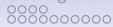


# Basics of the Web and Web Crawling

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# Outline

## The World Wide Web

### Introduction

HTML

HTTP

## Crawling the Web

## Conclusion

## Internet and the Web

**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**
- the **largest collection of information** every built, most readily accessible!

## The Internet protocol stack

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

Application	HTTP, FTP, SMTP, DNS	
Security	SSL/TLS	(encryption, authentication)
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** (not that well-spread yet)
- 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.).



# 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. . .



## 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`.

# 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`

## The Web: a mixture of technologies

- For **content**: HTML, but also PDF, Word documents, text files, JSON documents, XML (RSS, SVG, MathML, etc.)...
- For **presenting** this content: CSS, XSLT
- For **animating** this content: JavaScript, AJAX, JavaScript libraries (React, Vue.js, etc.)...
- For interaction-rich content: `<canvas>`, WebGL...
- And on the server side: a Web server program (Apache, nginx, Tomcat, IIS, Node.js, etc.), any programming language and database technology to serve this content, e.g., PHP, Java servlets, Scala, Python, JavaScript, etc. with associated Web programming frameworks

Quite **complex to manage**! Being a Web developer nowadays requires mastering many different technologies. Exploiting Web content may require being able to handle many different technologies!



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## HTML (HyperText Markup Language) [W3C, 2014]

- normalized by the W3C (**W**orld **W**ide **W**eb **C**onsortium) formed of industrials (Microsoft, Google, Apple. . .) and academic institutions (ERCIM, MIT, etc.) in concert with another group of industrials, the **WHATWG** group (Apple, Mozilla, Google, Microsoft) representing Web browsers
- **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.



# Tags

- 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)



## Tags

- 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 (`<b><i></i></b>` and not `<b><i></b></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>
<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, here HTML5.
- The language of the document is specified with the `lang` attribute of the main `<html>` tag.



# Header

- 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 CSS and JavaScript files, etc. The two most important items are:

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

```
<meta 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.



## 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>`, `<ul>`, `<table>`... in addition to the `<div>` tag which denotes a block without precise semantics.



# Links

- What differentiates Web pages (hypertext pages) from normal documents: **links!**
- Introduced with `<a> . . . </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

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

- **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 `<a id="...">` :

```
<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 `<a name="...">` syntax is used.



## The different versions of HTML

- **HTML5** (2014 and onwards): “living” standard, continuously updated
- HTML 4.01 (1999): historically the main standard before HTML5 arose
- XHTML (2000): an attempt of XML-ifying HTML, making it stricter, mostly a failure (though HTML5 also now has valid XML syntax variant)
- XHTML 1.1 and XHTML 2.0: complete failures, unusable and unused



## Tag soup

- Quite a few 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 `<img>`, are written `<img />` in XHTML.
- Some elements can be left unclosed in HTML (`<ol> <li> one </li> two </ol>`), but closing is mandatory in XHTML.
- Attribute values can be written without quotes (`<img src=toto.png alt=toto>`) 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. . .



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# HTTP (HyperText Transfer Protocol)

## [IETF, 1999b]

- Application protocol at the basis of the World Wide Web
- Diverse versions on the Web: HTTP/1.1, HTTP/2, HTTP/3; HTTP/1.1 uses plain text, HTTP/2 and HTTP/3 (based on UDP and not TCP) use binary
- 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).



## GET

- 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
```



# POST

- Method mostly used when submitting large amount of content, or when the request has a **side effect**, through forms or JavaScript

## 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
```



## 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
```



## 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
```

## 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
```



## 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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**Crawling the Web**

Discovering new URLs

Crawling architecture

Conclusion

## Web Crawlers

- **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 `<a href="...">...</a>`
  - media `` `<embed src="...">`  
`<object data="...">`
  - frames `<frame src="...">` `<iframe src="...">`
  - JavaScript links `window.open("...")`
  - etc.
- Other hyperlinked content (e.g., PDF files)
- Non-hyperlinked URLs that appear anywhere on the Web (in HTML text, text files, etc.): use regular expressions to extract them
- Referrer URLs
- Sitemaps [sitemaps.org, 2008]



## Scope of a crawler

- Web-scale
  - The Web is infinite! Avoid robot traps by putting depth or page number **limits** on each Web server
  - Focus on **important** pages [Abiteboul et al., 2003]
- Web servers under a list of **DNS domains**: easy filtering of URLs
- A given topic: **focused crawling** techniques [Chakrabarti et al., 1999, Diligenti et al., 2000, Gouriten et al., 2014] based on classifiers of Web page content and predictors of the interest of a link.
- The national Web (cf. **public deposit**, national libraries): what is this? [Abiteboul et al., 2002]
- A given Web site: what is a Web site? [Senellart, 2005]



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## Crawling ethics

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

```
User-agent: *
```

```
Allow: /searchhistory/
```

```
Disallow: /search
```

- Per-page exclusion.

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

- Per-link exclusion.

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

- Avoid **Denial Of Service** (DOS), wait  $\approx 1$ s between two repeated requests to the same Web server

## Legal aspects (France) – Principles

- General principles:
  - to access or keep access to a “system for automated data processing” *in a fraudulent manner* is punished of **two years of prison and 60 000 euros fine** (Code pénal 323-1, modified by law 2015-912 on “Renseignement”)
  - to disrupt the functioning of a “system for automated data processing” is punished of **five years of prison and 150 000 euros fine**, extended to seven years and 300 000 euros when the system is a public one containing personal information (Code pénal 323-2, modified by law 2015-912 on “Renseignement”)
- A Web site hosted in a different country may invoke **completely different legal principles**, under a different jurisdiction



## Legal aspects (France) – Case law

- **Crawling content** can be considered accessing and keeping access to a “system for automated data processing” (Cour d’appel de Paris, 5 February 2014, “Bluetouff case”)
- **robots.txt** files are a de facto standard, and instructions in robots.txt files a receivable way to specify what can be crawled (Cour d’appel de Paris, 26 January 2011, Google vs SAIF)
- Frequent requests to a Web site can be considered as a way to disrupt the functioning of a “system for automated data processing” (Cour d’appel de Bordeaux, 15 November 2011, Cédric M. vs C-Discount), but only if it reaches abusive levels and can be shown to have cause disruption



## Legal aspects (France) – Other aspects

- Web content is subject to **intellectual property** (“droit d’auteur”, Code de la propriété intellectuelle, Première partie, Livre 1er) and cannot generally be broadcast by third-parties; only transient copies are allowed (CJEU, 5 June 2014, PRCA vs NLA)
- Web content containing **personal data** is even more sensitive (GDPR): personal data should be collected for a specific purpose, kept updated, and protected
- EU AI Act (in force since August 2024) bans some data collection which causes *unacceptable risk* (e.g., social scoring) and adds some transparency requirements on AI applications built from collected data



## Aside: Content Acquisition for LLMs

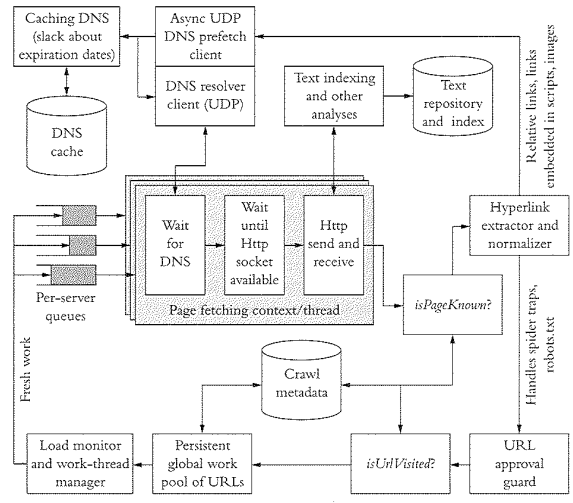
- LLMs (GPT, Llama Mistral, Gemini, etc.) are trained on a **huge collection of textual documents**
- Often given as **# tokens read** (e.g., 15 trillion for Llama 3.1)
- Exact dataset never disclosed, at best high-level description of what data sources were used and to which extent
- **Usually:** Web crawls (directly or using CommonCrawl), scientific publications (e.g., arXiv), Wikipedia, online community data dumps (e.g., Reddit, StackOverflow), other archives (e.g., Project Gutenberg's public domain literary works), potentially other non-public sources
- Raise the **same issues w.r.t. crawling, intellectual property, and personal data protection**
- These issues are mostly ignored by companies developing LLMs, but **no legal guarantee**
- EU AI Act imposes some (mild) requirements about describing of used data

## 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

# General Architecture [Chakrabarti, 2003]



## 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

## Importance of Timely Crawling

- The Web is very **volatile**, with a typical half-life of URLs of a few years [Koehler, 2003]
- For many purposes (archiving, analytics), a crawl quality can be measured by its **temporal coherence** [Spaniol et al., 2009]
- Ideally, Web pages pointed to by a Web page should be crawled **at the same time**. Unrealistic in practice.
- Crawling **takes time** and **consumes resources**:
  - **Limited bandwidth**, limiting computing power on the crawling side
  - Because of crawling ethics, crawling a 5 million page site takes around **2 months!**
  - Limitations of social networking APIs **drastic**: on Twitter/X, using the *Recent search* endpoint, at most 3 000 tweets per minute; other endpoints exist, but they also have severe limitations;

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## References

### Free software

**wget** simple yet effective Web spider

**Heritrix** Web-scale highly configurable Web crawler, used by the Internet Archive

**Beautiful Soup** Python module for parsing real-world Web pages

**Scrapy** rich Python module for Web crawling and content extraction

**Selenium** browser instrumentor, with API in several languages

### To go further

- A good textbook [Chakrabarti, 2003]
- Main references:
  - HTML5 living standard [W3C, 2014]
  - HTTP/1.1 RFC [IETF, 1999b]

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