

Web search

The World Wide Web, Web Crawling



The Internet

The World Wide Web

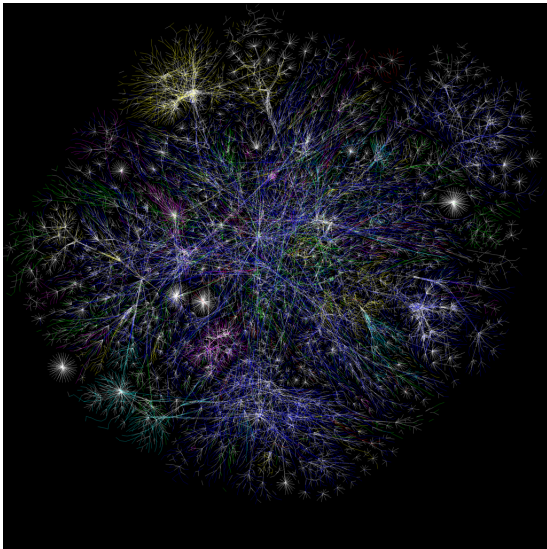
Web crawlers

Conclusion





A network of networks: interconnected computers



<http://www.opte.org/>

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The Internet protocol stack

A stack of communication protocols, on top of each other.

Application	HTTP, FTP, SMTP, DNS	
Transport	TCP, UDP, ICMP	(sessions, reliability. . .)
Network	IP (v4, v6)	(routing, addressing)
Link	Ethernet, 802.11 (ARP)	(addressing local machines)
Physical	Ethernet, 802.11 (physical)	





IP (Internet Protocol) [IETF, 1981a]

- Addressing machines and routing over the Internet
- Two versions of the IP protocol on the Internet: IPv4 (very well spread) and IPv6 (support still a bit experimental)
- IPv4: 4-byte addresses assigned to each computer, e.g., 137.194.2.24. Institutions are given ranges of such addresses, to assign as they will.
- Problem: only 2^{32} possible addresses (actually, a large number of them cannot be assigned to new hosts, for multiple reasons). This means many hosts connected to the Internet do not have an IPv4 address and some network address translation (NAT) occurs.
- IPv6: 16-byte addresses; much larger address space! Addresses look like 2001:660:330f:2::18 (meaning 2001:0660:0330f:0002:0000:0000:0000:0018). Other nice features (multicast, autoconfiguration, etc.).

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TCP (Transmission Control Protocol)

[IETF, 1981b]

- One of the two main transport protocols used on IP, with UDP (User Datagram Protocol)
- Contrarily to UDP, provides **reliable** transmission of data (acknowledgments)
- Data is divided into small **datagrams** that are sent over the network, and possibly reordered at the end point
- Like UDP, each TCP transmission indicates a source and a destination **port number** (between 0 and 65535) to distinguish it from other traffic
- A client usually select a **random** port number for establishing a connection to a **fixed** port number on a server
- The port number on a server conventionally identifies an **application protocol** on top of TCP/IP: 22 for SSH, 25 for SMTP, 110 for POP3...

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DNS (Domain Name System) [IETF, 1999a]

- IPv4 addresses are **hard to memorize**, and a given service (e.g., a Web site) may **change** IP addresses (e.g., new Internet service provider)
- Even more so for IPv6 addresses!
- DNS: a UDP/IP-based protocol for associating human-friendly names (e.g., `www.google.com`, `weather.yahoo.com`) to IP addresses
- Hierarchical domain names: **com** is a top-level domain (TLD), **yahoo.com** is a subdomain thereof, etc.
- Hierarchical domain name resolution: **root servers** with fixed IPs know who is in charge of TLDs, servers in charge of a domain know who is in charge of a subdomain, etc.
- Nothing magic with **www.google.com**: just a subdomain of `google.com`.

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The World Wide Web

- Introduction

- The Web: a market

- HTML

- HTTP

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Internet: physical network of computers (or **hosts**)

World Wide Web, Web, WWW: logical collection of **hyperlinked** documents

- **static** and **dynamic**
- **public** Web and **private** Webs
- each document (or **Web page**, or **resource**) identified by a URL





An abridged timeline of Web history

- 1969 ARPANET (the ancestor of the Internet)
- 1974 TCP (Vinton G. Cerf & Robert E. Kahn, Turing award winners 2004)
- 1990 World Wide Web, HTTP, HTML (Tim Berners-Lee, Robert Cailliau)
- 1993 Mosaic (the first public successful graphical browser, ancestor of Netscape)
- 1994 Yahoo! (David Filo, Jerry Yang)
- 1994 Foundation of the W3C
- 1995 Amazon.com, Ebay
- 1995 Internet Explorer
- 1995 AltaVista (Louis Monier, Michael Burrows)
- 1998 Google (Larry Page, Sergey Brin)
- 2001 Wikipedia (Jimmy Wales)
- 2004 Mozilla Firefox
- 2005 YouTube

Sources: [Electronic Software Publishing Corporation, 2008], [BBC, 2006]

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URL (Uniform Resource Locator)

[IETF, 1994]

https : // www.example.com : 443 / path/to/doc ?name=foo&town=bar #para

scheme hostname port path query string fragment

scheme: way the resource can be accessed; generally **http** or **https**

hostname: **domain name** of a host (cf. DNS); hostname of a website may start with **www.**, but not a rule.

port: **TCP port**; defaults: 80 for **http** and 443 for **https**

path: **logical path** of the document

query string: optional additional parameters (dynamic documents)

fragment: optional **subpart** of the document

Relative URLs with respect to a **context** (e.g., the URL above):

/titi **https://www.example.com/titi**

tata **https://www.example.com/path/to/tata**

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The Web: a mixture of technologies

- For content: HTML/XHTML, but also PDF, Word documents, text files, XML (RSS, SVG, MathML, etc.)...
- For presenting this content: CSS, XSLT
- For animating this content: JavaScript, AJAX, VBScript...
- For interaction-rich content: Flash, Java, Silverlight, ActiveX...
- Multimedia content: images, sounds, videos...
- And on the server side: any programming language and database technology to serve this content, e.g., PHP, JSP, Java servlets, ASP, ColdFusion, etc.

Quite **complex to manage**! Being a Web developer nowadays requires mastering a lot of different technologies; designing a Web client requires being able to handle a lot of different technologies!



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- Graphical browsers (cf. next slide)
- Text browsers: w3m, lynx, links (free software, Windows, Mac OS, Linux, Unix); rarely used nowadays
- Other browsers: audio browsers, etc.
- But also: spiders for siphoning a Web site, search engine crawlers (see later on), machine translation software...

A very large **variety** of clients! Web standards (mainly, HTML, CSS, HTTP) are supposed to describe what their interpretation of a Web page should be. In reality, more complex (tag soup).





Graphical browsers

Browser	Engine	Share	Distribution
Internet Explorer	Trident	45%	with Windows
Firefox	Gecko	30%	Windows, MacOS, Unix FS
Google Chrome	WebKit	15%	Windows, MacOS, Linux FS
Safari	WebKit	5%	MacOS, Windows FC
Opera	Presto	2%	Windows, MacOS, Unix, mobiles FC

FC: free of charge (free as a beer)

FS: free software (free as a man)

Market shares: various sources, precise numbers hard to obtain. IE continually decreasing over the last years.

Trident remains the worst standard-compliant rendering engine.

In China: very different picture, cf.

<http://www.clonedinchina.com/2011/03/>

baidu-published-browser-market-share-in-china.

html; almost all browsers used rely on Trident. 4 July 2011





News about graphical browsers

- Google Chrome has known impressive success (2 years and a half since its initial release)
- Versions of Internet Explorer 6, 7, 8, 9 still heavily used (especially in the enterprise world); IE6 is the browser coming with initial releases of Windows XP browser.



Web servers

Server	Share	Distribution
Apache	60%	Windows, Mac OS, Linux, Unix FS
Microsoft IIS	30%	with some versions of Windows
lighttpd	1%	Windows, Mac OS, Linux, Unix FS
Unidentifiable	9%	

- **Market share:** according to some studies by Opera and Netcraft, precise numbers do not really mean anything.
- Many large software companies have either their own Web server or their own modified version of Apache (notably, GFE/GWS for Google).
- lighttpd is (as its name suggests!) lighter (i.e., less feature-rich, but faster in some contexts) than Apache.
- The versions of Microsoft IIS released with consumer versions of Windows are very limited.

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Web search engines

- A large number of different search engines, with market shares **varying a lot** from country to country.
- At the world level, the big 3:
 - Google** vastly dominating (more than 90% market share in France!)
 - Yahoo!** still resists to its main competitor (15% in the US, 50% in Japan)
 - Bing** (formerly known as MSN, Microsoft Live Search)
recent progression (perhaps 10% of the global market)
- In some countries, local search engines dominate the market (Baidu with 75% in China, Naver in Korea. . .)



Recent changes

In July 2009, Microsoft and Yahoo! announced a major agreement:

- Yahoo! stops developing its own search engine (launched in 2003, after the buyouts of Inktomi and Altavista) and will use Bing instead;
- Yahoo! will provide the advertisement services used in Bing.

Operational, but does not concern Yahoo! Japan, which on the contrary uses Google as engine.



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HTML (HyperText Markup Language)

[W3C, 1999]

- normalized by the W3C (**W**orld **W**ide **W**eb **C**onsortium) formed of industrials (Microsoft, Google, Apple. . .) and academic institutions (ERCIM, MIT, etc.)
- **open** format: possible processing by a wide variety of software and hardware
- **text** files with **tags**
- describes the **structure** and **content** of a document, focus on **accessibility**
- (theoretically) no presentation information (this is the role of CSS)
- no description of dynamic behaviors (this is the role of server-side languages, JavaScript, etc.)



The HTML language

- HTML is a language alternating text and **tags** (`<blabla>` or `</blabla>`)
 - Tags allow structuring each part of a document, and are used for instance by a browser to lay out the document.
- HTML files
 - are structured in two main parts: the header `<head> ... </head>` and the body `<body> ... </body>`)
- In HTML, blanks (spaces, tabs, carriage returns) are generally equivalent and only serve to delimit words, tags, etc. The number of blanks does not matter.



■ Syntax: (opening and closing tag)

```
<tag attributes>content</tag>
```

or (element with no content)

```
<tag attributes>
```

- tag** keyword referring to some particular HTML **element**
- content** may contain text and other tags
- attributes** represent the various parameters associated with the element, as a list of `name="value"` or `name='value'`, separated by spaces (quotes are not always mandatory, but they become mandatory if `value` has “exotic” characters)

- Names of elements and attributes are usually written in lowercase, but `<head>` and `<HeAd>` are equivalent.
- Tags are opened and closed in the right order (`<i></i>` and not `<i></i>`).
- Strict rules specify which tags can be used inside which.
- Under some conditions, a tag can be implicitly closed, but these conditions are complex to describe.
- `<!--foobar-->` denotes a comment, which is not to be interpreted by a Web client.



Structure of a document

```
<!DOCTYPE html PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.01//EN"
    "http://www.w3.org/TR/html4/strict.dtd">
<html lang="en">
  <head>
    <!-- Header of the document -->
  </head>
  <body>
    <!-- Body of the document -->
  </body>
</html>
```

- The doctype declaration `<!DOCTYPE ...>` specify which HTML version is used.
- The language of the document is specified with the `lang` attribute of the main `<html>` tag.

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- The **header** of a document is delimited by the tags

```
<head> ... </head> .
```

- The header contains **meta-informations** about the document, such as its title, encoding, associated files, etc. The two most important items are:

- The character set of the page, usually at the **very beginning** of the header

```
<meta http-equiv="Content-Type"  
      content="text/html; charset=utf-8">
```

- The title of the page (the only required item inside the header). This is the information displayed in the title bar of Web browsers.

```
<title>My great website</title>
```

Character sets

Unicode: **character repertoire**, assigning to each character, whatever its script or language, an integer number.

Examples

A	→	65		ε	→	949
é	→	233		ℵ	→	1488

Character set: concrete method for representing a Unicode character.

Examples (é)

iso-8859-1	11101001	only for some characters
utf-8	11000011 10101001	
utf-16	11101001 00000000	

utf-8 has the advantage of being able to represent all Unicode characters, in a way compatible with the legacy **ASCII** encoding.

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The body of a HTML document

- `<body> ... </body>` tags delimit the **body** of a document.
- The body is **structured** into sections, paragraphs, lists, etc.
- 6 tags describe **sections**, by decreasing order of importance:
 - `<h1>Title of the page</h1>`
 - `<h2>Title of a main section</h2>`
 - `<h3>Title of a subsection</h3>`
 - `<h3>Title of a subsubsection</h3>`
 - ...
- `<p> ... </p>` tags delimit **paragraphs** of text. All text paragraphs should be delimited thusly.
- Directly inside `<body> ... </body>` can only appear **block** elements: `<p>`, `<h1>`, `<form>`, `<hr>`, ``, `<table>` ... in addition to the `<div>` tag which denotes a block without precise semantics.



- What differentiates Web pages (hypertext pages) from normal documents: **links**!
- Introduced with `<a> ... `
- Navigating a link can bring to:
 - a resource on another server or another file of the same server
 - another part of the same document



Links are made using the `href` attribute of the `<a>` tag, whose content will be the link:

```
<a href="http://www.cnrs.fr/">  
    
</a>  
  
<a href="bio/indexbioinfo.html">Bioinformatics</a>
```

- **Anchors** serve to reach a precise point in the document.

- They are defined, either on an existing tag by using the `id` attribute, or with an `` :

```
<h3 id="tutorials">Tutorials</h3>  
<a id="tutorials">
```

- Then, one can link to this anchor:

```
<a href="#tutorials">tutorials</a>  
<a href="http://www.w3.org/#tutorials">tutorials</a>
```

- Commonly, the old `` syntax is used.



The different versions of HTML

- HTML 4.01 (1999) strict (as described earlier) and transitional

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

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

- XHTML 1.0 (2000) strict and transitional

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

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

- XHTML 1.1 and XHTML 2.0: mostly a failure, unusable and unused in today's Web
- HTML 5: the future standard, in development

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Tag soup

- A lot of the HTML documents on the Web date back from before HTML 4.01
- In practice: many Web pages do not respect any standards at all (with or without doctype declarations) \implies browsers do not respect these standards \implies tag soup!
- When dealing with pages from the real Web, necessary to use all sorts of heuristics to interpret a Web page.



HTML vs XHTML

- XHTML: an XML format
- Tags without content ``, are written `` in XHTML.
- Some elements can be left unclosed in HTML
(` one two `), but closing is mandatory in XHTML.
- Attribute values can be written without quotes
(``) in HTML, quotes are required in XHTML.
- Element and attribute names are not case-sensitive in HTML
(`<HTML lang=fr>`), but are in XHTML (everything must be in lowercase).
- Attributes `xmlns` and `xml:lang` on the `<html>` tag in XHTML.
- And some other small subtleties...





HTML's future: XHTML 2.0 vs HTML 5

- XHTML 2.0: initiative of the W3C, incompatible with HTML 4.01/XHTML 1.0, major changes
- HTML 5: initiative of browser developers, compatible with HTML 4.01/XHTML 1.0, incremental but numerous changes
- XHTML 2.0 abandoned in July 2009
- HTML 5 features start appearing in recent browsers (Internet Explorer excepted, which has however indicated its interest)
- HTML 5 offers the choice between syntactic conventions inherited from both HTML 4.01 and XHTML
- New features: 2D drawing (`<canvas>`), multimedia (`<audio>` , `<video>`), better structuring elements (`<section>` , `footer`), etc.



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HTTP (HyperText Transfer Protocol)

[IETF, 1999b]

- Application protocol at the basis of the World Wide Web
- Latest and most widely used version: HTTP/1.1

■ Client **request**:

```
GET /MarkUp/ HTTP/1.1  
Host: www.w3.org
```

■ Server **response**:

```
HTTP/1.1 200 OK  
...  
Content-Type: text/html; charset=utf-8  
  
<!DOCTYPE html ...> ...
```

- Two main HTTP **methods**: GET and POST (HEAD is also used in place of GET, to retrieve meta-information only).
- Additional headers, in the request and the response
- Possible to send parameters in the request (key/value pairs).

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- Simplest type of request.
- Possible parameter are sent at the end of a URL, after a ‘?’
- Not applicable when there are too many parameters, or when their values are too long.
- Method used when a URL is directly accessed in a browser, when a link is followed, and for some forms.

Example (Google query)

URL: `http://www.google.com/search?q=hello`

Corresponding HTTP GET request:

```
GET /search?q=hello HTTP/1.1
```

```
Host: www.google.com
```

- Method only used for submitting forms.

Example

```
POST /php/test.php HTTP/1.1
```

```
Host: www.w3.org
```

```
Content-Type: application/x-www-form-urlencoded
```

```
Content-Length: 100
```

```
type=search&title=The+Dictator&format=long&country=US
```


Parameter encoding

- By default, parameters are sent (with GET or POST) in the form: `name1=value1&name2=value2`, and special characters (accented characters, spaces...) are replaced by codes such as `+`, `%20`. This way of sending parameters is called `application/x-www-form-urlencoded`.
- For the POST method, another heavier encoding can be used (several lines per parameter), similar to the way emails are built: mostly useful for sending large quantity of information. Encoding named `multipart/form-data`.





Status codes

- The HTTP response always starts with a **status code** with three digits, followed by a human-readable message (e.g., 200 OK).
- The first digit indicates the class of the response:
 - 1 Information
 - 2 Success
 - 3 Redirection
 - 4 Client-side error
 - 5 Server-side error





Most common status codes

200	OK
301	Permanent redirection
302	Temporary redirection
304	No modification
400	Invalid request
401	Unauthorized
403	Forbidden
404	Not found
500	Server error



Virtual hosts

- Different **domain names** can refer to the same IP address, i.e., the same physical machine (e.g., `www.google.fr` and `www.google.com`)
- When a machine is contacted by TCP/IP, it is through its **IP address**
- No *a priori* way to know which precise domain name to contact
- In order to serve different content according to the domain name (**virtual host**): header `Host`: in the request (only header really required)

Example

```
GET /search?hl=fr&q=hello HTTP/1.1
Host: www.google.fr
```





Content type

- The browser behaves differently depending on the **content type** returned: display a Web page with the layout engine, display an image, load an external application, etc.
- **MIME** classification of content types (e.g., image/jpeg, text/plain, text/html, application/xhtml+xml, application/pdf etc.)
- For a HTML page, or for text, the browser must also know what **character set** is used (this has precedence over the information contained in the document itself)
- Also returned: the content length (can be used to display a progress bar)

Example

HTTP/1.1 200 OK

Content-Type: text/html; charset=UTF-8

Content-Length: 3046

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Client and server identification

- Web clients and servers can identify themselves with a character string
- Useful to serve **different content** to different browsers, detect robots...
- ... but any client can say it's any other client!
- Historical confusion on naming: all common browsers identify themselves as Mozilla!

Example

```
User-Agent: Mozilla/5.0 (X11; U; Linux x86_64; fr;  
rv:1.9.0.3) Gecko/2008092510 Ubuntu/8.04 (hardy)  
Firefox/3.0.3
```

```
Server: Apache/2.0.59 (Unix) mod_ssl/2.0.59 OpenSSL/0.9.8e  
PHP/5.2.3
```

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Authentication

- HTTP allows for protecting access to a Web site by an **identifier** and a **password**
- Attention: (most of the time) the password goes through the network unencrypted (but for instance, just encoded in Base64, revertible encoding)
- **HTTPS** (variant of HTTP that includes encryption, cryptographic authentication, session tracking, etc.) can be used instead to transmit sensitive data

Example

GET ... HTTP/1.1

Authorization: Basic dG90bzip0aXRp





Content negotiation

- A Web client can specify to the Web server:
 - the **content type** it can process (text, images, multimedia content), with preference indicators
 - the **languages** preferred by the user
- The Web server can thus propose different file formats, in different languages.
- In practice, content negotiation on the language works, and is used, but content negotiation on file types does not work because of bad default configuration of some browsers.

Example

Accept: text/html,application/xhtml+xml,application/xml;
q=0.9,*/*;q=0.8

Accept-Language: fr,fr-fr;q=0.8,en-us;q=0.5,en;q=0.3

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Cookies [IETF, 2000]

- Information, as key/value pairs, that a Web server asks a Web client to keep and retransmit with each HTTP request (for a given domain name).
- Can be used to keep information on a user as she is visiting a Web site, between visits, etc.: electronic cart, identifier, and so on.
- Practically speaking, most often only stores a **session identifier**, connected, on the server side, to all session information (connected or not, user name, data...)
- Simulates the notion of session, absent from HTTP itself

Example

```
Set-Cookie: session-token=RJYBsG//azkfZrRazQ3SPQhlo1FpkQka2;  
path=/; domain=.amazon.de;  
expires=Fri Oct 17 09:35:04 2008 GMT
```

```
Cookie: session-token=RJYBsG//azkfZrRazQ3SPQhlo1FpkQka2
```





Conditional downloading

- A client can ask for downloading a page only if it has been modified since some given date.
- Most often not applicable, the server giving rarely a reliable last modification date (difficult to obtain for dynamically generated content!).

Example

If-Modified-Since: Wed, 15 Oct 2008 19:40:06 GMT

304 Not Modified

Last-Modified: Wed, 15 Oct 2008 19:20:00 GMT



Originating URL

- When a Web browser follows a link or submits a form, it transmits the originating URL to the destination Web server.
- Even if it is not on the same server!

Example

Referer: `http://www.google.fr/`

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- Discovering new URLs

- Identifying duplicates

- Crawling architecture

- Recrawling URLs?

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- **crawlers**, **(Web) spiders**, **(Web) robots**: autonomous user agents that retrieve pages from the Web
- Basics of crawling:
 1. Start from a given URL or set of URLs
 2. Retrieve and process the corresponding page
 3. Discover new URLs (cf. next slide)
 4. Repeat on each found URL
- No real termination condition (virtual unlimited number of Web pages!)
- **Graph-browsing** problem
 - deep-first**: not very adapted, possibility of being lost in **robot traps**
 - breadth-first**
 - combination of both**: breadth-first with limited-depth deep-first on each discovered website



Sources of new URLs

■ From HTML pages:

- hyperlinks `...`
- media `` `<embed src="...">`
`<object data="...">`
- frames `<frame src="...">` `<iframe src="...">`
- JavaScript links `window.open("...")`
- etc.

■ Referrer URLs

■ Sitemaps [sitemaps.org, 2008]



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A word about hashing

Definition

A **hash function** is a deterministic mathematical function transforming objects (numbers, character strings, binary. . .) into fixed-size, seemingly random, numbers. The more random the transformation is, the better.

Example

Java hash function for the `String` class:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} s_i \times 31^{n-i-1} \bmod 2^{32}$$

where s_i is the (Unicode) code of character i of a string s .





Identification of duplicate Web pages

Problem

Identifying duplicates or near-duplicates on the Web to prevent multiple indexing

trivial duplicates: same resource at the same **canonized** URL:

`http://example.com:80/toto`

`http://example.com/titi/../toto`

exact duplicates: identification by **hashing**

near-duplicates: (timestamps, tip of the day, etc.) more complex!





Near-duplicate detection

Edit distance. Count the **minimum number of basic modifications** (additions or deletions of characters or words, etc.) to obtain a document from another one. Good measure of similarity, and can be computed in $O(mn)$ where m and n are the size of the documents. But: **does not scale** to a large collection of documents (unreasonable to compute the edit distance for every pair!).

Shingles. Idea: two documents similar if they mostly share the same **succession of k -grams** (succession of tokens of length k).

Example

I like to watch the sun set with my friend.

My friend and I like to watch the sun set.

$S = \{\text{i like, like to, my friend, set with, sun set, the sun, to watch, watch the, with my}\}$

$T = \{\text{and i, friend and, i like, like to, my friend, sun set, the sun, to watch, watch the}\}$

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Hashing shingles to detect duplicates [Broder et al., 1997]

- Similarity: **Jaccard coefficient** on the set of shingles:

$$J(S, T) = \frac{|S \cap T|}{|S \cup T|}$$

- Still **costly to compute**! But can be approximated as follows:
 1. Choose N **different hash functions**
 2. For each hash function h_i and each set of shingles $S_k = \{s_{k1} \dots s_{kn}\}$, store $\phi_{ik} = \min_j h_i(s_{kj})$
 3. Approximate $J(S_k, S_l)$ as the **proportion** of ϕ_{ik} and ϕ_{il} that are equal
- Possibly to repeat in a hierarchical way with **super-shingles** (we are only interested in **very** similar documents)



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- Standard for robot exclusion: **robots.txt** at the root of a Web server [Koster, 1994].

```
User-agent: *  
Allow: /searchhistory/  
Disallow: /search
```

- Per-page exclusion (*de facto* standard).

```
<meta name="ROBOTS" content="NOINDEX,NOFOLLOW">
```

- Per-link exclusion (*de facto* standard).

```
<a href="toto.html" rel="nofollow">Toto</a>
```

- Avoid **Denial Of Service** (DOS), wait 100ms/1s between two repeated requests to the same Web server

Parallel processing

Network delays, waits between requests:

- **Per-server queue** of URLs
- Parallel processing of requests to different hosts:
 - **multi-threaded** programming
 - **asynchronous** inputs and outputs (`select`, classes from `java.util.concurrent`): less overhead
- Use of **keep-alive** to reduce connexion overheads



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Web crawlers

Discovering new URLs

Identifying duplicates

Crawling architecture

Recrawling URLs?

Conclusion



Refreshing URLs

- Content on the Web **changes**
- Different **change rates**:
 - online newspaper main page: every hour or so
 - published article: virtually no change
- **Continuous** crawling, and identification of change rates for **adaptive** crawling: how to know the **time of last modification** of a Web page?



HTTP Timestamping

Two timestamping mechanism in HTTP: **entity tags** and **modification dates**. Potentially provided with all requests:

ETag: "497bef-1fcb-47f20645"

Last-Modified: Tue, 01 Apr 2008 09:54:13 GMT

Etag: unique identifier for the provided document, should change if the document changes; can be used in requests with If-Match and If-None-Match.

Last-Modified: last modification time; can be used in requests with If-Modified-Since and If-Unmodified-Since.

- Information generally provided and very reliable for static content (often includes media files in CMS).
- Information hardly ever provided (or with dummy *now* date) for dynamic content, CMS, etc.

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HTTP Cache and Proxy Control

Two additional (redundant) items of **freshness information**, for caches and proxies:

```
Cache-Control: max-age=60, private  
Expires: Tue, 01 Apr 2008 13:25:55 GMT
```

max-age: maximum time in second a document remains fresh.

Expires: time when a document stops being fresh.

- Often provided. . .
- . . . but with 0 or very low expiration delay.
- \Rightarrow does not give any interesting information.





Timestamps in HTML Web page Content

- **Very frequent** in CMS:
 - either as a **global** timestamps (*Last modified:*);
 - or on **individual** items: news stories, blogs, etc. (is the global timestamp the max of the individual ones?);
 - possibly also in meta-data on the Web page: comments, Dublin Core <meta> tags.
- Quite easy to identify and extract from the Web page (keywords, date recognition).
- Informal: sometimes partial (no time indication), often without timezone.
- Might not always be trustworthy.





Additional semantic timestamps

Files of other types than HTML may have **semantic** timestamping mechanism:

PDF, Office suite documents, etc.: both **creation** and **modification** date available in metadata. Quite reliable.

RSS feeds: reliable **semantic** timestamps.

Images, Sounds: **EXIF** (or similar) metadata. Not always reliable, and the capture date of a picture may have nothing in common with its publication date.

Semantic external content used for dating a HTML Web page:

- Possibility of mapping a **RSS feed** to Web page content
- **Sitemaps** provided by the Web site owner. Allows for providing both timestamps and change rate indications (*hourly, monthly...*), but these functionalities are not often used. A few CMS produce all of this: **ideal case!**

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Estimating the Freshness of a Page

1. Check HTTP timestamp.
2. Check content timestamp.
3. Compare a hash of the page with a stored hash.
4. Non-significant differences (ads, fortunes, request timestamp):
 - only hash text content, or “useful” text content;
 - compare distribution of n -grams (shingling);
 - or even compute edit distance with previous version.

Adapting strategy to each different archived website?



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Conclusion

What you should remember

- The Web is **not the same thing** as Internet!
- **Variety** of protocols, languages, technologies used on the Web.
- **Shingling** for identifying duplicates.
- Crawling as a **graph-browsing** problem.



Software

- Wget, a simple yet effective Web spider (free software)
- Heritrix, a Web-scale highly configurable Web crawler, used by the Internet Archive (free software)

To go further

- A good textbook [Chakrabarti, 2003]
- Main references:
 - HTML 4.01 recommendation [W3C, 1999]
 - HTTP/1.1 RFC [IETF, 1999b]

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