspects of domain model data or in response to a user interaction. In the HTML, we could have ng-model attribute to filter out the entries. See filter example.

(d) Domain Models: Represents data in business domain. It should encapsulate operations, transformations and rules for creating, storing and manipulating that data.

The model in an application built using the MVC pattern should

* Contain the domain data
* Contain the logic for creating, managing, and modifying the domain data (even if that means executing remote logic via web services)
* Provide a clean API that exposes the model data and operations on it

The model should not

* Expose details of how the model data is obtained or managed (in other words, details of the data storage mechanism or the remote web service should not be exposed to controllers and views)
* Contain logic that transforms the model based on user interaction (because this is the controller’s job)
* Contain logic for displaying data to the user (this is the view’s job)

🡪Controllers

(a) Connective tissue in an AngularJS app. Connects Models and Views.

(b) They add business domain logic (behavior) to scopes, which are subset of models

A controller built using the MVC should

* Contain the logic required to initialize the scope
* Contain the logic/behaviors required by the view to present data from the scope
* Contain the logic/behaviors required to update the scope based on user interaction

The controller should not

* Contain logic that manipulates the DOM (that is the job of the view)
* Contain logic that manages the persistence of data (that is the job of the model)
* Manipulate data outside of the scope

🡪Views

* 1. Plain HTML. They are enhanced.
  2. Data binding and directives of AngularJS are used to make it dynamic.

Views should

* Contain the logic and markup required to present data to the user

Views should not

* Contain complex logic (this is better placed in a controller)
* Contain logic that creates, stores, or manipulates the domain model

Views can contain logic, but it should be simple and used sparingly. Putting anything but the simplest method calls or expressions in a view makes the overall application harder to test and maintain.

Knowing where to put logic becomes second nature as you get more experience in AngularJS development, but here are the three rules:

1. View logic should prepare data only for display and never modify the model.
2. Controller logic should never directly create, update, or delete data from the model.
3. The client should never directly access the data store.