MALLA REDDY COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY

Autonomous Institution – UGC, Govt. of India



(CSE-AIML, AIML)

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LECTURE NOTES

MALLA REDDY COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY

(Autonomous Institution – UGC, Govt. of India)

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Department of Computational Intelligence

CSE (Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning)

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UNIT - I

Web Development Basics:

Understanding the Basic Web Development Framework

web server

A **web server** is a software or hardware that delivers web content to users over the internet. In the context of web development, a web server plays a crucial role in processing requests from client devices (such as browsers) and serving the appropriate responses, which could include HTML pages, images, stylesheets, JavaScript files, and other resources.

The importance of web servers in web development:

1. Request Handling

- HTTP Requests: When a user visits a website, their browser sends an HTTP request (or HTTPS for secure communication) to the server. This request could be for a specific webpage, file, or resource.
- **Request Methods**: The request can be a GET request (to fetch a resource), a POST request (to submit data), or other HTTP methods like PUT, DELETE, etc.
- **Routing**: The server typically handles routing, directing the request to the appropriate file, script, or resource based on the URL and parameters.

2. Serving Files

• Web servers can serve static files like HTML, CSS, JavaScript, images, and videos directly. For dynamic content (like data from a database), the server might interact with back-end scripts (PHP, Node.js, Python, etc.) that generate content based on the request.

3. Web Server Software

- There are various web server software used in web development, some popular ones include:
 - Apache: One of the most widely used web servers, known for its flexibility and wide support.
 - Nginx: A highly efficient and performant web server, often used as a reverse proxy or load balancer in high-traffic environments.
 - o **LiteSpeed**: Known for performance and security features.
 - o **Node.js**: A runtime environment that also includes web server capabilities, typically using frameworks like Express.js.
 - o **IIS** (**Internet Information Services**): A web server from Microsoft, commonly used for Windows-based applications.

4. Static vs Dynamic Content

- **Static Content**: Includes fixed resources like images, CSS files, and pre-rendered HTML pages. Web servers simply retrieve these files and send them to the browser.
- **Dynamic Content**: Involves processing logic, such as querying a database, running server-side scripts, or processing user inputs. Web servers may pass the request to a back-end application (e.g., Node.js, Django, Flask) to generate dynamic content, which is then returned to the client.

5. Security and Configuration

- Web servers help secure applications by managing configurations like SSL/TLS encryption (for HTTPS), setting up firewalls, controlling access permissions, and handling authentication (e.g., basic auth, OAuth).
- They also provide performance optimizations, like caching, compression (e.g., gzip), and load balancing to handle high traffic efficiently.

6. Web Server vs Web Application Server

• A **web server** primarily handles HTTP requests and serves static content, while a **web application server** is responsible for running application code, interacting with databases, and generating dynamic content. Some servers, like Node.js, combine the functionalities of both.

7. Examples of Using Web Servers in Development

- **Local Development**: During development, you can set up a web server locally (e.g., using XAMPP, WAMP, or directly with Node.js) to test your website or application.
- **Deployment**: For live environments, web servers host the website or application, with configurations optimized for production, such as SSL/TLS for security, caching strategies, and load balancing.

8. Popular Web Servers in Web Development

- **Apache HTTP Server**: A highly configurable, open-source server, often used with PHP-based websites.
- **Nginx**: A lightweight, high-performance web server, often used for serving static files and as a reverse proxy for handling dynamic content.
- **Express.js** (**Node.js**): When building applications using JavaScript on the server side, Express is a popular framework to handle HTTP requests and responses.

Backend services

The web server is a crucial component in the web development process, responsible for receiving, processing, and responding to client requests. It ensures that static files are served correctly and dynamic content is generated and delivered to users based on their interactions with the site or application.

In web development, **backend services** refer to the part of the application that runs on the server-side, behind the scenes, to manage and process data, user authentication, interactions with databases, and more. These services are responsible for handling the logic, database communication, and server-side processes that power the functionality of a website or application.

Key Components of Backend Services

1. Web Server:

 A web server (e.g., Apache, Nginx) serves as the intermediary between the client (browser) and the backend services, handling incoming HTTP/HTTPS requests and forwarding them to appropriate backend processes.

2. Application Logic:

- This is the core functionality of the backend. It includes the business logic of your application, like processing data, interacting with other services, and applying rules for how the application should behave.
- o Common backend technologies/frameworks for handling application logic include:

- Node.js (JavaScript runtime, often with Express.js or other frameworks)
- Ruby on Rails (Ruby)
- Django (Python)
- Flask (Python)
- Laravel (PHP)
- Spring Boot (Java)

3. Database Management:

- O Backend services often interact with databases to store, retrieve, and manipulate data. Databases can be either:
 - **Relational Databases** (SQL): Use structured tables to store data. Examples include **MySQL**, **PostgreSQL**, **SQLite**.
 - Non-Relational Databases (NoSQL): Store unstructured or semi-structured data, often in document, key-value, graph, or column-based models. Examples include MongoDB, Cassandra, Firebase.

4. APIs (Application Programming Interfaces):

- Backend services often expose APIs to enable communication between the server and client. These APIs allow the frontend (client-side) to request data and services from the backend.
 - **RESTful APIs**: These follow standard HTTP methods like GET, POST, PUT, and DELETE for CRUD (Create, Read, Update, Delete) operations.
 - **GraphQL APIs**: A newer, more flexible alternative to REST, allowing clients to request only the data they need in a single query.
 - **SOAP** (**Simple Object Access Protocol**): An older protocol for exchanging structured information, typically used in enterprise systems.

5. Authentication and Authorization:

- o Backend services handle user authentication (verifying identity) and authorization (determining access rights).
 - **JWT** (**JSON Web Tokens**): Used for securing API endpoints by encoding claims about the user and their permissions.
 - **OAuth**: An open standard for access delegation, often used for allowing third-party applications to access user data securely.
 - Session-based Authentication: Using server-side sessions to track authenticated users.

6. Middleware:

- Middleware consists of code that lies between the web server and the backend application, performing tasks like:
 - Authentication
 - Logging requests
 - Error handling
 - Request/response transformation (e.g., parsing JSON)
 - Caching
- Examples: Express middleware, Django middleware

7. Caching:

- o To improve performance, backend services often use caching mechanisms to store frequently requested data in memory for quick access, reducing the load on the database.
 - Redis: A fast, in-memory key-value store often used for caching and session management.
 - Memcached: Another memory caching system often used for performance improvements.

8. File Storage:

- Backend services also handle the uploading, storing, and retrieval of files such as images, videos, and documents. Storage can either be local or cloud-based:
 - Cloud Storage: Services like Amazon S3, Google Cloud Storage, and Azure Blob Storage provide scalable, secure storage.
 - File Servers: Can store files on a dedicated server or a distributed file system.

9. Background Jobs and Task Queues:

- o Some tasks, like sending emails, processing large files, or generating reports, can be offloaded to background services to avoid blocking user-facing interactions.
- These tasks are often handled using task queues or message brokers.
 - RabbitMQ: A popular message broker that helps manage and process tasks asynchronously.
 - Celery (with Django/Flask): A distributed task queue system for background processing.
 - **AWS Lambda**: Serverless functions that can process tasks in the background.

10. Real-time Communication:

o For real-time features like live chat, notifications, or collaborative editing, backend services might use WebSockets, long polling, or server-sent events.

- Socket.IO: A library for real-time communication using WebSockets, often used with Node.js.
- o **Firebase**: A backend-as-a-service (BaaS) platform that provides real-time data synchronization for applications.

11. Security:

- Backend services handle the security of an application, including protection against threats like SQL injection, cross-site scripting (XSS), cross-site request forgery (CSRF), and others.
- o Implementing SSL/TLS encryption for secure data transmission (HTTPS).
- o Implementing input validation and sanitation to prevent malicious code from being executed on the server.

Key Technologies for Backend Services

1. Node.js:

- A JavaScript runtime that allows you to build server-side applications using JavaScript. It
 is popular for building fast, scalable network applications, especially for APIs and realtime applications.
- o Common frameworks: Express.js, Koa.js

2. **Django** (Python):

 A high-level Python web framework that simplifies the development of secure and maintainable websites. It includes features like authentication, database ORM (Object-Relational Mapping), and an admin interface out of the box.

3. **Ruby on Rails** (Ruby):

o A popular web application framework written in Ruby, known for its convention over configuration principles, speed of development, and large community.

4. Laravel (PHP):

 A robust PHP framework for web application development, offering tools for routing, authentication, and database management.

5. **Spring Boot** (Java):

 A Java-based framework that simplifies the creation of production-ready, stand-alone applications with minimal configuration.

6. **Go** (Golang):

o A statically typed, compiled programming language known for performance and efficiency in backend services, especially for building scalable systems.

7. Serverless Platforms:

 Services like AWS Lambda, Google Cloud Functions, and Azure Functions provide serverless architectures where you only focus on writing the backend logic, while the platform takes care of scaling and infrastructure management.

Why Backend Services Matter

- **Data Management**: Backend services are essential for managing large datasets, handling requests, and ensuring the correct business logic is applied.
- **User Management**: They handle critical functionalities like user authentication and authorization, ensuring that only authorized users can access specific resources.
- **Performance**: By offloading computationally expensive tasks, background services, and caching, the backend ensures that the web application performs efficiently under high traffic conditions.
- **Security**: They are responsible for securing the application, implementing proper data encryption, preventing unauthorized access, and safeguarding sensitive data.

HTML Basics

In HTML, **headings** are used to define the structure and organization of content on a webpage. They help users and search engines understand the hierarchy and importance of the content. HTML offers six levels of headings, ranging from <**h1**> (the highest or most important level) to <**h6**> (the least important level).

Headings in HTML: Overview

Here's how each heading tag works in HTML:

- 1. **<h1>** The Most Important Heading
 - o Represents the most important heading, often used for the main title of a page or a section
 - o There should typically be only **one <h1>** tag per page for SEO purposes.

Example:

<h1>Welcome to My Website</h1>

- 2. **<h2>** Subheadings of **<**h1>
 - Used for secondary headings or sections within a page. These provide further structure beneath the <h1> heading.

Example:

<h2>About Us</h2>

- 3. $\langle h3 \rangle$ Subheadings of $\langle h2 \rangle$
 - Used for subsections under <h2> headings.

Example:

<h3>Our Mission</h3>

- 4. **<h4>** Subheadings of **<**h3>
 - o These are used for even more specific subsections within <h3>.

Example:

<h4>Our Goals</h4>

5. **<h5>** - Subheadings of **<**h4>

• Used for even deeper sections, providing further breakdown of content under <h4>.

Example:

<h5>Short-Term Goals</h5>

- 6. **<h6>** The Least Important Heading
 - Represents the least important heading and is typically used for fine-grained sections or items under <h5>.

Example:

<h6>Action Items</h6>

Usage and Best Practices

- 1. **Hierarchical Structure**: Headings should be used in a logical order. <h1> is the most important, and the subsequent headings (<h2>, <h3>, etc.) should represent a nested structure. Don't skip heading levels (e.g., jumping from <h1> directly to <h4>).
- 2. **SEO Considerations**: Search engines often prioritize content that uses headings effectively. The <h1> tag is especially important for SEO because it tells search engines the main topic of the page. Use headings to structure content and improve the accessibility and relevance of your webpage.
- 3. **Accessibility**: Headings help screen readers and other assistive technologies understand the layout and structure of a webpage, making it more navigable for users with disabilities.
- 4. **Styling Headings**: By default, headings are displayed with a larger font size and bold text. You can style them with CSS to adjust the font size, color, spacing, etc.

```
Example:
<style>
 h1 {
  color: darkblue;
  font-size: 36px;
 h2 {
  color: darkgreen;
  font-size: 30px;
</style>
Example of Using Headings in HTML
Here's a simple example to illustrate how headings can be used in HTML:
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
 <meta charset="UTF-8">
 <meta name="viewport" content="width=device-width, initial-scale=1.0">
 <title>Sample Webpage</title>
</head>
<body>
 <h1>Welcome to Our Website</h1>
 <h2>Our Services</h2>
 <h3>Web Development</h3>
```

```
We offer custom web development solutions.
<h3>Mobile App Development</h3>
We create responsive mobile applications.
<h2>Contact Us</h2>
<h3>Support</h3>
If you have any questions, feel free to contact our support team.
<h3>Sales</h3>
For sales inquiries, reach out to our sales department.
</body>
</html>
```

Summary of HTML Headings

- **<h1>**: Most important heading (typically used for page titles).
- <h2>: Secondary headings.
- **<h3>**: Sub-sections under **<**h2>.
- **<h4>**: Further sections under **<**h3>.
- **<h5>**: Additional sub-sections under **<**h4>.
- **<h6>**: The least important heading.

Using headings effectively helps structure your content in a meaningful way, improves accessibility, and enhances SEO.

Paragraphs

In HTML, **paragraphs** are used to define blocks of text. The tag is the HTML element used to create paragraphs. Paragraphs are essential for structuring content and making text readable and organized.

The Tag in HTML

The tag is used to encapsulate a paragraph of text. By default, paragraphs are displayed with some space before and after them to separate them from other elements.

Basic Syntax for a Paragraph

This is a paragraph of text.

Example of Multiple Paragraphs

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
<meta charset="UTF-8">
<meta name="viewport" content="width=device-width, initial-scale=1.0">
<title>Paragraphs in HTML</title>
</head>
<body>
This is the first paragraph of text.
This is the second paragraph. It is separated from the first one with space.
This is the third paragraph. It has its own space and is distinct from the others.
</body>
</html>
```

Key Points about Paragraphs in HTML

1. Text Wrapping:

- The tag automatically wraps the text inside it. You don't need to manually break lines with
 for each new line in the paragraph.
- o However, the browser automatically ignores extra spaces and line breaks within a paragraph.

2. Paragraph Spacing:

o Paragraphs have default margins applied by browsers. Typically, there's some space before and after each tag. You can adjust this spacing using CSS if needed.

3. Nested Elements:

- You can include other inline elements like <a>, , , and others inside a paragraph.
- o Example:
- o This is a bold word in the paragraph.

4. No Nested Paragraphs:

o It is **not valid** to place a tag inside another tag. If you do, the browser will automatically close the first and open a new one.

Example of incorrect usage:

```
This is the first paragraph This is a nested paragraph. <!-- Incorrect -->
```

Styling Paragraphs with CSS

You can apply CSS styles to paragraphs to adjust things like font size, line height, margins, text alignment, etc.

Example of CSS Styling for Paragraphs

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
 <meta charset="UTF-8">
 <meta name="viewport" content="width=device-width, initial-scale=1.0">
 <title>Styled Paragraphs</title>
 <style>
  p {
   font-size: 16px;
   line-height: 1.6;
   color: #333;
   margin-bottom: 20px;
   text-align: justify;
 </style>
</head>
<body>
```

This is a styled paragraph. The font size is set to 16px, with a line height of 1.6 to improve readability. The text is justified and has a margin at the bottom.

Another styled paragraph. Notice the consistent styling applied across all paragraphs in the

```
document.
</body>
</html>
```

Paragraphs and Accessibility

- **Semantic Meaning**: The tag provides semantic meaning to the text, which helps both search engines and screen readers understand the content structure.
- **Spacing for Readability**: Proper paragraph spacing enhances readability, especially for users with visual impairments or cognitive difficulties.
- **Screen Readers**: When paragraphs are properly defined, screen readers can more easily read the content aloud, respecting the logical flow of text.

Conclusion

The tag is fundamental in HTML for structuring textual content into readable paragraphs. It is simple to use, and its styling can be customized with CSS to improve the appearance of text. Proper use of paragraphs enhances both the user experience and SEO of a webpage.

links

In HTML, **links** are used to navigate between different web pages or resources. Links are created using the <a> (anchor) tag, which stands for "anchor" because it anchors the user to a new location, whether it's on the same page, a different page, or even an external site.

Basic Syntax for Links

The basic syntax for creating a link in HTML is:

Link Text

- **href**: This attribute specifies the **URL** (Uniform Resource Locator) that the link points to. It can be a relative path (for links within the same site) or an absolute URL (for external websites).
- Link Text: This is the clickable text that users will see and click on.

Example of a Link

Visit Example Website

In this example, the link text "Visit Example Website" is clickable, and when clicked, it will take the user to https://www.example.com.

Types of Links

- 1. External Links:
 - o These links point to a different website or domain.
- 2. Go to Example.com

3. Internal Links:

- These links point to another page or resource within the same website. This can be done using a relative path.
- 4. About Us
- 5. Anchor Links (Same Page Links):
 - o These links point to a specific section or element within the same page. You create anchor links using id attributes on elements.
- 6. Go to Section 2

- 7. <!-- Later in the page -->
- 8. <h2 id="section2">Section 2</h2>
- 9. Mailto Links:
 - o These links open the user's email client with a predefined recipient's email address.
- 10. Send an Email

11. **Phone Links**:

- o These links allow users to click and dial a phone number (mainly on mobile devices).
- 12. Call Us

Opening Links in a New Tab

To open a link in a new tab (or window), you use the **target="_blank"** attribute: Visit Example Website

This ensures that when the user clicks the link, it opens in a new browser tab.

Linking to a Specific Part of a Page (Anchor Links)

To create links that navigate to a specific part of the same page, you need to use the **id** attribute on the target element and then refer to that id in the href.

- 1. Set the id on the target element:
- 2. <h2 id="section1">Section 1</h2>
- 3. Create a link that points to the id:
- 4. Go to Section 1

This way, when the link is clicked, the browser will scroll to the <**h2**> element with the id="section1".

Styling Links with CSS

Links can be styled using CSS to change their appearance, such as color, text decoration, and hover effects.

Example of styling links:

```
<style>
a {
  color: blue;
  text-decoration: none;
}

a:hover {
  color: red;
  text-decoration: underline;
}

a:visited {
  color: purple;
}
</style>
<a href="https://www.example.com">Visit Example</a>
In the example above:
```

- The default link color is blue, with no underline.
- On hover, the color changes to red, and an underline appears.
- After visiting the link, it changes to purple.

Link Attributes

In addition to the **href** attribute, the <a> tag can include several other attributes:

- 1. **title**: Specifies additional information that appears when the user hovers over the link.
- 2. Visit Example
- 3. **red**: Defines the relationship between the current document and the linked document. It's especially useful for security and SEO.
 - o **rel="noopener"**: Prevents the new page from having access to the window.opener property, improving security when using target="_blank".
 - o **rel="noreferrer"**: Prevents the browser from sending the referring page's URL when opening the link.
- 4. Visit Example

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
<meta charset="UTF-8">
<meta name="viewport" content="width=device-width, initial-scale=1.0">
```


<bdy><h1>Welcome to My Website</h1>

<title>Links in HTML</title>

Example: Full HTML Page with Links

Click below to visit some pages:

```
<a href="https://www.example.com" target="_blank">Visit Example Website</a><a href="/about.html">About Us</a><a href="#contact">Go to Contact Section</a></a>
```

Send an Email

Call Us

√ui>

<111>

</head>

<h2 id="contact">Contact Us</h2> Here's how you can get in touch with us!

Here's how you can get in touch with us!

</body>

Summary

• The <a> tag is used to create hyperlinks in HTML.

- The **href** attribute specifies the destination URL.
- Links can point to external websites, internal pages, sections within the same page, email addresses, or phone numbers.
- The **target="_blank"** attribute opens links in a new tab.
- CSS can be used to style links and create effects like color changes and underlines.

Using links effectively improves navigation and accessibility on your website, enhancing the overall user experience.

IMAGES

In HTML, **images** are used to display graphical content such as pictures, icons, and other visual elements. The **** tag is used to embed images in a webpage.

Basic Syntax for the Tag

The basic syntax for embedding an image in HTML is:

- **src** (source): This attribute specifies the path to the image file. It can be a relative path (for images stored locally in the same directory or project) or an absolute URL (for images hosted on external websites).
- **alt** (alternative text): This attribute provides a textual description of the image. This description is important for accessibility, especially for users who rely on screen readers, and it is displayed if the image fails to load.

The tag is **self-closing**, meaning it does not have an end tag.

Example of an Image in HTML

 $<\!\!img\;src="https://www.example.com/images/logo.png"\;alt="Company\;Logo"\;/\!\!>$

In this example:

- src="https://www.example.com/images/logo.png": This is the URL of the image.
- **alt="Company Logo"**: This is the description of the image, useful for screen readers and when the image fails to load.

Image Attributes

The tag has several useful attributes you can use to control how images are displayed:

- 1. **src**: Specifies the path to the image file.
- 2. **alt**: Describes the image for accessibility purposes.
- 3. **width**: Specifies the width of the image (in pixels or percentage).
- 4. **height**: Specifies the height of the image (in pixels or percentage).
- 5. **title**: Displays additional information when the user hovers over the image.
- 6. **loading**: Determines how the image is loaded (either "lazy" or "eager").
 - o **lazy**: The image is loaded only when it's about to appear on the screen (helps improve page load time).
 - o **eager**: The image is loaded immediately.

Example with Attributes

<img src="logo.png" alt="Logo of My Website" width="300" height="200" title="Click to visit</pre>

homepage" loading="lazy" />

Displaying Images from Different Sources

1. **Local Images**: If the image is stored locally in the same directory as the HTML file (or in a folder within the directory), you can specify a relative path.

Example:

2. **External Images**: You can also display images from external websites by specifying the full URL in the src attribute.

Example:

Controlling Image Size

You can control the size of an image using the width and height attributes or with CSS.

• Using HTML Attributes:

Example:

• Using CSS:

Example:

```
<img src="image.jpg" alt="A small image" style="width: 500px; height: 300px;" />
Alternatively, you can use percentages for responsive design:
<img src="image.jpg" alt="A responsive image" style="width: 100%; height: auto;" />
```

Responsive Images

To ensure that images are responsive and adapt to different screen sizes, you can use the width: 100% CSS rule. This makes the image resize according to the width of its container while maintaining its aspect ratio.

Example of a responsive image:

```
<img src="image.jpg" alt="Responsive Image" style="width: 100%; height: auto;" />
```

Image Formats

Common image formats used in web development include:

- **JPEG**: Good for photos and images with gradients.
- **PNG**: Supports transparency and is good for images with text or logos.
- **GIF**: Best for simple graphics or animations.
- SVG: Scalable vector graphics, which are XML-based and scalable without losing quality.
- **WebP**: A newer format that provides smaller file sizes and better compression than JPEG and PNG.

Example of Different Image Types

- 1. **JPEG**:
- 2.
- 3. **PNG**:
- 4.
- 5. **GIF**:
- 6.

- 7. **SVG**:
- 8.

Image Accessibility

- **alt Text**: The alt attribute is crucial for accessibility. If the image is purely decorative, you can set an empty alt attribute (alt="") so screen readers skip it. For example:
-
- **Title Attribute**: You can also use the title attribute to give additional information about the image when users hover over it.

Example of a Full HTML Page with Images

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
 <meta charset="UTF-8">
 <meta name="viewport" content="width=device-width, initial-scale=1.0">
 <title>Images in HTML</title>
</head>
<body>
 <h1>Welcome to Our Website</h1>
 Here is an image of our logo:
 <img src="logo.png" alt="Our Company Logo" width="300" height="200" title="Click here to learn</pre>
more" />
 Here is a responsive image:
 <img src="image.jpg" alt="Responsive Image" style="width: 100%; height: auto;" />
 And here's an animated GIF:
 <img src="animation.gif" alt="GIF Animation" />
</body>
</html>
```

Summary

- The **** tag is used to display images in HTML.
- The **src** attribute specifies the image's location, and the **alt** attribute provides a text description.
- You can control the image size with width and height attributes or CSS.
- Images can be **responsive** by using CSS (e.g., width: 100% and height: auto).
- Using proper alt text ensures your images are accessible to users with disabilities.

Lists, Tables

In HTML, **lists** and **tables** are essential elements for organizing and displaying data in a structured format. Below is an overview of how to use both lists and tables in HTML.

1. Lists in HTML

Lists are used to group and display items in an ordered or unordered fashion. There are three main types of lists in HTML: **unordered lists**, **ordered lists**, and **definition lists**.

a. Unordered Lists ()

An **unordered list** is used when the order of items doesn't matter. It is created using the
tag, and each list item is enclosed in an tag.

Syntax:

```
\langle ul \rangle
 Item 1
 Item 2
 Item 3
Example:
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
 <meta charset="UTF-8">
 <title>Unordered List Example</title>
</head>
<body>
 <h3>My Favorite Fruits</h3>
 \langle ul \rangle
  Apple
  Banana
  Orange
 </body>
</html>
```

b. Ordered Lists ()

An **ordered list** is used when the order of items **matters**. It is created using the tag, and each list item is enclosed in an tag. Items are numbered by default.

Syntax:

```
First Item
Second Item
Third Item

Example:
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
<meta charset="UTF-8">
<title>Ordered List Example</title>
</head>
<body>
```

```
<h3>Steps to Make a Sandwich</h3>
 <ol>
  Gather ingredients
  Prepare bread
  Add filling
  Serve and enjoy
 </body>
</html>
c. Definition Lists (<dl>)
A definition list is used to display pairs of terms and their corresponding definitions. It consists
of <dl> (the list container), <dt> (the term), and <dd> (the definition).
Syntax:
<dl>
 <dt>Term 1</dt>
 <dd>Definition of Term 1</dd>
 <dt>Term 2</dt>
 <dd>Definition of Term 2</dd>
</dl>
Example:
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
 <meta charset="UTF-8">
 <title>Definition List Example</title>
</head>
<body>
 <h3>HTML Tags</h3>
 < dl >
  <dt>&lt;h1&gt;</dt>
  <dd>Defines the largest heading</dd>
  <dt>&lt;p&gt;</dt>
  <dd>Defines a paragraph</dd>
  < dt > & t; img & gt; < / dt >
  <dd>Defines an image</dd>
 </dl>
</body>
</html>
```

2. Tables in HTML

A table is used to display tabular data in rows and columns. Tables are defined with the

tag, and you use other elements like , , and to structure the data within the table.

Basic Table Structure

- : Defines the table.
- : Defines a table row.
- : Defines a table header cell (typically bold and centered).
- : Defines a table data cell (a normal table cell).

Syntax:

```
Header 1
 Header 2
Data 1
 Data 2
Data 3
 Data 4
Example of a Basic Table
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
<meta charset="UTF-8">
<title>Table Example</title>
</head>
<body>
<h3>Employee List</h3>
Name
 Position
 Salary
 John Doe
 Manager
 $60,000
```

```
Jane Smith
```

Adding More Table Features

1. **Table Caption** (**<caption>**): This tag adds a title to the table, which is displayed above the table.

Syntax:

```
<caption>Employee List</caption>
...
```

- 2. **Table Row Groups** (<thead>, , <tfoot>): These elements are used to group header, body, and footer rows in the table for better organization and styling.
 - o **<thead>**: Contains the header row(s).
 - o : Contains the body of the table.
 - o **<tfoot>**: Contains the footer row(s).

Example:

```
<caption>Employee List</caption>
<thead>
 Name
 Position
 Salary
 </thead>
John Doe
 Manager
 $60,000
```

```
Jane Smith
   Developer
   $80,000
  <tfoot>
  Total Employees: 2
  </tfoot>
Example with Styling and Formatting
You can use CSS to style your lists and tables for better presentation.
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
 <meta charset="UTF-8">
 <title>Styled Table</title>
 <style>
  table {
   width: 100%;
  border-collapse: collapse;
  th, td {
   padding: 8px;
   text-align: left;
   border: 1px solid #ddd;
  th {
   background-color: #f2f2f2;
  caption {
   font-size: 1.5em;
   margin: 10px;
 </style>
</head>
<body>
 <h3>Employee List</h3>
 <caption>Employee Information</caption>
  <thead>
   Name
```

```
Position
  Salary
 </thead>
 John Doe
  Manager
  $60,000
 Jane Smith
  Developer
  $80,000
 <tfoot>
 Total Employees: 2
 </tfoot>
</body>
</html>
```

Summary

• Lists:

- o **Unordered Lists** (): Use for items where the order doesn't matter.
- o **Ordered Lists** (): Use for items where the order is important.
- o **Definition Lists** (<dl>): Use for terms and their definitions.

• Tables:

- o Tables are structured using the tag, with rows () and cells (for data, for headers).
- You can use <caption> for a table title and <thead>, , <tfoot> for grouping rows.
- o Tables can be styled with CSS for better presentation and readability.

Using lists and tables effectively will help organize content and present data in a user-friendly manner.

Div Element, Forms

1. <div> Element in HTML

The **div** tag in HTML is a **block-level element** used for grouping and structuring content. It does not have any specific semantic meaning by itself but is used for styling, layout, and grouping content together for logical organization.

Common Uses of <div>:

- **Layout**: Div is frequently used for creating layouts (e.g., dividing a page into sections like header, main content, sidebar, footer).
- **Styling**: The <div> tag can be styled using CSS to create various effects like backgrounds, borders, padding, margins, etc.
- **JavaScript**: It's also commonly used as a container for JavaScript functionality (e.g., displaying content dynamically).

Syntax:

```
<div>
 <!-- Content goes here -->
</div>
Example of Using <div> for Layout:
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
 <meta charset="UTF-8">
 <title>Using <div> for Layout</title>
 <style>
  .container {
   display: flex;
   flex-direction: column;
  .header, .footer {
   background-color: #4CAF50;
   color: white:
   padding: 10px;
  .main-content {
   padding: 20px;
  .sidebar {
   background-color: lightgray;
   width: 200px;
   padding: 10px;
 </style>
</head>
<body>
```

```
<div class="container">
  <div class="header">
   <h1>Website Header</h1>
  </div>
  <div class="main-content">
   <div class="sidebar">
    <h3>Sidebar</h3>
    Links or extra information
   </div>
   <div class="main-area">
    <h3>Main Content</h3>
    This is where the main content of the page goes.
   </div>
  </div>
  <div class="footer">
   Footer Content
  </div>
 </div>
</body>
</html>
```

In this example, the <div> elements are used to create different sections of the webpage, such as the header, sidebar, main content area, and footer.

2. Forms in HTML

HTML forms allow users to submit data (e.g., text, files, selections) to a server. Forms are created using the <form> element, and different types of input elements are used within the form to collect data.

Basic Form Structure

A form in HTML is defined using the <form> element. The most common form elements include:

- <input>: Used for various types of input fields (text, password, radio buttons, checkboxes, etc.).
- **<textarea>**: Used for multi-line text input.
- **<select>** and **<option>**: Used for dropdown lists.
- **<button>**: Used to submit or reset the form.

Syntax of a Basic Form:

```
<form action="submit.php" method="POST">
<!-- Form Elements -->
</form>
```

- action: The URL where the form data will be sent.
- **method**: Defines the HTTP method used to send the form data (e.g., GET or POST).

```
Example of a Simple Form:
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
 <meta charset="UTF-8">
 <title>HTML Form Example</title>
</head>
<body>
 <h3>Contact Us</h3>
 <form action="submit_form.php" method="POST">
  <label for="name">Name:</label>
  <input type="text" id="name" name="name" required>
  <hr><hr><hr>
  <label for="email">Email:</label>
  <input type="email" id="email" name="email" required>
  <br>><br>>
  <label for="message">Message:</label>
  <textarea id="message" name="message" rows="4" required></textarea>
  <br>><br>>
  <button type="submit">Submit</button>
 </form>
</body>
</html>
```

Common Form Elements

- 1. **<input>**: Used to create various types of input fields.
 - o type="text": A single-line text input field.
 - o type="password": A text input field where the input is masked.
 - type="email": For email input, automatically validates the email format.
 - o type="checkbox": A checkbox input.
 - o type="radio": A radio button input.
 - o type="submit": A button to submit the form.

Example:

```
<label for="username">Username:</label>
<input type="text" id="username" name="username" required>
```

2. **<textarea>**: Used for multi-line text input. Example:

- 3. Message:label>
- 4. <textarea id="message" name="message" rows="4" cols="50" required></textarea>
- 5. **<select> and <option>**: Used to create dropdown lists. Example:
- 6. Country:
- 7. <select id="country" name="country">
- 8. <option value="USA">USA</option>
- 9. <option value="Canada">Canada</option>
- 10. <option value="UK">UK</option>
- 11. </select>
- 12. **<button>**: Used to create buttons in a form, like submit or reset buttons. Example:
- 13. <button type="submit">Submit</button>

Form Attributes

- 1. **action**: Defines the server URL where the form data will be submitted.
- 2. <form action="submit_form.php" method="POST">
- 3. **method**: Specifies how the form data will be sent to the server. The two common methods are:
 - o **GET**: Sends the form data as URL parameters (suitable for non-sensitive data).
 - o **POST**: Sends the form data in the HTTP request body (suitable for sensitive data, such as passwords).

Example:

- <form action="submit_form.php" method="POST">
 - 4. **target**: Specifies where to display the response after the form is submitted.
 - o _self: Opens in the same frame (default).
 - o _blank: Opens in a new tab or window.

Example:

```
<form action="submit_form.php" method="POST" target="_blank">
```

Example of a Complete Form with Different Input Elements:

```
<h3>Register</h3>
<form action="submit_form.php" method="POST">
 <!-- Text input for name -->
 <label for="name">Full Name:</label>
 <input type="text" id="name" name="name" required>
 <br>><br>>
 <!-- Email input -->
 <label for="email">Email:</label>
 <input type="email" id="email" name="email" required>
 <br>><br>>
 <!-- Password input -->
 <label for="password">Password:</label>
 <input type="password" id="password" name="password" required>
 <br>><br>>
 <!-- Radio buttons for gender -->
 <label for="gender">Gender:</label><br>
 <input type="radio" id="male" name="gender" value="male" required>
 <label for="male">Male</label><br>
 <input type="radio" id="female" name="gender" value="female" required>
 <label for="female">Female</label><br>
 \langle br \rangle
 <!-- Checkbox for accepting terms -->
 <label for="terms">Accept Terms and Conditions:</label>
 <input type="checkbox" id="terms" name="terms" required>
 <br>><br>>
 <!-- Dropdown menu -->
 <label for="country">Country:</label>
 <select id="country" name="country" required>
  <option value="USA">USA</option>
  <option value="Canada">Canada</option>
  <option value="UK">UK</option>
 </select>
 <br>><br>>
 <!-- Text area for comments -->
 <label for="comments">Comments:</label><br>
 <textarea id="comments" name="comments" rows="4" cols="50"></textarea>
 <br>><br>>
```

```
<!-- Submit button -->
    <button type="submit">Register</button>
    </form>

</body>
</html>
```

Summary

- The **div** tag is used as a container to structure and style content. It doesn't carry any inherent meaning but is useful for organizing content and layout.
- **Forms** are created with the <form> element. Inside a form, you can use various input elements like <input>, <textarea>, <select>, and <button> to collect user data.
- Form data is submitted via the **action** and **method** attributes of the <form> tag. The **GET** method sends data via URL, and the **POST** method sends data in the body of the HTTP request.

Cascading Style Sheets

Syntax, Types

CSS (Cascading Style Sheets) Overview

CSS is used to control the style and layout of HTML elements. It enables you to set colors, fonts, spacing, alignment, borders, and other styling properties of HTML elements. CSS can be added to HTML in three main ways: **Inline**, **Internal**, and **External**.

1. CSS Syntax

The basic structure of CSS consists of selectors and declaration blocks: selector {
 property: value;
}

- **Selector**: Specifies which HTML element(s) the style applies to.
- **Declaration Block**: Contains one or more property-value pairs (separated by semicolons).
 - o **Property**: A specific style or feature to be modified (e.g., color, font-size).
 - o **Value**: The value assigned to the property (e.g., red, 16px).

Example of CSS Syntax:

```
p {
  color: blue;    /* Sets the text color of all  elements to blue */
  font-size: 14px;    /* Sets the font size of  elements to 14px */
}
```

This rule applies to all elements in the HTML document, setting their text color to blue and their font size to 14px.

2. Types of CSS

CSS can be applied to HTML in three main ways: Inline CSS, Internal CSS, and External

CSS.

a. Inline CSS

Inline CSS is used when you want to apply a style to a single element directly within the HTML style attribute.

• Syntax: You define the style in the HTML tag using the style attribute.

This is a paragraph with inline styles.

Pros:

- Useful for quick styling of individual elements.
- No need to define an external or internal CSS block.

Cons:

- Hard to manage when applying styles to multiple elements.
- Cannot be reused across multiple elements or pages.

b. Internal CSS

Internal CSS is defined within the <style> tag in the <head> section of the HTML document. This method is useful when you want to apply styles to a specific page only.

• Syntax:

Pros:

- Good for styling a single HTML document.
- Easier to manage than inline CSS for the same document.

Cons:

- Not reusable across multiple pages.
- Can increase the size of your HTML file.

c. External CSS

External CSS is the most common and efficient method for styling websites. The styles are placed in a separate .css file, and the HTML document links to this file using the clink> tag.

• Syntax:

```
1. External CSS file (styles.css):
```

```
/* styles.css */
p {
 color: blue;
 font-size: 14px;
   2. HTML document:
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
 <meta charset="UTF-8">
 <title>External CSS Example</title>
 link rel="stylesheet" href="styles.css"> <!-- Link to the external CSS file -->
</head>
<body>
 This is a paragraph with external styles.
</body>
</html>
```

Pros:

- Styles can be reused across multiple pages.
- Keeps HTML and CSS separate, making the code cleaner and easier to maintain.
- Ideal for larger websites.

Cons:

• Requires an additional HTTP request to fetch the external CSS file.

3. CSS Selectors

CSS selectors define which HTML elements the styles apply to. There are several types of selectors in CSS.

a. Universal Selector (*)

```
The universal selector targets all HTML elements in the document.

* {
    margin: 0;
    padding: 0;
}
```

This will remove the margin and padding from all elements on the page.

b. Type Selector (Element Selector)

```
This targets elements of a specific type (e.g., all  tags).
p {
 color: red;
This will make all paragraphs () red.
c. Class Selector (.)
The class selector targets elements with a specific class attribute. It is prefixed with a dot (.).
.button {
 background-color: blue;
 color: white;
HTML:
<button class="button">Click Me</button>
This will apply the styles to any element with the class button.
d. ID Selector (#)
The ID selector targets an element with a specific id attribute. It is prefixed with a hash (#).
#header {
 font-size: 24px;
 text-align: center;
HTML:
<div id="header">Welcome to My Website</div>
This will apply the styles to the element with the id="header".
e. Attribute Selector
This targets elements based on their attributes.
input[type="text"] {
 background-color: lightgray;
This will style all <input> elements with a type attribute equal to "text".
f. Descendant Selector
This targets elements nested inside another element.
div p {
 color: green;
This will apply the style to all  elements that are inside a <div> element.
g. Child Selector (>)
This targets elements that are direct children of another element.
div > p {
 color: blue;
This will apply the style to all  elements that are direct children of a <div>.
h. Pseudo-classes
Pseudo-classes target elements in specific states (e.g., when a link is hovered over).
a:hover {
 color: red:
```

This changes the color of a link to red when it is hovered over.

i. Pseudo-elements

```
Pseudo-elements target a part of an element, such as the first letter or line. p::first-letter {
  font-size: 2em;
```

This will make the first letter of every paragraph 2 times larger than the rest of the text.

4. CSS Properties

CSS properties define the specific styles to apply to elements. Here are some common CSS properties:

- **color**: Sets the color of text.
- background-color: Sets the background color of an element.
- **font-size**: Defines the size of the text.
- **font-family**: Specifies the font of the text.
- **margin**: Controls the space outside of an element.
- **padding**: Controls the space inside an element.
- **border**: Defines the border around an element.
- width and height: Sets the width and height of an element.
- **text-align**: Aligns text (e.g., left, center, right).
- **display**: Specifies how an element is displayed on the page (e.g., block, inline, flex).

Example of Using CSS Properties:

```
h1 {
  font-family: Arial, sans-serif;
  font-size: 32px;
  color: darkblue;
  text-align: center;
}

p {
  font-size: 16px;
  color: gray;
  line-height: 1.5;
}
```

This will style all <h1> elements with Arial font, a size of 32px, and center the text. All elements will have a font size of 16px, gray color, and a line height of 1.5.

Summary

• CSS Syntax: Composed of selectors and declaration blocks with properties and values.

- Types of CSS:
 - o **Inline CSS**: Applied directly within an HTML element.
 - o **Internal CSS**: Defined within the <style> tag in the HTML <head>.
 - External CSS: Defined in an external .css file linked to the HTML document.
- **CSS Selectors**: Used to target HTML elements. Common types include type selectors, class selectors, ID selectors, and attribute selectors.
- **CSS Properties**: Define the specific styles applied to elements, such as color, background, margin, and font-size.

Using these methods and properties, CSS enables you to create visually appealing and well-structured web pages.

Selectors, Background

CSS Selectors

CSS selectors define which HTML elements the styles should apply to. There are various types of selectors in CSS, ranging from simple element selectors to complex, specific combinations that target particular elements on the page.

1. Type Selector (Element Selector)

```
The type selector targets HTML elements by their tag name. p {
```

color: red;

This will apply the style (red text) to all elements on the page.

2. Class Selector

The class selector targets elements that have a specific class attribute. It is prefixed with a period (.).

```
.button {
  background-color: blue;
  color: white;
}
HTML:
```

<button class="button">Click Me</button>

This will apply the styles to any element with the class="button".

3. ID Selector

The ID selector targets a specific element with a particular id attribute. It is prefixed with a hash (#).

```
#header {
  font-size: 24px;
  text-align: center;
}
HTML:
```

<div id="header">Welcome to My Website</div>

This will apply the styles to the element with the id="header".

4. Universal Selector (*)

```
The universal selector targets all elements in the document.
```

```
* {
  margin: 0;
  padding: 0;
```

This will reset all margins and padding to 0 for all elements on the page.

5. Descendant Selector

A descendant selector targets elements that are inside another element, at any depth.

```
div p {
  color: green;
}
```

This will apply the styles to all elements that are inside a <div> element.

6. Child Selector (>)

The child selector targets elements that are **direct children** of another element.

```
div > p {
  color: blue;
}
```

This will apply the styles only to elements that are direct children of a <div>, not those nested deeper.

7. Adjacent Sibling Selector (+)

The adjacent sibling selector targets an element that is immediately after a specified element.

```
h2 + p {
  font-size: 18px;
}
```

This will apply the styles to the first element immediately following an <h2> element.

8. General Sibling Selector (~)

The general sibling selector targets elements that are siblings of a specified element, but not necessarily immediately following.

```
h2 ~ p {
  color: purple;
}
```

This will apply the styles to all elements that are siblings of an <h2>, regardless of how many elements are between them.

9. Attribute Selector

Attribute selectors target elements based on the presence or value of an attribute.

```
input[type="text"] {
  background-color: lightblue;
}
```

This will apply the styles to all <input> elements with a type attribute equal to "text".

10. Pseudo-classes

Pseudo-classes target elements in specific states, such as when a link is hovered over.

```
a:hover {
  color: red;
}
```

This will change the color of a link to red when it is hovered over.

11. Pseudo-elements

```
Pseudo-elements target a part of an element, like the first letter or first line.
p::first-letter {
  font-size: 2em;
}
```

This will make the first letter of every paragraph 2 times larger than the rest of the text.

CSS Background Properties

The background property in CSS is used to define the background style of an element. This includes background color, image, positioning, repeat behavior, and size. Here are the most commonly used background properties:

1. background-color

```
This property sets the background color of an element.
div {
  background-color: lightblue;
}
This will give the <div> element a light blue background.
```

2. background-image

This property sets an image as the background of an element.

```
div {
  background-image: url('background.jpg');
}
```

This will set the image file background.jpg as the background for the <div> element.

3. background-size

This property defines the size of the background image. It can be set to specific dimensions or keywords like cover or contain.

```
liv {
background-image: url('background.jpg');
background-size: cover;
```

- cover: Scales the background image to cover the entire element, possibly cropping it.
- **contain**: Scales the background image so that it is completely visible within the element, possibly leaving space.

4. background-position

This property defines the position of the background image within the element. It can use values like percentages, pixel values, or keywords like center, top, bottom, left, and right.

```
div {
  background-image: url('background.jpg');
  background-position: center;
}
```

This centers the background image within the element.

5. background-repeat

This property controls how the background image is repeated within an element. Possible values include:

• **repeat**: The background image is repeated both horizontally and vertically.

- **no-repeat**: The background image is not repeated.
- **repeat-x**: The background image is repeated horizontally.
- **repeat-y**: The background image is repeated vertically.

```
div {
  background-image: url('background.jpg');
  background-repeat: no-repeat;
}
```

This ensures the background image is not repeated.

6. background-attachment

This property controls how the background image scrolls with the page. It can take the following values:

- **scroll** (default): The background image scrolls with the page.
- **fixed**: The background image remains fixed in place while the page scrolls.
- **local**: The background image scrolls with the element's content.

```
div {
  background-image: url('background.jpg');
  background-attachment: fixed;
}
```

This makes the background image stay fixed as the page scrolls.

7. background (Shorthand Property)

The background property is a shorthand to define all the background properties in one line. div {

background: lightblue url('background.jpg') no-repeat center center fixed;

This combines multiple background properties:

- background-color: lightblue;
- background-image: url('background.jpg');
- background-repeat: no-repeat;
- background-position: center center;
- background-attachment: fixed;

Example of Using Background and Selectors Together

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html lang="en">
<head>
    <meta charset="UTF-8">
    <title>CSS Selectors and Backgrounds</title>
    <style>
        /* Type selector */
```

```
h1 {
   color: darkblue;
   text-align: center;
  /* Class selector */
  .content {
   background-color: lightyellow;
   padding: 20px;
   font-size: 18px;
  /* ID selector */
  #footer {
   background-image: url('footer-background.jpg');
   background-size: cover;
   background-position: center;
   padding: 10px;
   text-align: center;
   color: white;
  /* Pseudo-class for links */
  a:hover {
   color: red;
  /* Universal selector */
  * {
   font-family: Arial, sans-serif;
 </style>
</head>
<body>
 <h1>Welcome to My Website</h1>
 <div class="content">
  This is some content with a background color.
 </div>
 <a href="#">Hover over me!</a>
 <div id="footer">
  Footer Content
 </div>
```

```
</body>
```

In this example:

- **h1** is styled with a type selector.
- .content is styled with a class selector and has a background color.
- **#footer** has a background image and uses various background properties.
- **a:hover** changes the link color when hovered.

Summary

- CSS Selectors: Used to select elements in HTML to apply styles. Common types include type selectors, class selectors, ID selectors, universal selectors, and pseudo-classes/elements.
- **CSS Background Properties**: Control the appearance of an element's background, such as background-color, background-image, background-size, background-position, background-repeat, and background-attachment. These can be combined into a shorthand background property.

With these tools, you can apply detailed and flexible styles to HTML elements.

CSS Border and Font Properties

In CSS, **borders** and **fonts** are essential for styling the appearance of HTML elements. Borders help define the boundaries of elements, while fonts control the appearance of text. Below is an in-depth explanation of the **border** and **font** properties in CSS.

1. CSS Border Properties

Borders are used to create boundaries around elements. CSS provides various properties to control the style, width, and color of borders.

a. border (Shorthand Property)

The border property is a shorthand for defining **border width**, **border style**, and **border color** in a single line.

```
element {
 border: 2px solid red;
}
```

This will apply:

- A 2px wide border,
- A **solid** border style, and
- A **red** color to the element.

b. border-width

This property specifies the width of the border. element {
 border-width: 5px;

```
This will apply a 5px border width on all four sides of the element. You can also specify
different widths for each side:
element {
 border-width: 5px 10px 15px 20px;
This applies:
   • 5px on top
      10px on the right
     15px on the bottom
       20px on the left
c. border-style
This property defines the style of the border. Common values include:
   • none: No border.
     solid: A solid border line.
     dashed: A dashed border line.
     dotted: A dotted border line.
       double: A double border line.
       ridge, inset, outset: For creating 3D-like borders.
element {
 border-style: dashed;
This will apply a dashed border around the element.
d. border-color
This property sets the color of the border.
element {
 border-color: blue;
This will apply a blue color to the border.
e. border-radius
This property rounds the corners of the border, creating circular or oval shapes depending on the
radius.
element {
 border-radius: 10px;
This will create rounded corners with a radius of 10px.
You can specify different radii for each corner:
element {
 border-radius: 10px 20px 30px 40px;
```

This applies:

- 10px radius on top-left corner
- 20px radius on top-right corner
- 30px radius on bottom-right corner
- 40px radius on bottom-left corner

f. border-top, border-right, border-bottom, border-left

```
These properties allow you to specify the border styles for individual sides of an element. element {
   border-top: 2px solid black;
   border-right: 3px dashed red;
}
This will apply:
```

- A **2px solid black** border on top.
- A **3px dashed red** border on the right.

2. CSS Font Properties

Fonts in CSS allow you to control the appearance of text. There are several properties for defining font family, size, weight, style, and more.

a. font-family

This property sets the font for an element. You can specify a list of fonts, with the last one being the fallback font.

```
element {
  font-family: 'Arial', sans-serif;
}
```

This will set the font to **Arial** (if available) and **sans-serif** as the fallback font.

b. font-size

This property controls the size of the text. It can be set in various units, such as pixels (px), ems (em), rems (rem), percentages, or points (pt).

```
element {
  font-size: 16px;
}
```

This will set the font size to **16px**.

You can use relative units like em or rem for better scalability:

- **em**: Relative to the font size of the element's parent.
- **rem**: Relative to the root element's font size (usually 16px by default).

```
Example with em: element {
  font-size: 1.5em; /* 1.5 times the size of the parent font */
}
```

c. font-weight

This property defines the thickness of the font. Common values include:

- **normal** (default),
- bold,
- bolder,
- lighter, or
- A numeric value ranging from **100 to 900** (where 400 is normal and 700 is bold).

```
element {
  font-weight: bold;
}
```

This will make the text **bold**.

d. font-style

This property controls whether the font is italicized or normal. element {
 font-style: italic;
}

This will make the text **italic**. Other values include normal (default) and oblique.

e. line-height

This property sets the amount of space between lines of text. It can help improve readability.

element {
 line-height: 1.5;
}

This will set the **line height** to 1.5 times the font size.

f. letter-spacing

This property adjusts the space between characters in the text.

element {
 letter-spacing: 2px;
}

This will add **2px of space** between characters.

g. text-transform

This property defines how the text is transformed. Common values are:

- **uppercase**: Converts text to uppercase.
- **lowercase**: Converts text to lowercase.
- **capitalize**: Capitalizes the first letter of each word.

```
element {
  text-transform: uppercase;
}
```

This will make the text **uppercase**.

h. text-align

This property defines the alignment of the text within its containing element. Possible values include:

- left
- center

- right
- justify

```
element {
  text-align: center;
}
```

This will **center** the text horizontally within the element.

i. font-variant

This property controls the use of small caps, which renders lowercase letters as smaller capital letters.

```
element {
  font-variant: small-caps;
}
```

This will make the text appear in **small caps**.

Combining Border and Font Properties in CSS

You can easily combine both border and font properties in your styles to design elements with distinct appearances.

Example 1: Styled Button

```
button {
  border: 3px solid #4CAF50;
  border-radius: 5px;
  font-size: 18px;
  font-weight: bold;
  font-family: Arial, sans-serif;
  padding: 10px 20px;
  background-color: white;
  color: #4CAF50;
}

button:hover {
  background-color: #4CAF50;
  color: white;
}
```

This will create a button with:

- 3px solid green border,
- rounded corners,
- bold and 18px text,
- Arial font, and
- **green text** that changes to white when hovered over.

Example 2: Card Element with Borders and Font Styling

```
.card {
  border: 2px solid #ccc;
```

```
border-radius: 10px;
padding: 20px;
font-family: 'Times New Roman', serif;
font-size: 16px;
line-height: 1.6;
}
.card h2 {
font-size: 24px;
text-align: center;
}
```

This creates a **card** with:

- 2px solid border,
- rounded corners, and
- **Times New Roman** font with a **16px size** and **1.6 line height** for text. The title (h2) will be **centered** and **24px** in size.

Summary

- **CSS Border Properties**: Control the **width**, **style**, **color**, and **radius** of borders. Common values include solid, dashed, dotted, and none.
- **CSS Font Properties**: Control the appearance of text. Important properties include font-family, font-size, font-weight, font-style, and line-height.
- **Combining**: You can combine border and font properties in a single rule to style elements in a cohesive way, such as buttons, cards, or headings.

These properties offer flexibility in creating visually appealing and well-structured designs.

CSS for Text and Tables

In CSS, you can use various properties to style text and tables. Below is an overview of how to style text and tables in CSS, including examples for different styling techniques.

1. CSS for Text

CSS provides many properties to manipulate how text is displayed, including font properties, alignment, spacing, decoration, transformation, and more.

a. Text Properties

text-align

This property specifies the horizontal alignment of text inside an element. Common values include:

- left: Aligns text to the left.
- center: Centers the text.
- right: Aligns text to the right.
- justify: Stretches the text to ensure both sides are aligned.

```
p {
 text-align: center;
This centers the text inside the  element.
font-family
Defines the font of the text. It can take specific fonts, and a fallback font family.
h1 {
 font-family: 'Arial', sans-serif;
This applies the Arial font to the <h1> element. If Arial is unavailable, it will use the default
sans-serif font.
font-size
Sets the size of the text. You can use various units like px, em, rem, %, or pt.
p {
 font-size: 16px;
This sets the font size of the paragraph text to 16px.
font-weight
Specifies the thickness of the font. Values can be normal, bold, lighter, or a numeric value (100
to 900).
h2 {
 font-weight: bold;
This makes the text in <h2> elements bold.
font-style
Defines the style of the text, such as italic or normal.
em {
 font-style: italic;
This makes the text inside <em> tags italicized.
line-height
Sets the height between lines of text. It's typically used for improving readability.
p {
 line-height: 1.6;
This sets the line height of text in the  element to 1.6 times the font size, providing more
spacing between lines.
text-transform
Controls the case of text. Common values are:
       uppercase: Converts all letters to uppercase.
     lowercase: Converts all letters to lowercase.
   • capitalize: Capitalizes the first letter of each word.
h1 {
```

text-transform: uppercase;

```
This makes the text inside <h1> elements uppercase.
letter-spacing
Adjusts the space between characters.
h2 {
 letter-spacing: 2px;
This adds 2px of space between each character in the <h2> text.
text-decoration
Controls the decoration of text. You can set it to:

    underline

     overline

    line-through

       none
a {
 text-decoration: none;
This removes any underline from <a> (link) elements.
text-shadow
Applies a shadow effect to the text. You can specify the shadow's horizontal offset, vertical
offset, blur radius, and color.
h3 {
 text-shadow: 2px 2px 4px rgba(0, 0, 0, 0.3);
This adds a shadow to the <h3> text with a 2px horizontal and vertical offset and a 4px blur.
b. Example of Text Styling
p {
 font-family: 'Times New Roman', serif;
 font-size: 18px;
 text-align: justify;
 line-height: 1.5;
 color: #333;
 letter-spacing: 0.5px;
 text-transform: capitalize;
This will style paragraphs with:
   • Times New Roman font,
     18px size,
   • justified alignment,
   • 1.5 line height,
   • dark gray color (#333),
```

- 0.5px letter-spacing,
- capitalized first letter of each word.

2. CSS for Tables

CSS offers several properties to style tables, including borders, spacing, alignment, and more. Below is an overview of how to work with tables.

a. Basic Table Structure in HTML

```
<thead>
Name
 Age
 Country
</thead>
John Doe
 25
 USA
Jane Smith
  30 
 Canada
```

b. CSS for Table Styling

border-collapse

This property controls whether the table's borders are collapsed into a single border or separate.

- **collapse**: Borders collapse into one.
- **separate**: Each border is independent.

```
table {
   border-collapse: collapse;
}
This will collapse all borders in the table, so they appear as a single line.
border
You can set the table's border and individual cell borders.
table, th, td {
   border: 1px solid black;
}
This applies a 1px solid black border to the table, of the (border), and of the land of
```

This applies a **1px solid black** border to the table, (header), and (cell) elements.

padding

```
Sets the space between the text and the border inside table cells.
th, td {
 padding: 10px;
This adds 10px padding inside the table header and cell elements, providing space around the
content.
text-align and vertical-align
   • text-align: Aligns the text horizontally in table cells.
       vertical-align: Aligns the text vertically in table cells.
th, td {
 text-align: left;
 vertical-align: middle;
This aligns the text to the left horizontally and to the middle vertically in both headers and cells.
background-color
Sets the background color of the table rows or cells.
th {
 background-color: #4CAF50;
 color: white;
This applies a green background and white text to table headers.
nth-child Selector for Styling Alternating Rows
You can use the nth-child pseudo-class to target and style alternating rows in the table, creating a
striped effect.
tr:nth-child(even) {
 background-color: #f2f2f2;
This applies a light gray background to even-numbered rows (), creating an alternating
color effect.
caption
This property styles the table caption (if present).
caption {
 font-size: 20px;
 font-weight: bold;
 text-align: center;
 margin-bottom: 10px;
This will style the table caption with 20px size, bold weight, and center alignment.
c. Complete Table Styling Example
table {
 width: 100%;
 border-collapse: collapse;
 margin: 20px 0;
```

```
th, td {
 border: 1px solid #ddd;
 padding: 12px;
 text-align: left;
 vertical-align: middle;
th {
 background-color: #4CAF50;
 color: white;
 font-weight: bold;
tr:nth-child(even) {
 background-color: #f2f2f2;
caption {
 font-size: 24px;
 font-weight: bold;
 text-align: center;
 margin-bottom: 10px;
This example will:
```

- Make the table span 100% of the available width,
- Collapse the borders,
- Add padding to cells,
- Apply a green background to headers and alternate row colors for even rows, and
- Add a **caption** with bold, centered text.

Summary

- **CSS for Text**: You can control text appearance using properties like font-family, font-size, text-align, line-height, letter-spacing, text-transform, and more to create visually appealing typography.
- **CSS for Tables**: CSS provides various properties to style tables, such as border, padding, text-align, vertical-align, and background-color. Additionally, nth-child can be used for styling alternating rows, and caption can style the table caption.

With these text and table styling techniques, you can create well-designed and readable content for your web pages.

Version Control

Git Basics

Git is a version control system used for tracking changes in code or any other collection of files. It's especially useful for collaborative projects, allowing multiple people to work on the same codebase without stepping on each other's toes. Here's a basic introduction to Git:

Key Concepts in Git

- 1. **Repository** (**Repo**): A Git repository is a collection of files and directories that Git is tracking. It can either be a local repository (on your computer) or a remote one (hosted on a server, like GitHub or GitLab).
- 2. **Commit**: A commit is a snapshot of changes made to the files in the repository. It records what changes were made and allows you to go back to a specific point in time. Each commit has a unique ID.
- 3. **Branch**: Branches allow you to work on different features or versions of your project independently. The default branch in Git is usually called main or master.
- 4. **Merge**: When you're done with a branch, you can merge it into another (usually the main branch) to integrate the changes.
- 5. **Clone**: Cloning is when you copy a repository from a remote server (like GitHub) to your local machine.
- 6. **Pull**: Pulling is the process of fetching changes from a remote repository and merging them into your local repository.
- 7. **Push**: Pushing is when you upload your local changes to a remote repository.
- 8. **Staging Area**: Before committing, changes are placed in the "staging area," where you decide what to commit. This allows you to commit only some changes if desired.

Basic Git Commands

Here are some essential Git commands to get started:

1. git init

- Initializes a new Git repository in your current directory.
- Example: git init

2. git clone <repository-url>

- Creates a local copy of a remote repository.
- Example: git clone https://github.com/username/repo.git

3. git status

- Shows the status of the repository, including changes that have been staged, committed, or are untracked.
- Example: git status

4. git add <file>

- Adds changes to the staging area.
- Example: git add index.html

5. git commit -m "<message>"

- Records changes in the repository with a commit message describing the changes.
- Example: git commit -m "Fix bug in header layout"

6. git log

- Shows the commit history for the repository.
- Example: git log

7. git diff

- Shows the differences between your working directory and the last commit.
- Example: git diff

8. git pull

- Fetches changes from the remote repository and merges them with your local repository.
- Example: git pull origin main

9. git push

- Pushes your local changes to the remote repository.
- Example: git push origin main

10. git branch

- Lists all branches in your repository.
- Example: git branch

11. git checkout

branch>

- Switches to a different branch.
- Example: git checkout feature-branch

12. git merge
 stranch>

- Merges the specified branch into your current branch.
- Example: git merge feature-branch

Common Workflows

- **Basic Workflow**: You work on a project, make changes, add them to the staging area, commit them, and then push them to the remote repository.
- **Branching Workflow**: Create a new branch for a feature or bug fix. After the work is done, merge it into the main branch.

• **Forking Workflow**: Common for open-source projects. You fork a repository, make changes on your fork, and then submit a pull request to merge them into the original project.

Example Git Workflow

- 1. Clone a repository: git clone https://github.com/username/project.git
- 2. Create a new branch: git checkout -b feature-branch
- 3. **Make changes** to the project (e.g., edit index.html).
- 4. Add the changes to the staging area: git add index.html
- 5. **Commit the changes**: git commit -m "Added a new feature"
- 6. **Push the changes** to the remote repository: git push origin feature-branch
- 7. **Create a Pull Request** (on GitHub/GitLab).
- 8. **Merge the Pull Request** into the main branch.

This is just a high-level overview of Git basics. There's a lot more to explore, including advanced topics like rebasing, conflict resolution, and Git hooks.

Git Branching and Merging

Git Branching and Merging

Branching and merging are fundamental concepts in Git that allow you to work on different parts of a project in isolation and then bring everything back together. Here's a deeper look at how branching and merging work in Git.

1. Git Branching

What is a Branch?

A branch in Git is essentially a pointer to one of the commits in your repository. It allows you to diverge from the main line of development (the main or master branch) and work on something independently without affecting the main project.

Branches are lightweight and inexpensive in Git, making it easy to experiment with different features or fixes.

Why Use Branches?

- To develop features or bug fixes independently from the main codebase.
- To collaborate with other developers without affecting the main branch.
- To experiment with different approaches without breaking the main code.

Creating a Branch

You can create a new branch using the following command:

git branch
 branch-name>

For example:

git branch feature-xyz

This creates a new branch called feature-xyz, but it doesn't switch to it. To switch to this branch, you need to check it out.

Switching Between Branches

To switch to an existing branch:

git checkout
 branch-name>

Example:

git checkout feature-xyz

Alternatively, you can combine creating and switching to a new branch in a single command:

git checkout -b
branch-name>

For example:

git checkout -b feature-xyz

Listing All Branches

To view a list of all branches:

git branch

The currently active branch will be highlighted with an asterisk (*).

2. Making Changes in a Branch

Once you're on a branch, you can make changes to your files, commit them, and work just like on the main branch. Your changes are isolated to the branch you're working on.

Example Workflow:

- 1. Create and switch to a new branch:
- 2. git checkout -b feature-xyz
- 3. Make changes to your files (e.g., edit index.html).
- 4. Stage the changes:
- 5. git add index.html
- 6. Commit the changes:
- 7. git commit -m "Add new feature XYZ"

3. Merging Branches

Once you've made changes on a branch (e.g., feature-xyz) and you're ready to bring those changes back into the main branch (e.g., main), you use **merging**.

Merging Branches

Merging combines the changes from one branch into another. Typically, you'll want to merge a feature branch into the main branch.

Steps for Merging:

- 1. Switch to the branch you want to merge into (typically main):
- 2. git checkout main
- 3. **Merge the branch** you want to integrate (e.g., feature-xyz) into main:
- 4. git merge feature-xyz
- 5. If there are no conflicts, Git will automatically merge the changes, and you'll see a message like:

6. Merge made by the 'recursive' strategy.

Handling Merge Conflicts

Sometimes, if two branches have conflicting changes (e.g., both branches modified the same line in a file), Git won't be able to automatically merge them. In this case, you'll need to **resolve the conflict manually**.

- Git will mark the conflicted file(s) with conflict markers (<<<<, ======, >>>>>).
- You must open the conflicted file, decide which changes to keep, and remove the conflict markers.
- After resolving the conflicts, stage the file:
- git add <file>
- Complete the merge by committing the changes:
- git commit -m "Resolve merge conflict"

Fast-Forward Merges

If the branch you're merging is directly ahead of the branch you're merging into (i.e., no diverging changes), Git will perform a **fast-forward** merge. This just moves the pointer of the branch forward to the latest commit of the feature branch.

4. Git Rebase (Alternative to Merging)

While merging is the standard way to bring changes from one branch into another, **rebasing** is an alternative. Rebase rewrites the history of your commits by applying your changes on top of the branch you are rebasing onto.

Rebase Workflow:

- 1. Switch to the branch you want to update (e.g., feature-xyz):
- 2. git checkout feature-xyz
- 3. Rebase your branch onto the latest version of main:
- 4. git rebase main

Why Rebase?

- It creates a cleaner, linear commit history.
- It avoids merge commits, making the history easier to follow.

However, **rebasing rewrites history**, so it should be avoided on public/shared branches.

5. Deleting Branches

Once you've merged your branch, you may want to delete it to keep the repository clean.

- Delete a local branch:
- git branch -d <branch-name>

Example:

git branch -d feature-xyz

If the branch hasn't been merged yet, Git will prevent the deletion. You can force the deletion with -D:

git branch -D feature-xyz

- Delete a remote branch:
- git push origin --delete

branch-name>

6. Example Workflow with Branching and Merging

Here's a typical workflow for creating a feature branch, making changes, and merging back:

- 1. Create and switch to a new feature branch:
- 2. git checkout -b feature-login
- 3. Make changes and commit:
 - o Modify files (e.g., login.html, login.js).
 - Stage changes:
 - o git add.
 - Commit changes:
 - o git commit -m "Add login page"
- 4. Switch back to the main branch:
- 5. git checkout main
- 6. Merge the feature-login branch into main:
- 7. git merge feature-login
- 8. Push changes to the remote repository:
- 9. git push origin main

7. Best Practices for Branching and Merging

- Use branches for features, bug fixes, or experiments: This keeps the main branch stable and clean.
- **Merge frequently**: If you work in a team, regularly pull the latest changes from the main branch and merge them into your feature branches to avoid conflicts.
- Write descriptive commit messages: Helps collaborators understand your changes.
- Use pull requests (PRs): When working with others, PRs provide a review mechanism before merging changes into the main branch.

Branching and merging are key to collaborative and efficient development with Git. By mastering these tools, you'll be able to manage features, bug fixes, and experiments without disrupting the stability of your project.

Working with Remote Repositories in Git

Remote repositories are Git repositories that are hosted on a server (like GitHub, GitLab, Bitbucket, etc.), enabling collaboration with others over the internet. When working with Git, you frequently interact with remote repositories to share your changes, collaborate with others, and retrieve updates.

Here's an overview of how to work with remote repositories in Git.

1. Cloning a Remote Repository

Cloning is the process of creating a local copy of a remote repository. This allows you to work with the project files locally, while still being able to push and pull changes to/from the remote.

Command:

git clone <repository-url>

Example:

git clone https://github.com/username/repository.git

This creates a local copy of the remote repository in a directory named after the repository.

2. Checking the Remote URL

After cloning a repository, you can check which remote repository your local repository is linked to. Git stores the URL of the remote repository so that it knows where to push and pull changes from.

Command:

git remote -v

This will display the remote repository URLs for fetch and push.

Example output:

origin https://github.com/username/repository.git (fetch)

origin https://github.com/username/repository.git (push)

- origin is the default name for the remote repository that you clone from.
- The URL can be HTTPS or SSH depending on how you configured your Git credentials.

3. Adding a Remote Repository

If you have an existing local repository and want to link it to a remote repository (for example, if you've created a new repository on GitHub), you can add a remote URL to your local repository.

Command:

git remote add <remote-name> <repository-url>

Example:

git remote add origin https://github.com/username/repository.git

Here, origin is the name of the remote repository (you can use any name, but origin is the default). The URL is the location of the remote repository on the server.

4. Fetching Changes from a Remote Repository

Fetching allows you to download the latest changes from the remote repository, but it doesn't

merge them with your local working files. It's useful when you want to check what others have committed before making any changes.

Command:

git fetch

This command downloads all the changes from the remote repository, including new branches and tags, but does not modify your local working directory. To integrate these changes, you need to use git merge or git rebase.

5. Pulling Changes from a Remote Repository

Pulling is essentially a combination of git fetch and git merge. It fetches changes from the remote repository and immediately merges them into your current branch.

Command:

git pull

By default, git pull will fetch changes from the default remote (origin) and merge them into your current branch. If you're working on a specific branch, make sure you're on that branch before pulling.

Example:

git pull origin main

This pulls changes from the main branch of the origin remote and merges them into your current branch.

6. Pushing Changes to a Remote Repository

After committing changes locally, you can push those changes to the remote repository so that others can access them.

Command:

git push <remote-name> <branch-name>

Example:

git push origin main

This pushes your local main branch to the origin remote. If the remote repository has new changes, Git may ask you to pull them first before pushing your changes.

- **First-time push**: If this is the first time you're pushing to a remote branch, you may need to set the upstream branch by using:
- git push --set-upstream origin
 branch-name>

7. Creating a New Branch and Pushing It to Remote

If you create a new branch locally and want to push it to the remote repository so others can work on it or you want to back it up, use the following commands:

- 1. Create and switch to a new branch:
- 2. git checkout -b new-feature
- 3. Push the branch to the remote repository:
- 4. git push origin new-feature

After pushing, you can create a Pull Request (PR) on platforms like GitHub to request that the

changes in new-feature be merged into the main branch.

8. Changing the Remote URL

If you need to change the URL of the remote repository (e.g., you've changed repositories or switched from HTTPS to SSH), you can modify the URL with:

Command:

git remote set-url <remote-name> <new-repository-url>

Example:

git remote set-url origin git@github.com:username/repository.git

This changes the origin remote to the new URL.

9. Removing a Remote Repository

If you no longer want to keep a connection to a remote repository, you can remove it with:

Command:

git remote remove <remote-name>

Example:

git remote remove origin

This removes the origin remote from your repository.

10. Viewing Remote Branches

To list all the branches available on the remote repository:

Command:

git branch -r

This shows all remote branches, like:

origin/main

origin/feature-xyz

11. Pushing Tags to a Remote Repository

Tags in Git are used to mark specific points in history (e.g., releases or milestones). You can push tags to a remote repository using:

Command:

git push origin <tag-name>

To push all tags:

git push -- tags

12. Synchronizing Your Local Repository with the Remote

To keep your local repository synchronized with the remote repository, it's good practice to regularly pull the latest changes (especially in collaborative environments) and push your own changes.

Here's a quick reminder of the flow:

- 1. **Pull** the latest changes:
- 2. git pull origin main
- 3. Make your changes, commit them:
- 4. git commit -m "Fix bug in login page"

- 5. **Push** your changes:
- 6. git push origin main

13. Example Workflow with Remote Repositories

- 1. Clone a remote repository:
- 2. git clone https://github.com/username/repository.git
- 3. Create a new branch and make changes:
- 4. git checkout -b new-feature
- 5. git add.
- 6. git commit -m "Add a new feature"
- 7. **Push the new branch** to the remote:
- 8. git push origin new-feature
- 9. **Pull the latest changes** from the remote (before starting work on the branch):
- 10. git pull origin main
- 11. Create a Pull Request on GitHub to merge the changes.

Best Practices for Working with Remote Repositories

- 1. **Sync regularly**: Pull often to keep your local branch up to date with the remote.
- 2. **Use feature branches**: Work on new features or bug fixes in separate branches.
- 3. **Use Pull Requests (PRs)**: For collaboration, submit PRs for review before merging into the main branch.
- 4. **Write meaningful commit messages**: Clear messages make it easier for you and others to understand changes.
- 5. **Avoid pushing large binary files**: Git is optimized for text-based files. For large assets, consider using Git LFS (Large File Storage).

By mastering these commands and workflows, you'll be well-equipped to manage your Git repository and collaborate effectively with others using remote repositories.

UNIT-II JavaScript and jQuery

JavaScript basics

JavaScript Basics

JavaScript is a powerful, high-level programming language primarily used for creating interactive effects within web browsers. It is one of the core technologies of the web, alongside HTML and CSS. Here's an introduction to the basic concepts of JavaScript.

1. What is JavaScript?

JavaScript is a **scripting language** that enables developers to create dynamic and interactive content for web pages. It's primarily used for:

- Manipulating HTML and CSS to update content, structure, and styles on a webpage.
- Handling events like user clicks, mouse movements, and keyboard inputs.
- Creating interactive features like form validation, animations, and data fetching.

2. Adding JavaScript to HTML

JavaScript can be embedded directly within an HTML file or included as an external file.

Inline JavaScript

```
You can add JavaScript code directly into the HTML using the <script> tag:
```

External JavaScript

For better organization, it's common to write JavaScript in separate .js files and link them to the HTML file:

</html>

In script.js, you can place your JavaScript code.

3. JavaScript Syntax Basics

Variables

Variables are used to store data values. JavaScript has three ways to declare variables:

- 1. var: The oldest method, but it's generally avoided due to scope issues.
- 2. **let**: Preferred for declaring variables that can be reassigned.
- 3. **const**: Used for declaring variables that should not be reassigned.

let age = 30; // A variable that can be reassigned const name = "John"; // A constant variable (cannot be reassigned)

Data Types

JavaScript has different data types, including:

- Primitive Types:
 - o String ("Hello")
 - o Number (25)
 - o Boolean (true, false)
 - o Null (null)
 - Undefined (undefined)
 - Symbol (new in ES6)
 - o BigInt (for large integers)
- Complex Types:
 - Object ({ name: "Alice", age: 25 })
 - \circ Array ([1, 2, 3])

Example:

```
let name = "Alice"; // String
let age = 25; // Number
let isActive = true; // Boolean
let user = { name: "Alice", age: 25 }; // Object
```

Operators

JavaScript supports many types of operators, including:

- **Arithmetic Operators**: +, -, *, /, %, ++, --
- Assignment Operators: =, +=, -=, *=, /=
- Comparison Operators: ==, ===, !=, !==, <, >, <=, >=
- Logical Operators: &&, ||, !

```
Example:
let a = 5;
let b = 10;
let result = a + b: // result is 15
4. Control Flow (Conditionals and Loops)
Conditional Statements (if-else)
You can use if, else if, and else statements to make decisions based on conditions.
let age = 18;
if (age >= 18) {
  console.log("You are an adult.");
  console.log("You are a minor.");
Switch Statement
The switch statement allows you to test a variable against multiple values.
let day = "Monday";
switch (day) {
  case "Monday":
     console.log("Start of the week.");
     break;
  case "Friday":
     console.log("End of the week.");
     break;
  default:
     console.log("Midweek.");
Loops (for, while)
       for loop: Used for iterating over a range of values or elements in an array.
       for (let i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
          console.log(i); // Prints numbers 0 to 4
      }
   • while loop: Runs as long as a condition is true.
   • let i = 0;
       while (i < 5) {
          console.log(i); // Prints numbers 0 to 4
         i++;
```

for...of loop: Iterates over elements in an array.

}

```
let arr = [1, 2, 3];
for (let num of arr) {
console.log(num); // Prints 1, 2, 3
}
```

5. Functions

A function is a block of reusable code designed to perform a particular task.

Function Declaration

```
You can define a function using the function keyword.
function greet(name) {
    return "Hello, " + name + "!";
}

console.log(greet("John")); // Output: Hello, John!

Arrow Functions (ES6)

Arrow functions provide a shorter syntax.
const greet = (name) => "Hello, " + name + "!";
console.log(greet("Jane")); // Output: Hello, Jane!
```

6. Arrays

Arrays are used to store multiple values in a single variable.

Creating an Array

```
let fruits = ["Apple", "Banana", "Cherry"];
```

Accessing Array Elements

console.log(fruits[0]); // "Apple"

Array Methods

- .push() adds an element to the end of the array.
- .pop() removes the last element from the array.
- .shift() removes the first element.
- unshift() adds an element to the beginning.

Example:

```
fruits.push("Orange"); // Adds "Orange" to the end console.log(fruits); // ["Apple", "Banana", "Cherry", "Orange"]
```

7. Objects

Objects are used to store key-value pairs. They are like containers for related data.

Creating an Object

```
let person = {
  name: "Alice",
  age: 25,
  greet: function() {
```

```
return "Hello, " + this.name;
}
```

Accessing Object Properties

You can access object properties using either dot notation or bracket notation. console.log(person.name); // "Alice" console.log(person["age"]); // 25

8. Events

JavaScript can interact with HTML elements via events. You can respond to actions like clicks, keypresses, or mouse movements.

Event Listener Example

```
<button onclick="alert('Button clicked!')">Click me</button>
Alternatively, you can add an event listener using JavaScript:
let button = document.querySelector("button");
button.addEventListener("click", function() {
    alert("Button clicked!");
});
```

9. DOM Manipulation

The **Document Object Model (DOM)** represents the structure of an HTML document. JavaScript allows you to interact with the DOM to change the content, structure, or style of a webpage.

Accessing Elements

```
You can use various methods to access elements:
```

```
let element = document.getElementById("myElement");
```

let elements = document.getElementsByClassName("myClass");

let elements = document.querySelectorAll("div"); // Selects all <div> tags

Modifying Content

You can modify the content of an element with JavaScript: document.getElementById("myElement").innerHTML = "New content!";

10. Error Handling (Try-Catch)

```
JavaScript allows you to handle errors gracefully using try and catch.

try {
    let result = 10 / 0; // Potential error
    console.log(result);
} catch (error) {
    console.log("Error occurred: " + error.message);
}
```

Conclusion

JavaScript is an essential part of modern web development, enabling dynamic behavior and interactive user experiences. With its rich set of features, such as variables, loops, functions, objects, and event handling, it offers powerful tools for building interactive websites and web applications.

This introduction covered the basics, but JavaScript has many more advanced concepts to explore, such as asynchronous programming (callbacks, promises, and async/await), working with APIs, and more.

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External JavaScript

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```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html>
<head>
    <title>External JavaScript Example</title>
</head>
<body>
    <h1>Welcome to JavaScript</h1>
    <script src="script.js"></script> <!-- External JS file -->
</body>
</html>
```

In script.js, we can place your JavaScript code.

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 - o Null (null)
 - Undefined (undefined)
 - o Symbol (new in ES6)
 - BigInt (for large integers)
- Complex Types:

```
Object ({ name: "Alice", age: 25 })Array ([1, 2, 3])
```

Example:

```
let name = "Alice"; // String
let age = 25; // Number
let isActive = true; // Boolean
let user = { name: "Alice", age: 25 }; // Object
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  console.log("You are a minor.");
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The switch statement allows you to test a variable against multiple values.
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switch (day) {
  case "Monday":
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     break;
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  default:
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     for (let i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
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   • while loop: Runs as long as a condition is true.
   • let i = 0;
     while (i < 5) {
          console.log(i); // Prints numbers 0 to 4
         i++;
```

• **for...of loop**: Iterates over elements in an array.

```
let arr = [1, 2, 3];
for (let num of arr) {
console.log(num); // Prints 1, 2, 3
}
```

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}

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Arrow functions provide a shorter syntax.
const greet = (name) => "Hello, " + name + "!";
console.log(greet("Jane")); // Output: Hello, Jane!
```

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- .push() adds an element to the end of the array.
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Example:

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```

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```

```
return "Hello, " + this.name;
}
```

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This introduction covered the basics, but JavaScript has many more advanced concepts to explore, such as asynchronous programming (callbacks, promises, and async/await), working with APIs, and more.

Functions in JavaScript

In JavaScript, a **function** is a block of code designed to perform a specific task or calculation. Functions are one of the core building blocks in JavaScript, allowing you to write reusable code and better organize your programs.

1. Function Declaration

A function can be defined using the function keyword followed by the function name, parentheses, and a block of code. You can pass **parameters** to the function, which act as placeholders for values you want to provide when calling the function.

Syntax:

```
function functionName(parameter1, parameter2) {
    // Code to be executed
}
Example:
function greet(name) {
    console.log("Hello, " + name + "!");
}
greet("Alice"); // Output: Hello, Alice!
In this example:
```

- greet is the name of the function.
- name is the parameter.
- The console.log inside the function prints the greeting when the function is called with an argument.

2. Function Expression

Functions in JavaScript can also be defined as expressions, meaning they can be assigned to variables. These are known as **function expressions**. A function expression can be anonymous or named.

Syntax:

```
const functionName = function(parameter1, parameter2) {
    // Code to be executed
};
Example:
const greet = function(name) {
    console.log("Hello, " + name + "!");
};
greet("Bob"); // Output: Hello, Bob!
```

The key difference between a function declaration and a function expression is that function

expressions are not hoisted (i.e., they cannot be called before their definition).

3. Arrow Functions (ES6)

Introduced in ECMAScript 6 (ES6), **arrow functions** provide a shorter syntax for writing functions. They are often used in situations where a concise function definition is required.

Syntax:

```
const functionName = (parameter1, parameter2) => {
    // Code to be executed
};
Example:
const greet = (name) => {
    console.log("Hello, " + name + "!");
};
greet("Charlie"); // Output: Hello, Charlie!
Arrow functions can also be written in a more concise form if they only contain a single expression:
const greet = name => console.log("Hello, " + name + "!");
```

Key Features of Arrow Functions:

- **Implicit return**: If the body has only one expression, the return value is automatically returned.
- **this binding**: Arrow functions do not have their own this context; they inherit this from the surrounding scope.

4. Function Parameters

Functions in JavaScript can accept **parameters**, which are values that you pass into the function when you call it. You can also use **default parameters** and **rest parameters**.

Default Parameters:

You can assign default values to function parameters, which are used when no argument is passed for those parameters.

```
function greet(name = "Guest") {
   console.log("Hello, " + name + "!");
}
greet();  // Output: Hello, Guest!
greet("Alice");  // Output: Hello, Alice!
In this example, if greet() is called without an argument, the default value "Guest" is used.
```

Rest Parameters:

The rest parameter syntax allows you to represent an indefinite number of arguments as an array. function sum(...numbers) {

```
let total = 0;
for (let num of numbers) {
   total += num;
}
return total;
```

```
}
```

```
console.log(sum(1, 2, 3, 4)); // Output: 10
```

In this example, the ...numbers collects all the arguments passed to the function into an array.

5. Return Statement

Functions in JavaScript can return a value using the return keyword. Once a return statement is executed, the function stops executing, and the specified value is returned.

Syntax:

```
function functionName() {
    return value;
}
Example:
function add(a, b) {
    return a + b;
}
let result = add(5, 3); // result is 8
console.log(result); // Output: 8
```

In this example, the add function returns the sum of a and b, which is assigned to the result variable.

6. Function Hoisting

In JavaScript, **hoisting** is a behavior where function declarations are moved to the top of their containing scope during the compilation phase. This means that you can call a function before its declaration if it's a **function declaration**, but **function expressions** are not hoisted.

Function Declaration Hoisting Example:

```
function greet(name) {
  console.log("Hello, " + name + "!");
}
```

greet("Alice"); // Output: Hello, Alice!

The above code works because the greet function is hoisted to the top.

Function Expression Hoisting Example:

```
greet("Bob"); // Error: greet is not a function
const greet = function(name) {
   console.log("Hello, " + name + "!");
};
```

In this case, calling the function before its assignment results in an error because the function expression is not hoisted.

7. Anonymous Functions

An **anonymous function** is a function without a name, often used as a function expression or passed as an argument to other functions.

Example:

```
setTimeout(function() {
   console.log("Hello after 2 seconds!");
}, 2000);
```

Here, an anonymous function is passed as an argument to setTimeout, which executes after a delay of 2000 milliseconds (2 seconds).

8. Callback Functions

A **callback function** is a function that is passed as an argument to another function and is executed after the completion of the main function. Callback functions are commonly used for handling asynchronous operations, such as reading files or making network requests.

Example:

```
function fetchData(callback) {
    setTimeout(() => {
        let data = { name: "Alice", age: 25 };
        callback(data); // Call the callback function with the data
    }, 2000);
}
function displayData(data) {
    console.log("Data received:", data);
}
```

fetchData(displayData); // The displayData function is called as a callback In this example, the fetchData function takes a callback (displayData) and calls it with the retrieved data once the simulated data-fetching operation is complete.

9. Closures

A **closure** is a function that "remembers" its lexical scope, even when the function is executed outside that scope. Closures allow functions to retain access to variables from their parent function.

Example:

```
function outer() {
    let counter = 0;

    return function inner() {
        counter++;
        console.log(counter);
    };
}

const counterFunc = outer();
counterFunc(); // Output: 1
counterFunc(); // Output: 2
```

In this example, the inner function retains access to the counter variable from its parent function outer, even after outer has finished executing.

10. Self-Invoking Functions (IIFE)

An **Immediately Invoked Function Expression (IIFE)** is a function that is executed as soon as it is defined. This is useful for creating private scopes.

Example:

```
(function() {
   console.log("I am an IIFE!");
})();
```

In this example, the function is defined and executed immediately, which is why the message is logged without needing to call the function explicitly.

Conclusion

Functions are a fundamental concept in JavaScript and are essential for building maintainable and reusable code. You can define functions in various ways, pass parameters, return values, and use advanced features such as closures and callbacks. Understanding how functions work is crucial to mastering JavaScript and web development.

form validation

Form Validation in JavaScript

Form validation is the process of ensuring that the user inputs data correctly before submitting the form. In JavaScript, form validation can be used to check if the user has filled out the required fields, entered valid data (such as email or phone number), or ensured that the form data matches specific criteria.

Types of Form Validation:

- 1. Client-side validation (using JavaScript, HTML5, and CSS).
- 2. **Server-side validation** (using server-side languages like PHP, Python, Node.js, etc.).

In this article, we will focus on **client-side validation using JavaScript**.

1. Basic HTML Form Example

<title>Form Validation</title>

</head>

Let's start with a simple HTML form that we want to validate.

```
<br/><body>
<h2>Registration Form</h2>
<form id="registrationForm">
<label for="name">Full Name:</label>
<input type="text" id="name" name="name"><br><br></pr>
```

```
<label for="email">Email:</label>
<input type="email" id="email" name="email"><br><br><br></pr>
```

Here, we have a form that collects a user's full name, email, password, and password confirmation.

2. JavaScript Form Validation

We'll use JavaScript to validate the form before submission. The common validation checks might include:

- Ensuring the **name** field is not empty.
- Ensuring the **email** is valid.
- Ensuring **password** and **confirm password** match.
- Ensuring the password meets certain criteria (like a minimum length).

```
Let's create the validation logic in the script.is file.
document.getElementById('registrationForm').addEventListener('submit', function(event) {
  // Prevent form submission to allow validation
  event.preventDefault();
  // Get form field values
  let name = document.getElementById('name').value;
  let email = document.getElementById('email').value;
  let password = document.getElementById('password').value;
  let confirmPassword = document.getElementById('confirmPassword').value;
  // Validate Name (should not be empty)
  if (name === "") {
     alert("Name is required.");
     return false; // Stop form submission
  }
  // Validate Email (check if it's a valid email format)
  let emailPattern = /^[a-zA-Z0-9. -]+@[a-zA-Z0-9.-]+\\.[a-zA-Z]{2,6}$/;
  if (!email.match(emailPattern)) {
     alert("Please enter a valid email address.");
    return false;
```

```
// Validate Password (minimum 6 characters)
if (password.length < 6) {
    alert("Password must be at least 6 characters long.");
    return false;
}

// Validate Password and Confirm Password Match
if (password !== confirmPassword) {
    alert("Passwords do not match.");
    return false;
}

// If all validations pass, allow form submission
alert("Form submitted successfully!");
return true;
});</pre>
```

Explanation of the Code:

- **Event Listener on Form Submission**: We use addEventListener to capture the form's submit event. When the form is submitted, the function is called to validate the inputs.
- **Prevent Default Submission**: We use event.preventDefault() to stop the form from submitting until all validation checks are passed.
- Field Validations:
 - o **Name**: Ensures the field is not empty.
 - **Email**: Uses a regular expression to check if the email is in a valid format (e.g., user@example.com).
 - o **Password**: Ensures the password is at least 6 characters long.
 - o **Confirm Password**: Checks if the password and the confirm password match.
- Alert Messages: If any validation fails, an alert is shown to the user with a message explaining the issue.

If the form passes all validation checks, it displays a success message, and the form can be submitted.

3. HTML5 Built-in Form Validation

In addition to custom JavaScript validation, HTML5 provides built-in form validation features. Some of the commonly used attributes are:

- **required**: Ensures the field is not empty.
- **type="email"**: Ensures the input is a valid email.
- **minlength**: Specifies the minimum number of characters for an input.

- pattern: Specifies a regular expression that the input must match.
- maxlength: Specifies the maximum number of characters for an input.

Example with HTML5 Validation:

```
<form id="registrationForm">
  <label for="name">Full Name:</label>
  <input type="text" id="name" name="name" required><br><br>
  <label for="email">Email:</label>
  <input type="email" id="email" name="email" required><br><br>
  <label for="password">Password:</label>
  <input type="password" id="password" name="password" minlength="6" required><br><br>
  <label for="confirmPassword">Confirm Password:</label>
  <input
              type="password"
                                     id="confirmPassword"
                                                                name="confirmPassword"
required><br><br>
  <input type="submit" value="Submit">
</form>
In this example:
```

- The required attribute ensures that the user must fill in the fields.

 - The type="email" ensures that the email field contains a valid email.
 - The minlength="6" ensures that the password is at least 6 characters long.

HTML5 form validation will automatically display a browser-generated message if the user does not meet the requirements (e.g., leaving a required field empty or entering an invalid email).

4. Customizing Error Messages

If you want to display custom error messages instead of the default browser error messages, you can do so with JavaScript.

Example of Customizing Error Messages:

document.getElementById('registrationForm').addEventListener('submit', function(event) {
 event.preventDefault();

```
let name = document.getElementById('name').value;
let email = document.getElementById('email').value;
let password = document.getElementById('password').value;
let confirmPassword = document.getElementById('confirmPassword').value;
// Validate Name
if (name === "") {
    alert("Please enter your name.");
    return false;
}
```

```
// Validate Email
  let emailPattern = /^[a-zA-Z0-9._-]+@[a-zA-Z0-9.-]+\\.[a-zA-Z]{2,6}$/;
  if (!email.match(emailPattern)) {
     alert("Please enter a valid email address."):
     return false;
  }
  // Validate Password Length
  if (password.length < 6) {
     alert("Password must be at least 6 characters long.");
     return false;
  }
  // Validate Password Confirmation
  if (password !== confirmPassword) {
     alert("Passwords do not match.");
     return false;
  }
  alert("Form submitted successfully!");
  return true;
});
In this version, we display specific custom error messages using alert().
```

5. Conclusion

Form validation is an important aspect of web development, and JavaScript allows us to easily perform both client-side and server-side validation. While HTML5 provides built-in validation features, custom JavaScript validation gives you more control over the error handling and user feedback.

By combining HTML5 features and JavaScript, you can ensure your forms are properly validated before data is submitted to the server, improving both user experience and data integrity.

OOPS Aspects of JavaScript

OOP (Object-Oriented Programming) Aspects of JavaScript

JavaScript is a multi-paradigm language, meaning it supports different programming styles, including procedural, functional, and object-oriented programming (OOP). Object-Oriented Programming (OOP) in JavaScript is built around **objects** and **classes**, allowing developers to structure code in a more organized and reusable manner.

In JavaScript, OOP concepts are implemented using **objects**, **classes**, and other associated principles such as **inheritance**, **encapsulation**, **polymorphism**, and **abstraction**.

1. Objects in JavaScript

In JavaScript, an **object** is a collection of key-value pairs. Objects are used to store related data and functions.

```
let person = {
```

```
firstName: "John",
lastName: "Doe",
age: 30,
greet: function() {
   console.log("Hello, " + this.firstName + " " + this.lastName);
};

person.greet(); // Output: Hello, John Doe
In this example:
```

- firstName, lastName, and age are properties of the object person.
- greet is a method (function) attached to the object.

2. Classes in JavaScript (ES6 and Later)

JavaScript introduced **classes** in ECMAScript 6 (ES6) as a way to define blueprints for objects in a more structured manner. Classes are syntactic sugar over JavaScript's existing prototype-based inheritance.

```
Basic Class Syntax:
```

```
class Person {
    // Constructor method to initialize the object
    constructor(firstName, lastName, age) {
        this.firstName = firstName;
        this.lastName = lastName;
        this.age = age;
    }

    // Method to greet
    greet() {
        console.log("Hello, " + this.firstName + " " + this.lastName);
    }
}

let person1 = new Person("John", "Doe", 30);
person1.greet(); // Output: Hello, John Doe
In this example:
```

- constructor is a special method used to initialize object properties when a new instance of the class is created.
- The greet method is added to the class and can be used by instances of the Person class.

3. Inheritance in JavaScript

Inheritance allows one class to inherit properties and methods from another. In JavaScript, classes can inherit from other classes using the extends keyword.

Example of Inheritance:

// Parent class (Base class)

```
class Animal {
  constructor(name) {
    this.name = name;
  speak() {
    console.log(this.name + " makes a sound");
  }
}
// Child class (Derived class)
class Dog extends Animal {
  constructor(name, breed) {
     super(name); // Call the parent class's constructor
    this.breed = breed:
  speak() {
    console.log(this.name + " barks");
}
let dog = new Dog("Max", "Bulldog");
dog.speak(); // Output: Max barks
In this example:
```

- The Dog class extends the Animal class and inherits its properties and methods.
- The speak method is overridden in the Dog class (this is called **method overriding**).
- **super()** is used to call the parent class's constructor.

4. Encapsulation in JavaScript

Encapsulation is the concept of bundling the data (properties) and methods that operate on that data into a single unit (class) and restricting access to certain components to prevent unauthorized access or modification.

Private and Public Properties/Methods:

In JavaScript, before ES2022, all object properties and methods were public. With ES2022, **private fields** and **methods** were introduced using the # symbol.

```
class Person {
    #age; // Private field

constructor(firstName, lastName, age) {
    this.firstName = firstName;
    this.lastName = lastName;
    this.#age = age; // Private property
```

```
}
  // Public method
  getAge() {
    return this.#age;
  // Private method
  #privateMethod() {
     console.log("This is a private method.");
  // Public method to access private method
  accessPrivateMethod() {
     this.#privateMethod();
}
let person1 = new Person("John", "Doe", 30);
console.log(person1.getAge()); // Output: 30
// person1.#privateMethod(); // SyntaxError: Private method '#privateMethod' is not accessible
outside class
person1.accessPrivateMethod(); // Output: This is a private method.
In this example:
```

- #age is a **private property**, which cannot be accessed directly outside the class.
- #privateMethod() is a **private method**.
- The public method getAge() is used to access the private #age property.

5. Polymorphism in JavaScript

Polymorphism is the ability to call the same method on different objects, and each object will respond in its own way. It allows objects to behave differently based on their class type.

```
class Animal {
    speak() {
        console.log("The animal makes a sound");
    }
}
class Dog extends Animal {
    speak() {
        console.log("The dog barks");
    }
}
```

```
class Cat extends Animal {
    speak() {
        console.log("The cat meows");
    }
}
let animal1 = new Animal();
let dog1 = new Dog();
let cat1 = new Cat();
animal1.speak(); // Output: The animal makes a sound dog1.speak(); // Output: The dog barks
cat1.speak(); // Output: The cat meows
In this example:
```

- The speak() method is defined in the parent Animal class but is overridden in the child classes Dog and Cat.
- When we call speak() on objects of Dog or Cat, they each provide their own specific implementation (this is **method overriding**).

6. Abstraction in JavaScript

Abstraction is the concept of hiding the complex implementation details and showing only the essential features. While JavaScript does not have built-in support for abstract classes like some other languages (e.g., Java or C#), abstraction can be achieved by using **interfaces** (through functions or classes) or **abstract methods** that child classes are required to implement.

Example of Abstraction Using Abstract Classes:

```
class Shape {
    // Abstract method (must be implemented in child classes)
    area() {
        throw "Area method must be implemented";
    }
}

class Circle extends Shape {
    constructor(radius) {
        super();
        this.radius = radius;
    }

    area() {
        return Math.PI * this.radius * this.radius;
    }
}
```

```
class Rectangle extends Shape {
   constructor(length, width) {
      super();
      this.length = length;
      this.width = width;
   }
   area() {
      return this.length * this.width;
   }
}
let circle = new Circle(5);
   console.log(circle.area()); // Output: 78.53981633974483

let rectangle = new Rectangle(4, 5);
   console.log(rectangle.area()); // Output: 20
In this example:
```

- The Shape class contains an abstract method area(), which must be implemented by any subclass (like Circle or Rectangle).
- This approach hides the implementation details of how the area is calculated and provides a common interface for all shapes.

Conclusion

JavaScript's implementation of **Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)** allows developers to write clean, modular, and reusable code. The main OOP concepts you can use in JavaScript are:

- **Objects**: Collections of properties and methods.
- Classes: Blueprints for creating objects, introduced in ES6.
- **Inheritance**: Mechanism for creating new classes based on existing ones.
- **Encapsulation**: Restricting access to certain object properties and methods.
- **Polymorphism**: Ability to call the same method on different objects, with each object responding in its own way.
- **Abstraction**: Hiding complex implementation details and exposing only necessary parts of the code.

By using these OOP principles, you can create more organized, maintainable, and flexible code in JavaScript.

jQuery Framework

jQuery is a fast, small, and feature-rich JavaScript library. It simplifies things like HTML document traversal and manipulation, event handling, animation, and Ajax interactions for rapid web development. jQuery is designed to make it easier to work with JavaScript and handle

common tasks across different browsers, offering cross-browser compatibility and simplifying JavaScript syntax.

Key Features of jQuery:

- **DOM Manipulation**: Easily manipulate HTML elements.
- Event Handling: Simplify event handling, like mouse clicks and keyboard input.
- AJAX: Make asynchronous requests to a server without reloading the page.
- **Animations and Effects**: Animate elements and apply effects.
- Cross-browser compatibility: ¡Query handles browser-specific issues automatically.

Installing jQuery

There are two main ways to add jOuery to your project:

1. **Using a CDN (Content Delivery Network)**: The fastest way to include jQuery in your project is by linking to a CDN like Google's or jQuery's official CDN.

Example:

<script src="https://code.jquery.com/jquery-3.6.0.min.js"></script>

2. **Downloading jQuery**: You can download the jQuery library from jQuery's official website.

Then, link to the local jQuery file in your HTML: <script src="path/to/jquery-3.6.0.min.js"></script>

Basic Syntax in jQuery

The syntax of jQuery is easy to understand. Here's the general syntax:

\$(selector).action();

Where:

- \$ is the jQuery function.
- selector is used to target HTML elements (like id, class, etc.).
- action() is the jQuery method you want to perform on the selected element (like .click(), .show(), .hide(), etc.).

1. DOM Manipulation with jQuery

Selecting Elements

You can use jQuery selectors to find and manipulate HTML elements, similar to CSS selectors.

- **By ID**:
- \$('#elementId') // Selects an element with the id "elementId"
- By Class:
- \$('.className') // Selects all elements with class "className"
- By Element Type:

- \$('div') // Selects all <div> elements
- Combining Selectors:
- \$('#elementId, .className') // Selects an element with ID "elementId" and all elements with class "className"

Manipulating HTML Content

- Changing Text:
- \$('#elementId').text("New Text");
- Changing HTML:
- \$('#elementId').html("New HTML Content");
- Changing an Attribute:
- \$('#elementId').attr("src", "new-image.jpg");
- Appending Content:
- \$('#elementId').append("Additional Content");
- Prepending Content:
- \$('#elementId').prepend("Prepended Content");
- Removing an Element:
- \$('#elementId').remove();

2. Event Handling in jQuery

¡Query simplifies working with events like clicks, key presses, and form submissions.

- Click Event:
- \$('#buttonId').click(function() {
- alert("Button clicked!");
- });
- **Hover Event** (Mouse Over and Out):
- \$('#elementId').hover(function() {
- \$(this).css("background-color", "yellow");
- }, function() {
- \$(this).css("background-color", "");
- });

- **Submit Event** (For Forms):
- \$('#formId').submit(function(event) {
- event.preventDefault(); // Prevents the default form submission
- alert("Form Submitted!");
- });
- Keyup and Keydown Events:
- \$('#inputField').keyup(function() {
- console.log("Key released: " + \$(this).val());
- });

3. Animation and Effects in jQuery

jQuery makes it easy to add animation and effects to elements, like showing/hiding, fading, and sliding.

- Hide and Show:
- \$('#elementId').hide(); // Hides the element
- \$('#elementId').show(); // Shows the element
- Toggle (Hide/Show):
- \$('#elementId').toggle(); // Toggles between hiding and showing the element
- Fade In and Fade Out:
- \$('#elementId').fadeIn(); // Fades in the element
- \$('#elementId').fadeOut(); // Fades out the element
- Slide Up and Slide Down:
- \$('#elementId').slideUp(); // Hides the element with a sliding effect
- \$('#elementId').slideDown(); // Shows the element with a sliding effect
- **Custom Animations**: You can animate CSS properties (like width, height, opacity) with .animate():
- \$('#elementId').animate({
- width: "200px",
- opacity: 0.5
- }, 1000); // Animate over 1 second (1000 ms)

4. AJAX with jQuery

jQuery simplifies making **AJAX** (Asynchronous JavaScript and XML) requests, which allow you to send and receive data from the server without refreshing the page.

```
• AJAX GET Request:
```

```
$.get('url-to-server', function(data) {
   console.log(data);
});
AJAX POST Request:
$.post('url-to-server', { name: 'John', age: 30 }, function(data) {
   console.log(data);
});
AJAX with $.ajax(): You can also use $.ajax() for more complex requests:
$.ajax({
   url: 'url-to-server',
   type: 'GET', // or 'POST'
   data: { name: 'John', age: 30 },
   success: function(response) {
     console.log(response);
   },
   error: function(error) {
     console.log(error);
   }
});
AJAX with JSON: jQuery makes it easy to work with JSON data:
$.getJSON('data.json', function(data) {
   console.log(data);
});
```

5. jQuery UI

In addition to the core jQuery library, jQuery UI provides additional features such as interaction

```
(drag, drop), effects, and more sophisticated UI components like accordions, datepickers, and sliders. To use jQuery UI, you need to include both the jQuery UI CSS and JS files.
<!-- jQuery UI CSS -->
-- jQuery UI JS -->
<!-- jQuery UI JS -->
<script src="https://code.jquery.com/ui/1.12.1/jquery-ui.min.js"></script>
Example of a draggable element:
$('#draggable').draggable(); // Makes an element with ID "draggable" draggable
```

Conclusion

- **jQuery** is a versatile and powerful JavaScript library that simplifies HTML document manipulation, event handling, animations, and AJAX requests.
- It is widely used in web development to ensure compatibility across different browsers and reduce the amount of code developers need to write.
- While jQuery has become less necessary with the rise of modern JavaScript frameworks like React, Angular, and Vue, it still remains a powerful tool for many developers, especially for simpler websites or projects that need fast, efficient DOM manipulation and cross-browser functionality.

jQuery events

jQuery Events

jQuery provides a simple and consistent way to handle events in web development. Events are actions that occur in the browser, like user interactions (clicking a button, moving the mouse, typing text), or other occurrences (page load, focus change). With jQuery, you can easily manage these events and define actions that should occur when they are triggered.

Common jQuery Event Methods

- 1. .click()
 - Triggered when an element is clicked.
 - Syntax: \$(selector).click(function)

Example:

```
$('#button').click(function() {
    alert('Button clicked!');
});
```

- 2. **.dblclick()**
 - Triggered when an element is double-clicked.
 - Syntax: \$(selector).dblclick(function)

```
$('#button').dblclick(function() {
   alert('Button double-clicked!');
});
```

3. **.hover()**

- Triggered when the mouse enters and leaves an element. It takes two functions: one for mouseenter and one for mouseleave.
- **Syntax**: \$(selector).hover(functionIn, functionOut)

Example:

```
$('#box').hover(
  function() { // Mouse enter
     $(this).css("background-color", "yellow");
  },
  function() { // Mouse leave
     $(this).css("background-color", "white");
  }
);
```

4. .focus() and .blur()

- o .focus() is triggered when an element gets focus (e.g., when a user clicks on an input field).
- o .blur() is triggered when an element loses focus.
- o **Syntax**: \$(selector).focus(function) or \$(selector).blur(function)

Example:

```
$('#inputField').focus(function() {
  $(this).css("border", "2px solid blue");
});
$('#inputField').blur(function() {
  $(this).css("border", "");
});
```

5. **keydown(), .keypress(), and .keyup()**

- o .keydown() is triggered when a key is pressed down.
- o .keypress() is triggered when a key is pressed and held.
- o .keyup() is triggered when a key is released.
- o **Syntax**: \$(selector).keydown(function), \$(selector).keypress(function), \$(selector).keyup(function)

```
$('#inputField').keydown(function(event) {
  console.log('Key pressed: ' + event.key);
});
   6. .change()
```

- o Triggered when the value of a form element (like <input>, <select>, or <textarea>) changes.
- Syntax: \$(selector).change(function)

Example:

```
$('#selectBox').change(function() {
   alert('Selection changed!');
});
```

7. **submit()**

- o Triggered when a form is submitted.
- Syntax: \$(selector).submit(function)

Example:

```
$('#form').submit(function(event) {
   event.preventDefault(); // Prevents default form submission
   alert('Form submitted!');
});
```

8. .keydown()

- o Triggered when a key is pressed down, commonly used for text inputs.
- o **Syntax**: \$(selector).keydown(function)

Example:

```
$('#inputField').keydown(function(event) {
  console.log("You pressed the " + event.key + " key.");
});
```

9. resize()

- o Triggered when the window or an element is resized.
- Syntax: \$(window).resize(function)

Example:

```
$(window).resize(function() {
  console.log('Window resized!');
});
```

10. **scroll()**

- Triggered when an element is scrolled.
- Syntax: \$(selector).scroll(function)

```
$(window).scroll(function() {
   console.log('Window scrolled!');
});
```

11. .mousedown() and mouseup()

- o .mousedown() is triggered when the mouse button is pressed down.
- o .mouseup() is triggered when the mouse button is released.
- o **Syntax**: \$(selector).mousedown(function) or \$(selector).mouseup(function)

Example:

```
$('#box').mousedown(function() {
   console.log('Mouse button pressed!');
});
$('#box').mouseup(function() {
   console.log('Mouse button released!');
});
```

Event Delegation with on()

In jQuery, the on() method is a more flexible and efficient way of handling events, especially when you need to delegate events to dynamically added elements.

Syntax:

\$(parentSelector).on(event, childSelector, function)

Where:

- parentSelector is the element that exists in the DOM.
- childSelector is the dynamically added child element.
- event is the event to bind to.
- function is the callback function to execute when the event occurs.

Example:

```
$('#parentDiv').on('click', '.childDiv', function() {
   alert('Child div clicked!');
});
```

In this example, .childDiv is a dynamically added element to #parentDiv. Instead of binding a click event directly to each .childDiv, we delegate the event to #parentDiv, which improves performance.

Event Object

When an event is triggered, jQuery provides an event object to the handler function that contains details about the event (e.g., which key was pressed, mouse position, etc.).

```
$('#button').click(function(event) {
  console.log('Event type: '+ event.type); // type of event (e.g., "click")
  console.log('Mouse position: (' + event.pageX + ', ' + event.pageY + ')');
});
```

Stopping Event Propagation and Preventing Default Behavior

- **stopPropagation**(): Stops the event from propagating (bubbling) up the DOM.
- **preventDefault**(): Prevents the default action associated with the event from being triggered.

Example:

```
$('#link').click(function(event) {
   event.preventDefault(); // Prevents the link from navigating
   event.stopPropagation(); // Prevents the event from bubbling up
   alert('Link click prevented!');
});
```

Conclusion

jQuery makes it much easier to handle events in JavaScript. Whether you're dealing with user actions like clicks, keyboard input, or form submissions, jQuery provides a concise and cross-browser-compatible syntax to manage these events.

Common jQuery Event Methods:

- .click(), .dblclick(), .hover()
- .focus(), .blur()
- .keydown(), .keypress()
- .submit(), .change()
- .resize(), .scroll()
- .on() for event delegation

You can use these methods to build dynamic, interactive web pages by binding and managing events efficiently.

AJAX for data exchange with server

AJAX for Data Exchange with Server in ¡Querv

AJAX (Asynchronous JavaScript and XML) allows you to send and retrieve data from a server asynchronously, without refreshing the entire web page. This enables you to update parts of a web page dynamically, improving user experience by reducing the need to reload the page. In jQuery, AJAX operations are simplified and can be performed with just a few lines of code.

Why Use AJAX?

- **Asynchronous**: AJAX allows data to be sent and received in the background without interrupting the user experience.
- **Efficient**: Reduces the need for full-page reloads, speeding up interactions.
- **Cross-browser support**: jQuery handles browser-specific issues, ensuring consistent behavior across browsers.

AJAX Methods in jQuery

¡Query provides several methods for handling AJAX requests. The most common methods are:

- 1. **\$.ajax()**
- 2. **\$.get()**
- 3. **\$.post()**
- 4. **\$.getJSON()**

1. \$.ajax() Method

The \$.ajax() method is the most flexible and powerful method to make AJAX requests. It allows you to configure a variety of options like request type (GET or POST), data type, success and error handling, etc.

Syntax:

```
$.ajax({
  url: 'your-server-url', // URL to send the request to
  type: 'GET',
                     // or 'POST', 'PUT', etc.
  data: { key1: value1, key2: value2 }, // Data to send to the server (optional)
                       // The type of data you're expecting to receive from the server
  dataType: 'ison',
  success: function(response) {
     console.log('Success:', response); // Handle success response
  },
  error: function(xhr, status, error) {
     console.log('Error:', error); // Handle errors
  }
});
Example: Sending a GET request to fetch data from the server
```

```
$.ajax({
  url: 'data.php',
                    // Server URL
  type: 'GET',
                     // Request type
  dataType: 'json', // Expected data type (JSON)
  success: function(data) {
     console.log(data); // Process the data received from the server
  },
  error: function(xhr, status, error) {
     console.log('Request failed:', error); // Handle the error
});
```

2. \$.get() Method

The \$.get() method is a shorthand for making GET requests. It is a simpler way to retrieve data from the server.

Syntax:

\$.get(url, data, callback, dataType);

• url: The URL to which the request is sent.

- data: Data to be sent to the server (optional).
- callback: A function to be executed when the request is successful.
- dataType: Expected data type (optional, like 'json', 'xml').

Example: Using \$.get() to fetch data

```
$.get('data.php', { id: 123 }, function(response) {
   console.log(response); // Process the server response
});
```

3. \$.post() Method

The \$.post() method is a shorthand for making POST requests. It is used when sending data to the server, usually when submitting form data.

Syntax:

\$.post(url, data, callback, dataType);

- url: The URL to which the request is sent.
- data: Data to be sent to the server (optional).
- callback: A function to be executed when the request is successful.
- dataType: Expected data type (optional).

Example: Using \$.post() to send data to the server

```
$.post('submit.php', { name: 'John', age: 30 }, function(response) {
   console.log(response); // Process the server response
});
```

4. \$.getJSON() Method

The \$.getJSON() method is a shorthand for making GET requests that expect the server to respond with JSON data.

Syntax:

\$.getJSON(url, data, callback);

- url: The URL to which the request is sent.
- data: Data to be sent to the server (optional).
- callback: A function to be executed when the request is successful, passing the JSON data as the parameter.

Example: Using \$.getJSON() to fetch JSON data

```
$.getJSON('data.json', function(data) {
  console.log(data); // Handle the JSON data received from the server
});
```

AJAX with JSON

When sending or receiving JSON data, you can easily handle it in jQuery by using the dataType property or using \$.getJSON().

Sending JSON data:

```
To send data in JSON format, convert the object into a JSON string using JSON.stringify()
before sending it.
$.ajax({
  url: 'server.php',
  type: 'POST',
  contentType: 'application/json', // Specify that we're sending JSON data
  data: JSON.stringify({ name: 'Alice', age: 25 }),
  dataType: 'json', // Expected response data type
  success: function(response) {
     console.log('Server response:', response);
  error: function(xhr, status, error) {
     console.log('Error:', error);
  }
});
Receiving JSON data:
¡Query automatically parses JSON if you specify dataType: 'json' in the AJAX request.
$.ajax({
  url: 'data.json',
  type: 'GET',
  dataType: 'json', // Expecting a JSON response
  success: function(data) {
     console.log(data); // Process the JSON data
  error: function(xhr, status, error) {
     console.log('Error:', error);
  }
});
```

AJAX Callbacks and Error Handling

Success Callback:

The success callback function is executed when the request completes successfully.

Error Callback:

The error callback function is triggered if the request fails (for example, if the server is down, or the request is malformed).

Complete Callback:

The complete callback function runs after either the success or error callback has been called, regardless of the outcome.

```
$.ajax({
    url: 'data.php',
    type: 'GET',
    success: function(data) {
        console.log ('Data received:', data);
    },
    error: function(xhr, status, error) {
```

```
console.log('Request failed:', error);
},
complete: function(xhr, status) {
   console.log('Request completed');
}
});
```

AJAX Loading Indicators

When making AJAX requests, it's common to show a loading spinner or indicator to let users know that something is happening in the background. You can do this by showing a loading animation before the AJAX request and hiding it after the request is complete.

Example:

```
$('#loading').show(); // Show loading indicator
```

```
$.ajax({
    url: 'data.php',
    type: 'GET',
    success: function(data) {
        $('#loading').hide(); // Hide loading indicator when request completes
        console.log(data);
    },
    error: function(xhr, status, error) {
        $('#loading').hide(); // Hide loading indicator on error
        console.log('Error:', error);
    }
});
```

AJAX with Form Data

You can send form data using AJAX, either as plain data or serialized into a query string format.

Example: Using AJAX with Form Data

\$('#form').submit(function(event) {

```
event.preventDefault(); // Prevent the form from submitting normally
var formData = $(this).serialize(); // Serialize form data

$.ajax({
    url: 'submit.php',
    type: 'POST',
    data: formData,
    success: function(response) {
        console.log('Form submitted successfully:', response);
    },
    error: function(xhr, status, error) {
        console.log('Form submission failed:', error);
    }
});
```

Conclusion

AJAX allows you to send and receive data from the server without reloading the page, enabling dynamic updates to web pages. jQuery provides several methods, like \$.ajax(), \$.get(), \$.post(), and \$.getJSON(), to make AJAX requests easily. Handling AJAX in jQuery is simple and effective for updating parts of a page dynamically, improving the overall user experience.

Key Concepts:

- Asynchronous requests without reloading the page.
- **AJAX Methods**: \$.ajax(), \$.get(), \$.post(), \$.getJSON().
- Error Handling: Using success, error, and complete callbacks.
- Form Handling: Sending form data with AJAX.

JSON data format

JSON (JavaScript Object Notation) Data Format

JSON (JavaScript Object Notation) is a lightweight data interchange format that is easy for humans to read and write, and easy for machines to parse and generate. It is commonly used for transmitting data between a server and a web application or between different services.

JSON is language-independent but uses conventions that are familiar to programmers in various programming languages, including JavaScript. It is widely used because of its simplicity and ease of use, particularly in APIs, configuration files, and data storage.

Structure of JSON

JSON data consists of two primary structures:

- 1. Objects
- 2. Arrays

1. JSON Objects

A JSON object is an unordered collection of key/value pairs. It is written as a set of curly braces {} with the key/value pairs inside. Each key is a string, followed by a colon:, and then the value can be a string, number, array, object, boolean, or null.

Syntax of an Object:

```
{
    "key1": "value1",
    "key2": "value2",
    "key3": "value3"
```

- **Key/Name**: Always a string (enclosed in double quotes "").
- Value: Can be a string, number, array, object, boolean (true or false), or null.

Example of a JSON Object:

```
{
"name": "John",
```

```
"age": 30,
"isStudent": false,
"address": {
  "street": "123 Main St",
  "city": "Anytown",
  "zip": "12345"
  }

• "name", "age", "isStudent", and "address" are keys.
```

• "John", 30, false, and the nested object are values.

2. JSON Arrays

A JSON array is an ordered collection of values, enclosed in square brackets []. The values in an array can be of any data type: string, number, object, array, boolean, or null.

Syntax of an Array:

```
["value1", "value2", "value3"]

Example of a JSON Array:

{
  "fruits": ["apple", "banana", "cherry"],
  "numbers": [1, 2, 3, 4, 5],
  "isActive": [true, false]
}
```

- "fruits" and "numbers" are keys.
- The values are arrays, where each element is a different type (string, number, boolean).

3. Data Types in JSON

JSON supports the following data types:

- 1. **String**: A sequence of characters enclosed in double quotes.
 - o Example: "Hello, World!"
- 2. **Number**: An integer or floating-point number (without quotes).
 - o Example: 42, 3.14
- 3. **Object**: A collection of key/value pairs enclosed in curly braces {}.
 - o Example: {"key": "value"}
- 4. **Array**: An ordered list of values enclosed in square brackets [].
 - o Example: [1, 2, 3, 4]
- 5. **Boolean**: Represents a true or false value.
 - o Example: true, false

- 6. **Null**: Represents a null value.
 - o Example: null

```
JSON Example with Multiple Data Types
```

```
{
  "user": {
    "name": "Alice",
    "age": 25,
    "isAdmin": true,
    "address": {
        "street": "456 Elm St",
        "city": "Somewhere",
        "zip": "67890"
    },
    "friends": ["Bob", "Charlie", "David"],
    "preferences": null
  }
}
```

- "user" is an object containing:
 - o "name": String
 - o "age": Number
 - o "isAdmin": Boolean
 - o "address": Nested object
 - o "friends": Array of strings
 - o "preferences": Null

Important Points to Remember

- 1. **Keys must be strings**: In JSON, the key names are always enclosed in double quotes ("").
- 2. **Values can be of different types**: Values can be strings, numbers, objects, arrays, boolean, or null.
- 3. **No comments allowed**: JSON does not support comments (unlike JavaScript or other formats). If you want to add comments, they must be in the form of key/value pairs that are not used by the application.
- 4. **Data is always represented as text**: Even though you might store numbers or boolean values, they are all represented as text when transmitted or stored in JSON.

How JSON is Used in Web Development

- **APIs**: JSON is the most common format used for transmitting data between servers and clients in web applications via APIs.
- Configuration Files: Many applications (e.g., Node.js) use JSON for configuration settings (e.g., package.json in Node.js).
- **Data Storage**: Some databases (e.g., MongoDB) use JSON-like formats (BSON, a binary version of JSON) for storing data.
- **Interchange of Data**: JSON is often used for data exchange between different systems (e.g., between a web front-end and back-end server).

JSON Parsing and Stringifying in JavaScript

- **Parsing**: Converts a JSON string into a JavaScript object.
- const jsonString = '{"name": "Alice", "age": 25}';
- const jsonObject = JSON.parse(jsonString);
- console.log(jsonObject.name); // Output: Alice
- **Stringifying**: Converts a JavaScript object into a JSON string.
- const jsonObject = { "name": "Alice", "age": 25 };
- const jsonString = JSON.stringify(jsonObject);
- console.log(jsonString); // Output: {"name":"Alice","age":25}

Conclusion

JSON is a simple and widely-used format for exchanging data. Its syntax is easy to understand and use, especially in web development, where it plays a key role in APIs, configuration files, and data storage. Understanding the structure and types of JSON will help you effectively work with JSON in JavaScript, web applications, and other systems.

UNIT-III

Angular:

Importance of Angular js

AngularJS was a JavaScript framework that helped developers create dynamic web apps. It was created by Google developers to make it easier to write web apps. Some benefits of AngularJS include:

- Code reduction: AngularJS uses data binding and dependency injection to reduce the amount of code needed.
- **HTML templates**: AngularJS uses HTML as the template language, which can be used to develop responsive web apps.
- MVC support: AngularJS enforces the model-view-controller (MVC) structure.
- **Real-time testing**: AngularJS supports both end-to-end and unit testing.
- **Single-page applications**: AngularJS can be used to develop single-page applications (SPAs), which are cross-platform compatible and offer a great user experience.
- **Plug-and-play feature**: AngularJS allows developers to add existing components to newly developed web apps.

Understanding Angular:

a) AngularJS is a JavaScript framework that can be added to a web page with a script tag.

Syntax:

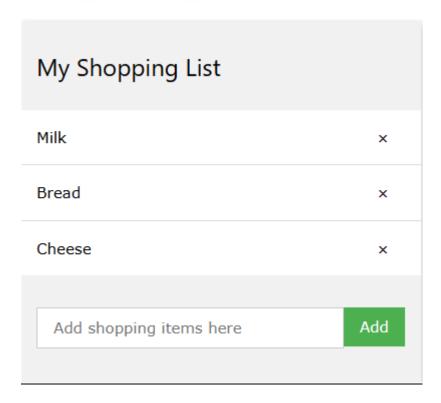
<script src="https://ajax.googleapis.com/ajax/libs/angularjs/1.6.9/angular.min.js"></script>

- b) AngularJS extends HTML with "ng-directives".
 - → The **ng-app** directive tells AngularJS that the <div> element is the "owner" of an AngularJS **application**.
 - → The **ng-model** directive binds the value of the input field to the application variable **name**.
 - → The **ng-bind** directive binds the content of the element to the application variable **name**.

c) "AngularJS directives" are HTML attributes with an **ng** prefix. The **ng-init** directive initializes AngularJS application variables.

Example:

<u>Creating a Basic Angular Application – Shopping List:</u>



Step 1: Getting Started

- → Start by making an application called myShoppingList, and add a controller named myCtrl to it.
- → The controller adds an array named products to the current \$scope.
- → In the HTML, we use the ng-repeat directive to display a list using the items in the array.

Step 2: Adding Items

- → In the HTML, add a text field, and bind it to the application with the ng-model directive.
- → In the controller, make a function named addItem, and use the value of the addMe input field to add an item to the products array.
- → Add a button, and give it an ng-click directive that will run the addItem function when the button is clicked.

Code:

```
var app = angular.module("myShoppingList", []);
app.controller("myCtrl", function($scope)
{
    $scope.products =["Milk", "Bread", "Cheese"];
    $scope.addItem = function ()
{
    $scope.products.push($scope.addMe);
}
});
</script>
<div ng-app="myShoppingList" ng-controller="myCtrl">
</script>
</sc
```

```
        ng-repeat="x in products">{{x}}

<input ng-model="addMe">
<button ng-click="addItem()">Add</button>
</div>
```

Angular Components:

Components are the main building blocks for Angular applications which consists of

- An HTML template that declares what renders on the page.
- A TypeScript class that defines behaviour.
- A CSS selector that defines how the component is used in a template.
- Optionally, CSS styles applied to the template.

Creating a component using the Angular CLI:

- 1. From a terminal window, navigate to the directory containing your application.
- 2. Run the ng generate component <component-name> command, where <component-name> is the name of your new component.
- 3. This creates the following attributes.
 - → A directory named after the component
 - → A component file, <component-name>.component.ts
 - → A template file, <component-name>.component.html
 - → A CSS file, <component-name>.component.css
 - → A testing specification file, <component-name>.component.spec.ts

Expressions:

AngularJS binds data to HTML using **Expressions**. They can be written inside double braces: {{ expression }} or inside a directive: ng-bind="expression". They can contain literals, operators, and variables.

Example: <!DOCTYPE html>

<html>

```
<script src="https://ajax.googleapis.com/ajax/libs/angularjs/1.6.9/angular.min.js"></script>
<body>
<div ng-app="">
My first expression: {{ 5 + 5 }}
</div>
</body>
</html>
Output:
Without the ng-app directive, HTML will display the expression as it is, without solving it.
My first expression: {{ 5 + 5 }}
```

Data Binding:

Data binding in AngularJS is the synchronization between the model and the view. AngularJS applications usually have a data model, which is a collection of data available for the application.

I) HTML View:

The HTML container where the AngularJS application is displayed, is called the view. The view has access to the model, and there are several ways of displaying model data in the view. The "ngbind directive" is used to bind the innerHTML of the element to the specified model property.

II) Two Way Binding:

When data in the *model* changes, the *view* reflects the change, and when data in the *view* changes, the *model* is updated as well. This happens immediately and automatically, which makes sure that the model and the view is updated at all times.

```
{
    $scope.firstname = "John";
    $scope.lastname = "Doe";
});
</script>

Output:

Name: John
```

John

Change the name inside the input field, and the model data will change automatically, and therefore also the header will change its value.

Built-in Directives:

These are classes that include additional behaviour to elements in your angular applications.

Directive Types	Details
Components	Used with a template. This type of directive is the most common directive type.
Attribute directives	Change the appearance or behavior of an element, component, or another directive.
Structural directives	Change the DOM layout by adding and removing DOM elements.

i) Built-in attribute directives:

Common directives	Details
NgClass	Adds and removes a set of CSS classes.
NgStyle	Adds and removes a set of HTML styles.
NgModel	Adds two-way data binding to an HTML form element.

ii) Built-in Structural directives:

Common built-in structural directives	Details
NgIf	Conditionally creates or disposes of subviews from the template.
NgFor	Repeat a node for each item in a list.
NgSwitch	A set of directives that switch among alternative views.

Custom Directives:

Custom directives are used in AngularJS to extend the functionality of HTML. they are defined using "directive" function. A custom directive simply replaces the element for which it is activated. AngularJS application during bootstrap finds the matching elements and do one time activity using its compile() method of the custom directive then process the element using link() method of the custom directive based on the scope of the directive. AngularJS provides support to create custom directives for following type of elements.

- **Element directives** Directive activates when a matching element is encountered.
- **Attribute** Directive activates when a matching attribute is encountered.
- **CSS** Directive activates when a matching css style is encountered.
- **Comment** Directive activates when a matching comment is encountered.

```
<script>
        var mainApp = angular.module("mainApp", []);
       mainApp.directive('student', function() {
       var directive = { };
       directive.restrict = 'E';
       directive.template = "Student: <b>{{student.name}}</b>,
        Roll No: <b>{{student.rollno}}</b>";
        directive.scope = {
        student: "=name"
       directive.compile = function(element, attributes) {
       element.css("border", "1px solid #ccccc");
       var linkFunction = function($scope, element, attributes) {
       element.html("Student: <b>"+$scope.student.name +"</b>,
       Roll No: <b>"+$scope.student.rollno+"</b><br/>");
       element.css("background-color", "#ff00ff");
         }
        return linkFunction;
        }
       return directive;
       });
       mainApp.controller('StudentController', function($scope) {
       scope.Mahesh = \{\};
       $scope.Mahesh.name = "Mahesh Parashar";
       scope.Mahesh.rollno = 1;
       scope.Piyush = {};
       $scope.Piyush.name = "Piyush Parashar";
       scope.Piyush.rollno = 2;
     });
   </script>
 </body>
</html>
```

Output:

AngularJS Sample Application

Student: Mahesh Parashar, Roll No: 1

Student: Piyush Parashar, Roll No: 2

<u>Implementing angular services in web applications:</u>

In AngularJS, a service is a function, or object, that is available for, and limited to, your AngularJS application. AngularJS has about 30 built-in services. Some of them are as follows:

i) \$location:

Has methods which return information about the location of the current web page.

Example:

```
var app=angular.module('myApp',[]);
app.controller('customersCtrl', function($scope, $location)
{
$scope.myUrl =$location.absUrl();
});
```

ii) \$http service:

```
var app=angular.module('myApp',[]);
app.controller('myCtrl', function($scope,$http){
    $http.get("welcome.htm").then(function (response){
    $scope.myWelcome = response.data;
    });
});
```