

concepts

http

HTTP & the Web

TCSS 460 – Client/Server Programming

Every time you visit a web page, submit a form, or scroll through a social media feed, your browser and a server are having a conversation in HTTP. This reading breaks down that conversation – the protocol itself, the structure of its messages, and the design decisions that shaped the modern web. By the end, you will be able to read raw HTTP traffic and understand exactly what is happening between client and server.

1 What is HTTP?

HTTP – Hypertext Transfer Protocol – is the application-layer protocol that powers the World Wide Web. It defines how clients (usually browsers) request resources from servers and how servers respond.

Three properties define HTTP and distinguish it from other communication protocols:

1. **Text-based.** HTTP messages are human-readable text, not binary data. You can literally read a raw HTTP request and understand what it says. This was a deliberate design choice by Tim Berners-Lee to keep the protocol simple and debuggable.
2. **Stateless.** Each request-response pair is completely independent. The server does not remember anything about previous requests. If you send two requests one second apart, the server treats the second one as if it has never seen you before.
3. **Request-response.** Communication always follows the same pattern: the client sends a request, the server sends back a response. The server never initiates contact unprompted.

Imagine a restaurant where the entire staff has amnesia. Every time you walk in, nobody recognizes you. You cannot say "I'll have my usual" – you have to give your full order, show your ID to prove you are old enough for a drink, and pay from scratch. That is HTTP. Every request is a fresh visit to the amnesia restaurant. The server does not remember your last order, your name, or anything about you.

Of course, real restaurants *do* remember regulars – and real web applications need to remember users too. The workaround is giving you a **loyalty card** (in HTTP terms, a *token*) that encodes who you are. You flash the card on every visit, and the staff can look you up. We will cover tokens and authentication in Week 5.

1.1 A Brief History

Tim Berners-Lee designed HTTP in 1989 while working at CERN, alongside HTML and URLs, as the three pillars of the World Wide Web (Berners-Lee, 1989). The original version – HTTP/0.9 – was absurdly simple: the entire protocol was a single command (`GET /path`), and the server responded with an HTML document. No headers, no status codes, no metadata. The whole spec could fit on a napkin. Berners-Lee deliberately chose simplicity over power, betting that a protocol anyone could understand would spread faster than a sophisticated one – and he was right.

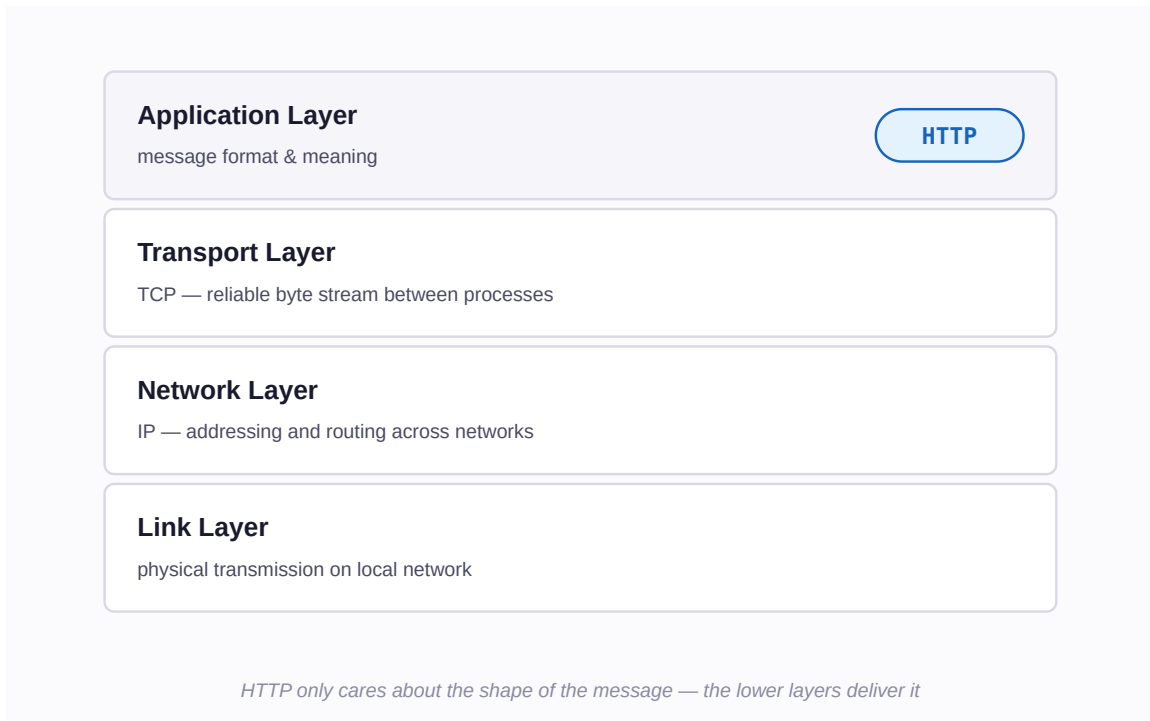
HTTP has evolved significantly since then, but each version built on the same core request-response model.

Version	Year	Key Changes
HTTP/0.9	1991	One-line protocol. GET only, no headers, HTML responses only (Berners-Lee, 1991)
HTTP/1.0	1996	Added headers, status codes, POST method, content types. Each request required a new TCP connection (RFC 1945)
HTTP/1.1	1997	Persistent connections (keep-alive), chunked transfer, Host header (virtual hosting), caching improvements (RFC 2616)
HTTP/2	2015	Binary framing, multiplexing (multiple requests over one connection), header compression, server push (RFC 7540)
HTTP/3	2022	Runs over QUIC (UDP-based) instead of TCP. Faster connection setup, better performance on lossy networks (RFC 9114)

For this course, we focus on **HTTP/1.1 semantics** – the methods, headers, and status codes you will use every day. These semantics are the same across HTTP/2 and HTTP/3; only the transport mechanism changes. Understanding HTTP/1.1 means you understand all of them at the application level.

1.2 Where HTTP Fits

If you read the Networking Fundamentals reading, you know that HTTP sits at the **application layer** of the TCP/IP stack. It relies on TCP (or QUIC in HTTP/3) for reliable delivery, which in turn relies on IP for routing.



HTTP does not care how packets get from point A to point B. It only cares about the format and meaning of the messages themselves.

2 Anatomy of an HTTP Request

When your browser navigates to a URL, it constructs an HTTP request message and sends it to the server. That message has a precise structure.

2.1 The Raw Request

Here is what an actual HTTP request looks like on the wire — plain text, line by line:

```
GET /api/movies/550 HTTP/1.1
Host: api.example.com
```

```
Accept: application/json
User-Agent: Mozilla/5.0
```

That is it. Four lines of text. Let's break it down.

2.2 The Request Line

The first line is the **request line** and contains three pieces of information:

```
METHOD PATH HTTP-VERSION
GET /api/movies/550 HTTP/1.1
```

Component	Purpose	Example
Method	What action to perform	GET
Path	Which resource to act on	/api/movies/550
HTTP Version	Which version of the protocol	HTTP/1.1

The Java analogy: a method call like `movieService.getMovie(550)` maps directly to `GET /api/movies/550`. The method name is the HTTP method, the object and method are the path, and the argument is embedded in the URL.

2.3 Request Headers

After the request line come **headers** — key-value pairs that provide metadata about the request. Each header is on its own line, formatted as `Name: Value`.

```
Host: api.example.com
Accept: application/json
User-Agent: Mozilla/5.0
Authorization: Bearer eyJhbGciOiJIUzI1NiJ9...
Content-Type: application/json
```

Headers tell the server things like:

- **Where** the request is going (`Host`)
- **What format** the client wants back (`Accept`)
- **Who** is making the request (`User-Agent` , `Authorization`)
- **What format** the request body is in (`Content-Type`)

You can think of headers as the metadata envelope around a letter. The letter itself is the body, but the envelope tells the postal service where it is going and where it came from.

2.4 Request Body

Some requests include a **body** – the actual data being sent to the server. GET requests typically have no body. POST, PUT, and PATCH requests usually do.

A blank line separates headers from the body:

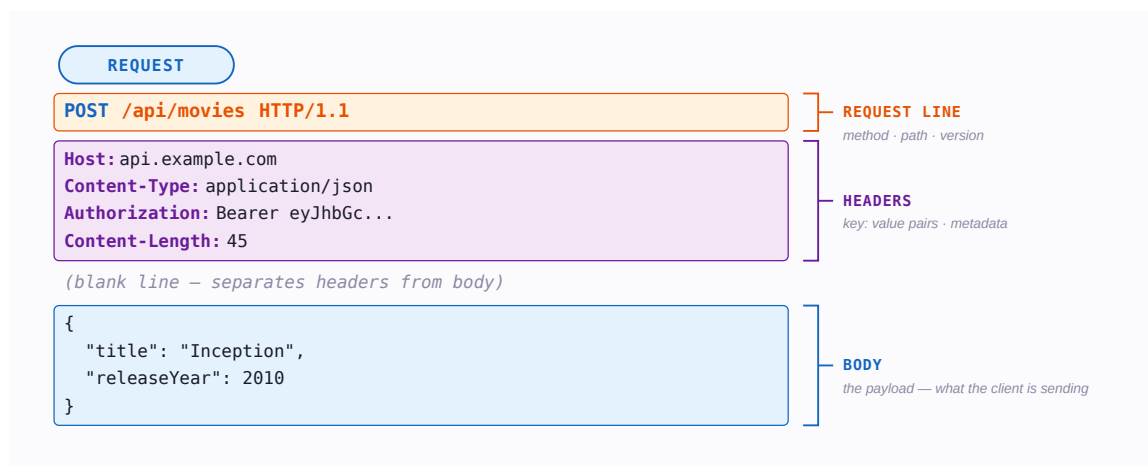
```
POST /api/movies HTTP/1.1
Host: api.example.com
Content-Type: application/json
Content-Length: 45

{"title": "Inception", "releaseYear": 2010}
```

The blank line after `Content-Length: 45` is not optional – it is how HTTP knows where headers end and the body begins.

2.5 Putting It All Together

Every HTTP request follows this structure:



3 Anatomy of an HTTP Response

The server receives the request, processes it, and sends back a response. Responses follow a structure that mirrors requests.

3.1 The Raw Response

```
HTTP/1.1 200 OK
Content-Type: application/json
Content-Length: 82
Date: Mon, 31 Mar 2026 18:00:00 GMT

{"id": 550, "title": "Fight Club", "releaseYear": 1999, "rating": 8.4}
```

3.2 The Status Line

The first line of the response is the **status line**:

```
HTTP-VERSION  STATUS-CODE  REASON-PHRASE
HTTP/1.1      200             OK
```

Component	Purpose	Example
HTTP Version	Protocol version	HTTP/1.1
Status Code	Numeric result code	200
Reason Phrase	Human-readable explanation	OK

The status code is the most important part. It tells the client immediately whether the request succeeded, failed, or requires further action. We will cover status codes in detail in Section 5.

3.3 Response Headers

Response headers follow the same `Name: Value` format as request headers, but provide information about the response:

```
Content-Type: application/json
Content-Length: 82
Date: Mon, 31 Mar 2026 18:00:00 GMT
Cache-Control: max-age=3600
```

3.4 Content-Type: What Is the Server Sending Back?

The `Content-Type` header is critically important — it tells the client how to interpret the body. Without it, the client is looking at a stream of bytes with no idea what they mean.

Content-Type	Meaning	Example
<code>application/json</code>	JSON data	API responses
<code>text/html</code>	HTML document	Web pages
<code>text/plain</code>	Plain text	Simple text responses
<code>text/css</code>	CSS stylesheet	Stylesheets
<code>image/png</code>	PNG image	Images
<code>application/octet-stream</code>	Raw binary data	File downloads

In this course, nearly every API response will use `application/json`. When you build a front-end, the server will also respond with `text/html`.

3.5 Response Body

Like requests, the body comes after a blank line. For a JSON API, the body is a JSON object or array:

```
{
  "id": 550,
  "title": "Fight Club",
  "releaseYear": 1999,
  "rating": 8.4
}
```

JSON is Not a JavaScript Object

Notice that every key is wrapped in double quotes: `"id"`, `"title"`, `"releaseYear"`. This is **JSON** (JavaScript Object Notation) — a strict data interchange format. In a JavaScript object literal, you can write bare keys like `{ id: 550 }`, but JSON requires `{ "id": 550 }`. When your API sends and receives data, it is always JSON with quoted keys.

Not all responses have a body. A `204 No Content` response, for example, intentionally returns no body — it confirms the action succeeded but has nothing to send back.

Putting every piece of a response together:



4 HTTP Methods

HTTP defines a set of **methods** (sometimes called "verbs") that indicate the desired action on a resource. You will use five of them constantly.

4.1 The Five Methods You Need

Method	Purpose	Has Body?	Example
GET	Retrieve a resource	No	GET /api/movies/550
POST	Create a new resource	Yes	POST /api/movies
PUT	Replace an entire resource	Yes	PUT /api/movies/550
PATCH	Partially update a resource	Yes	PATCH /api/movies/550
DELETE	Remove a resource	Rarely	DELETE /api/movies/550

Imagine a `HashMap<Integer, Movie>` that already contains movie 550:

- `GET /api/movies/550` is like `map.get(550)` — retrieves the movie

- `POST /api/movies` is like `map.put(nextId++, newMovie)` — adds a new entry
- `PUT /api/movies/550` is like `map.put(550, entirelyNewMovie)` — replaces the whole object
- `PATCH /api/movies/550` is like `map.get(550).setRating(8.5)` — updates specific fields
- `DELETE /api/movies/550` is like `map.remove(550)` — removes the entry

4.2 Safe vs. Unsafe

A method is **safe** if it does not modify server state. Calling it one time or one hundred times produces no side effects on the server.

Safe	Unsafe
GET	POST, PUT, PATCH, DELETE

GET is safe — retrieving a movie listing should never create, modify, or delete anything. POST is unsafe — submitting a new review changes the database.

Why does this matter? Browsers and caches treat safe methods differently. A browser will freely retry a failed GET request, but it will prompt you before resubmitting a POST form ("Are you sure you want to resubmit?"). Search engine crawlers only follow GET links — if your delete endpoint used GET, a crawler could accidentally delete your data.

4.3 Idempotent vs. Non-Idempotent

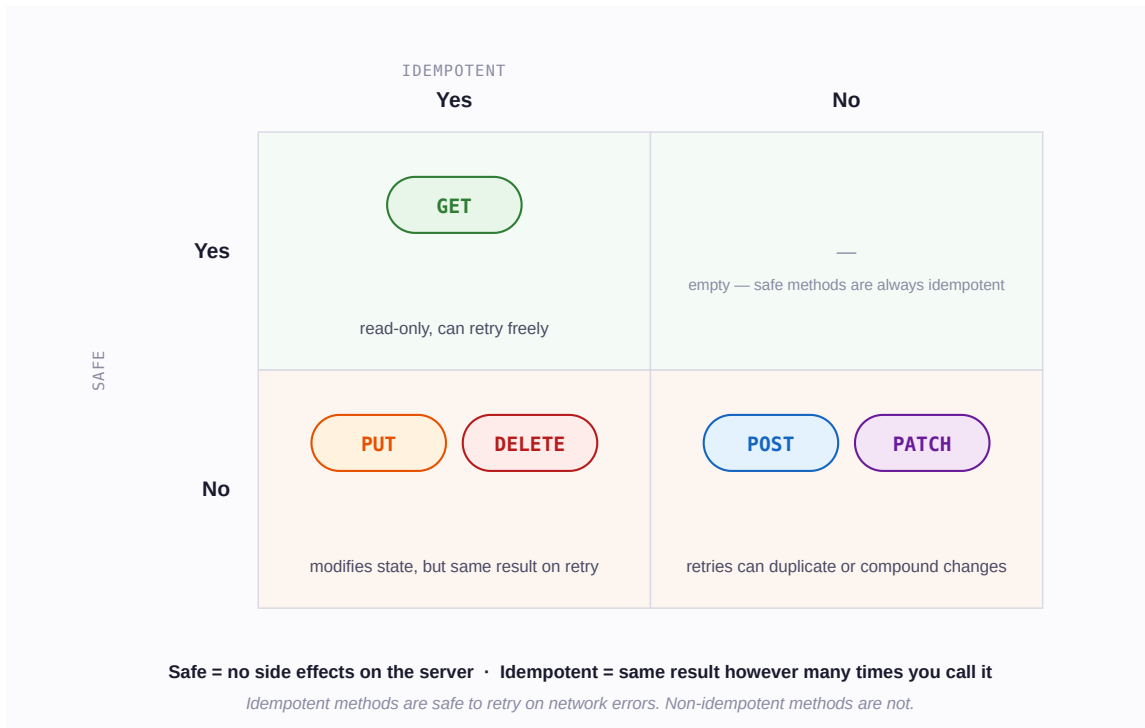
A method is **idempotent** (pronounced *eye-dem-POH-tent*) if calling it multiple times produces the same result as calling it once. The server state after N identical calls is the same as after one call.

Idempotent	Not Idempotent
GET, PUT, DELETE	POST, PATCH

- `DELETE /api/movies/550` — the first call deletes the movie. The second call finds nothing to delete. Either way, the movie is gone. Same end state.
- `PUT /api/movies/550` with a complete movie object — whether you send it once or five times, the movie looks the same afterward.
- `POST /api/movies` — each call creates a **new** movie. Five calls create five movies. Not idempotent.

Idempotency matters for reliability. If a network glitch means the client is not sure whether a PUT request went through, it can safely retry. Retrying a POST could create duplicate records.

The two properties combine into a 2x2 matrix that places every HTTP method:



PATCH: It Depends

PATCH is technically non-idempotent because the specification allows operations like "increment the view count by 1" — repeated calls would keep incrementing. In practice, most PATCH requests set specific field values (e.g., `{"rating": 8.5}`) and behave idempotently. The RFC classifies it as non-idempotent to cover the general case (RFC 5789).

4.4 Mapping to CRUD

Most applications do four things with data: **create** new records, **read** existing ones, **update** them, and **delete** them. Developers abbreviate these four operations as **CRUD** — Create, Read, Update, Delete. You will hear this term constantly in web development.

HTTP methods map directly to CRUD operations:

CRUD Operation	HTTP Method	SQL Equivalent	Example
Create	POST	INSERT	Add a new movie
Read	GET	SELECT	Retrieve a movie
Update	PUT / PATCH	UPDATE	Change a movie's rating
Delete	DELETE	DELETE	Remove a movie

This mapping is not a formal specification – it is a widely-adopted convention. You will see it everywhere in REST API design, and we will follow it in this course. When someone says "build a CRUD API for movies," they mean: create endpoints that let clients create, read, update, and delete movies using the corresponding HTTP methods.

5 Status Codes

Every HTTP response includes a three-digit status code that tells the client what happened. Status codes are grouped into five categories by their first digit.

5.1 The Five Categories

Range	Category	Meaning
1xx	Informational	Request received, still processing
2xx	Success	Request succeeded
3xx	Redirection	Client needs to take additional action
4xx	Client Error	The request was invalid
5xx	Server Error	The server failed to process a valid request

The most useful heuristic: **2xx = you did it right, 4xx = you did something wrong, 5xx = the server broke.**

5.2 The Ones You Will See Daily

You do not need to memorize all 60+ status codes. Here are the ones you will encounter in nearly every project:

5.2.1 Success (2xx)

Code	Name	When to Use
200	OK	Request succeeded. The standard success response.
201	Created	A new resource was created (typically after POST).
204	No Content	Success, but nothing to return (typically after DELETE).

5.2.2 Redirection (3xx)

Code	Name	When to Use
301	Moved Permanently	Resource has a new permanent URL.
304	Not Modified	Cached version is still valid – no need to re-download.

You will not use 3xx codes directly in your API very often, but your browser handles them automatically behind the scenes.

5.2.3 Client Error (4xx)

Code	Name	When to Use
400	Bad Request	The request body or parameters are malformed or invalid.
401	Unauthorized	Authentication required – the client did not provide valid credentials.
403	Forbidden	Authenticated, but not authorized. You know who they are, but they cannot do this.

Code	Name	When to Use
404	Not Found	The requested resource does not exist.
409	Conflict	The request conflicts with current state (e.g., duplicate email).

The distinction between **401** and **403** trips up many developers:

- **401**: "I don't know who you are. Please log in." (Missing or invalid token.)
- **403**: "I know who you are, but you can't do that." (Valid token, insufficient permissions.)

5.2.4 Server Error (5xx)

Code	Name	When to Use
500	Internal Server Error	Something unexpected went wrong on the server.
502	Bad Gateway	The server got an invalid response from an upstream server.
503	Service Unavailable	The server is temporarily overloaded or under maintenance.

If your API returns a 500, it means you have a bug. A 500 in production should always trigger investigation.

You Will See 500s During Development

Every developer sees 500 errors while building an API. It is normal. Here are the most common causes you will encounter in this course:

- **Bad SQL or Prisma query** – a typo in a query, referencing a column that does not exist, or a constraint violation the code did not anticipate
- **Unhandled null/undefined** – trying to access a property on something that does not exist (e.g., `user.name` when `user` is `null`)
- **Async handler crash** – an `await` call that rejects and is not caught, crashing the route handler
- **Missing environment variable** – the code reads `process.env.DATABASE_URL` but the `.env` file is missing or incomplete

When you see a 500, **check your server's terminal output**. The error message and stack trace are printed there, not in the browser or Postman. The server logs are always your first stop.

5.3 Choosing the Right Status Code

When you build an API, choosing the right status code is a form of communication. A well-chosen status code tells the client exactly what happened without needing to parse the response body. A lazy approach – returning 200 for everything and putting error details in the body – forces every client to add custom error-parsing logic.

```
Request: GET /api/movies/99999
Response: 404 Not Found

vs.

Request: GET /api/movies/99999
Response: 200 OK
        {"error": true, "message": "Movie not found"}
```

The first approach lets any HTTP client (browser, library, tool) detect the error automatically. The second looks like a success to every generic tool.

6 Headers You Should Know

HTTP defines dozens of standard headers. You will work with a handful of them regularly.

6.1 Content-Type

Specifies the media type of the request or response body.

```
Content-Type: application/json
```

When your API client sends JSON in a POST request, it must set `Content-Type: application/json` so the server knows how to parse the body. Forgetting this header is one of the most common debugging headaches for beginners – the server receives the body but treats it as plain text instead of parsing it as JSON.

6.2 Accept

Tells the server what response format the client prefers.

```
Accept: application/json
```

This is the client saying "I want JSON back, please." A well-built API checks this header and can return different formats (JSON, XML, HTML) based on what the client requests. This mechanism is called **content negotiation**.

6.3 Authorization

Carries authentication credentials – usually a token.

```
Authorization: Bearer eyJhbGciOiJIUzI1NiIsInR5cCI6IkpXVCJ9...
```

The `Bearer` scheme means "here is a token that proves who I am." We will cover tokens and authentication in detail during Week 5. For now, know that this is how clients prove their identity on every request (remember – HTTP is stateless, so the server does not remember you between requests).

6.4 CORS Headers

CORS – Cross-Origin Resource Sharing – is a browser security mechanism that restricts which websites can make requests to your API.

When a front-end at `https://myapp.com` tries to call an API at `https://api.example.com`, the browser blocks the request by default. The API must explicitly opt in by sending CORS headers:

```
Access-Control-Allow-Origin: https://myapp.com
Access-Control-Allow-Methods: GET, POST, PUT, DELETE
Access-Control-Allow-Headers: Content-Type, Authorization
```

Header	Purpose
<code>Access-Control-Allow-Origin</code>	Which origins (domains) can call this API
<code>Access-Control-Allow-Methods</code>	Which HTTP methods are allowed
<code>Access-Control-Allow-Headers</code>	Which request headers are allowed

CORS errors are the single most common frustration for students building their first full-stack application. The error shows up in the browser console, not in the server logs, which makes it confusing. The fix is always on the server side – the server must send the appropriate CORS headers.

CORS is a Browser Feature

CORS is enforced by **browsers only**. Tools like Postman, Thunder Client, and `curl` do not enforce CORS at all. This means your API can work perfectly in Postman and break immediately when called from a web page. If your browser console shows a CORS error, check your server configuration – the browser is doing its job correctly.

7 Statelessness and What It Means

HTTP's most important design property is also its most counterintuitive: **every request is independent**. The server does not remember anything about previous requests from the same client.

7.1 What Stateless Really Means

Consider this sequence of requests:

```
Request 1: POST /api/auth/login (username, password)
Response 1: 200 OK (here's your token)
```

```
Request 2: GET /api/movies/favorites
Response 2: ???
```

In a **stateful** protocol, the server would remember that you just logged in and let you access your favorites. In HTTP, Request 2 has no connection to Request 1. Unless Request 2 includes proof of authentication (like a token in the `Authorization` header), the server has no idea who is asking.

This is a stark contrast to how objects work in Java. When you call methods on an object, the object retains its internal state between calls:

```
// Java: stateful object
ShoppingCart cart = new ShoppingCart();
cart.addItem("Movie A"); // cart remembers this
cart.addItem("Movie B"); // cart still has Movie A
cart.checkout();         // cart knows both items
```

HTTP does not work like this. Each request is like calling a static method with no shared instance variable – all context must be passed explicitly every time.

7.2 Why Statelessness?

Statelessness is not a limitation – it is a deliberate architectural decision with real benefits:

1. **Scalability.** Any server can handle any request. There is no need to route a user to the same server every time, because no server remembers them anyway. This allows load balancers to distribute traffic freely.
2. **Reliability.** If a server crashes, another can take over seamlessly. No session data is lost because no session data exists on the server.
3. **Simplicity.** Servers do not need to manage per-user state, eliminating an entire category of bugs related to session synchronization.

7.3 Working Around Statelessness

Of course, real applications need state. Users need to stay logged in. Shopping carts need to persist. Two mechanisms bridge the gap:

Tokens (the approach we use in this course):

1. Client authenticates once (sends username/password).
2. Server returns a signed **token** – a string that encodes the user's identity and permissions.
3. Client sends that token with every subsequent request in the `Authorization` header.

4. Server validates the token to identify the user – it does not "remember" them; it **re-identifies** them each time.

Server-side sessions (the traditional approach):

1. Client authenticates once.
2. Server creates a **session** – a data structure stored in server memory or a database, keyed by a random session ID.
3. Server sends the session ID back as a **cookie**.
4. Client automatically sends the cookie with every subsequent request.
5. Server looks up the session ID to find the user's state.

Both approaches work around HTTP's statelessness. Tokens push the state to the client (the token carries identity information). Sessions push the state to the server (the server stores session data). In this course, we use tokens (specifically JWTs) because they align better with modern API architecture.

8 URLs, Paths, and Query Strings

Every HTTP request targets a specific **URL** – Uniform Resource Locator. Understanding URL structure is essential for building and consuming APIs.

8.1 Anatomy of a URL

<https://api.example.com:443/api/movies/550?format=brief&lang=en#details>

Labels below the URL: **scheme** (https), **host** (api.example.com), **port** (443), **path** (/api/movies/550), **query string** (?format=brief&lang=en), **fragment** (#details)

Every URL has the same skeleton — the browser parses these pieces to decide who to talk to and what to ask for.
Port is often implied by the scheme (https → 443, http → 80) and omitted.

Component	Purpose	Example
Scheme	Protocol to use	https

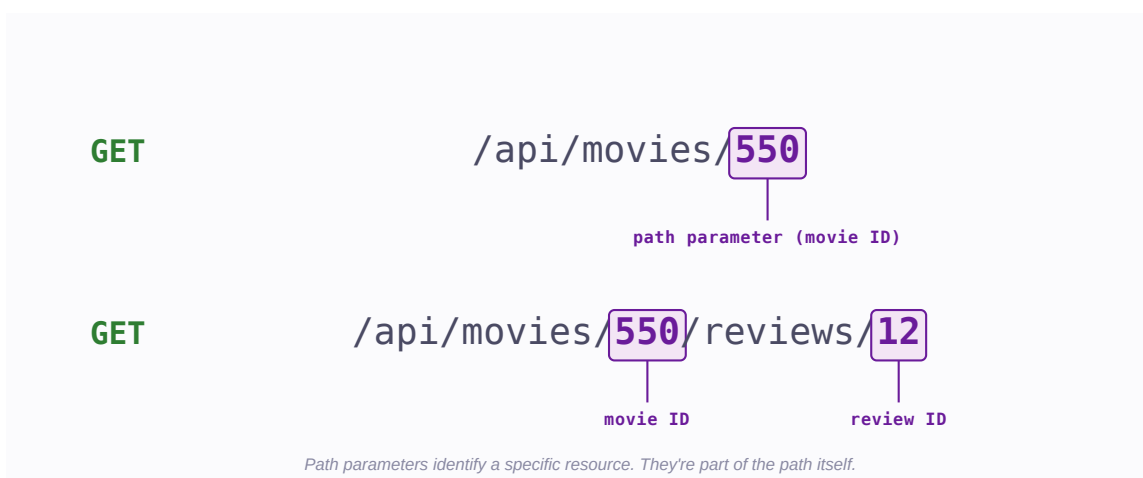
Component	Purpose	Example
Host	Server to connect to	<code>api.example.com</code>
Port	Network port (optional – defaults to 443 for HTTPS, 80 for HTTP)	<code>443</code>
Path	Which resource on the server	<code>/api/movies/550</code>
Query String	Additional parameters	<code>?format=brief&lang=en</code>
Fragment	Client-side anchor (never sent to the server)	<code>#details</code>

Fragments Stay Local

The fragment (`#details`) is handled entirely by the browser. It is never sent to the server. This is important to know because it means the server never sees fragment identifiers – they are purely a client-side navigation mechanism.

8.2 Path Parameters

Path parameters are embedded directly in the URL path. They identify a specific resource:



In API design, path parameters typically represent **resource identifiers** – "which specific thing?" The URL `/api/movies/550` means "the movie with ID 550."

8.3 Query Strings

Query strings come after the `?` and contain key-value pairs separated by `&`:

```
GET /api/movies?genre=action&year=2024&page=2
```

filter filter pagination

query string parameters

Query parameters modify *how* a resource is returned — filters, sort order, pagination.
Starts with `?`, pairs joined by `&`.

Query strings are used for **filtering, sorting, pagination, and options** — they modify how a collection is returned without changing which resource you are accessing. The URL `/api/movies?genre=action` means "the movies collection, filtered by genre."

8.4 Path Parameters vs. Query Strings

A common question: when do you put data in the path versus the query string?

Use Case	Approach	Example
Identifying a specific resource	Path parameter	<code>/api/movies/550</code>
Filtering a collection	Query string	<code>/api/movies?genre=action</code>
Sorting results	Query string	<code>/api/movies?sort=rating</code>
Pagination	Query string	<code>/api/movies?page=2&limit=20</code>
Required identifier	Path parameter	<code>/api/users/42/reviews</code>
Optional modifier	Query string	<code>/api/users/42/reviews? sort=newest</code>

The general rule: **path parameters identify, query strings modify**. The path tells you *what* you are looking at; the query string tells you *how* you want to look at it.

Another way to think about it: a path parameter identifies **exactly one** resource – you either get it or you get a 404. A query string filters a collection and can return **zero, one, or many** results. `/api/movies/550` always means one specific movie. `/api/movies?genre=action` might return 200 movies, 3 movies, or none at all.

9 Summary

Concept	Key Point
HTTP	A text-based, stateless, request-response protocol that powers the web
Request structure	Request line (method, path, version) + headers + optional body
Response structure	Status line (version, code, reason) + headers + optional body
Methods	GET (read), POST (create), PUT (replace), PATCH (update), DELETE (remove)
Safe methods	GET does not modify server state; unsafe methods do
Idempotent methods	GET, PUT, DELETE produce the same result on repeated calls; POST does not
Status codes	2xx success, 3xx redirect, 4xx client error, 5xx server error
Content-Type	Header that tells the recipient how to interpret the body
Authorization	Header that carries authentication credentials (tokens)
CORS	Browser security mechanism requiring servers to opt in to cross-origin requests
Statelessness	Every request is independent – tokens or sessions work around this

Concept	Key Point
Path parameters	Identify a specific resource: <code>/api/movies/550</code>
Query strings	Filter, sort, or paginate a collection: <code>/api/movies?genre=action</code>

10 References

This reading draws from the following sources:

Standards & Specifications:

- [RFC 1945 – HTTP/1.0](#) (Berners-Lee, Fielding, & Frystyk, 1996)
- [RFC 2616 – HTTP/1.1](#) (Fielding et al., 1999) – superseded by RFCs 7230-7235 (2014)
- [RFC 7231 – HTTP/1.1 Semantics and Content](#)
- [RFC 7540 – HTTP/2](#) (Belshe, Peon, & Thomson, 2015)
- [RFC 9114 – HTTP/3](#) (Bishop, 2022)
- [RFC 5789 – PATCH Method for HTTP](#) (Dusseault & Snell, 2010)

Technical Documentation:

- [MDN Web Docs – HTTP](#)
- [MDN Web Docs – HTTP Headers](#)
- [MDN Web Docs – Content Negotiation](#)
- [MDN Web Docs – CORS](#)

Historical Sources:

- Berners-Lee, T. (1989). *Information Management: A Proposal*. CERN.
<https://www.w3.org/History/1989/proposal.html>
- Berners-Lee, T. (1991). *The Original HTTP as defined in 1991*. W3C.
<https://www.w3.org/Protocols/HTTP/AsImplemented.html>

11 Further Reading



External Resources

- [MDN Web Docs – An overview of HTTP](#) – Comprehensive introduction covering all major HTTP concepts
- [HTTP.dev – HTTP Status Codes](#) – Complete reference of every status code with examples
- [How HTTPS Works](#) – Illustrated comic-style explainer of HTTPS and TLS
- [Julia Evans – HTTP: Learn Your Browser's Language](#) – Zine-format visual guide to HTTP (paid, but excellent)
- [High Performance Browser Networking – HTTP/2](#) – Deep dive into HTTP/2's binary framing and multiplexing by Ilya Grigorik

This reading is part of TCSS 460 – Client/Server Programming, School of Engineering and Technology, University of Washington Tacoma.