Addendum to a survey of HTTP caching on the Semantic Web

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20th March 2015

1 Introduction

This Technical Report is an addendum to a paper to be published in the proceedings of the Extended Semantic Web Conference 2015 titled “A survey of HTTP caching implementations on the open Semantic Web”.

That paper was motivated from the perception that we had that caching was much used on the open Semantic Web. This is surprising, since caching has been given a very prominent role in the architecture of the World Wide Web, and caching based on HTTP headers as defined in RFC7234 [4] and RFC7232 [5] is prevalent elsewhere in the Web.

To understand the actual usage, we conducted an extensive survey of actual resources on the Semantic Web. We obtained data from different sources, with the breadth of the Semantic Web mainly covered by the Billion Triple Challenge (BTC) 2014 dataset [7].

In this addendum, we document in detail several aspects that there were not sufficient space for in the conference paper. Since we made the assumption that the relevant headers are mostly the same for each host, Section 2 documents how the large BTC2014 data set is reduced to visit a large number hosts, but a small number of resources. Then, Section 3 discusses the system we developed to visit these resources and extract the information that we were interested. Section 4 documents our main statistical method and Section 5 has an analysis of the distribution of valid versus invalid responses.

2 Implementation of data reduction

The BTC2014 dataset provided data in the form of NQuad files. Due to the presence of invalid RDF, we iterated through the NQuad files on a line-by-line basis. First, we matched each line against a regular expression were lines matching ontology|endpoint|sparql|vocabulary passed the filter. Then, the Perl framework RDF::Trine was used to parse the line. Lines that failed to parse were discarded. We have not investigated whether this could introduce biases. Statements were then accepted into a new NQuad file if they had a predicate that matched the sd:endpoint or matched a case-insensitive regular expression sparql if the subject and objects were both resources, or the predicates void:vocabulary, rdfa:vocabulary, or api:vocabulary, as well as having a

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resource as object. Finally, statements with the the classes cogs:Endpoint,
owl:Ontology and voaf:Vocabulary in the object position were also accep-
ted. More classes and properties were considered, but not used in the data
reduction if they did not occur in the original data.

In the next step, we filtered out statements with URIs that were invalid or
irrelevant, e.g. URIs that didn’t have a scheme or where the scheme were’t
HTTP(S), or they were referring to private IP addresses.

We then sought to classify resources into the categories “endpoint” for SPARQL
endpoints, “vocabulary” for vocabularies, “dataset” for datasets that may con-
tain further descriptions of several resources, or simply “inforesources” for those
that did not fit in the above classes. To do so, we classified based on certain
predicates and classes. Additionally, URIs derived from prefix.cc were classified
as “vocabulary” (even if we found several that were not) and those from
SPARQLES as “endpoint”.

Since we blatanty violated URI opacity with our regular expression match-
ing in the first step, we needed to further filter candidates for SPARQL end-
points. This step therefore included filtering as well as classification.

We found in the data a large number of ontologies that consist of many
information resources with just a few triples in each. Since they appear to be
produced by the same software, usually Semantic Mediawiki, we assume that
they are configured with a single setup, and thus we merely sampled these
resources.

We continued to also sample the HTTP headers gathered in the BTC2014
dataset. First, we traversed the files with a simple UNIX grep to find the
resources that had reported one of the RDF serializations as content type. We
then traversed this list, first discarded the resources that did not have a valid IRI
(this amounted to just 3273 resources). For the resources we found, as well as for
the resources that was of rdf:type owl:Ontology above, we kept one resource
per hostname, with the exception of the popular blogging platforms Livejournal
and SAPO, where each blog has their own host and they expose FOAF data.
For those, we only kept one hostname, since they are likely configured similarly.

3 Implementation of spider

We then developed a fairly elaborate parallel spider to examine the resources
found on hosts that the previous steps deemed interesting using the Perl frame-
works RDF::Trine and libwww. The spider operated with a timeout of 20
seconds and a maximum message size it would accept of 1 MB.

The parallel spider would then launch a process per host, but each request
to one host would be delayed by 10 seconds. For each host, the spider would
go through the list of URLs found by previous steps for that host. Since the
BTC2014 recorded the Expires, Last-Modified and ETag headers where they
existed, we first examined whether any of the resources were still fresh, but
none were. Wherever the last two headers existed, we added the correspond-

For endpoints, we made the following SPARQL query:

2Linked Open Vocabularies [1] may be used to resolve these prefixed names
SELECT DISTINCT ?Concept WHERE {{ [] a ?Concept} LIMIT 2

which should be quite light, yet likely yield results.

Then, the first request would be made, and a selection of the resulting HTTP headers recorded in an per-host NQuads file. For this purpose, we developed and released a module RDF::Generator::HTTP\footnote{https://metacpan.org/release/KJETILK/RDF-Generator-HTTP-0.003} to CPAN. We recorded whether the conditional request showed that the BTC2014 data were still fresh, and if it was, we retrieved the current data, as we had not coupled the headers to the body in our original retrieval. Based on the resulting headers, we let libwww\footnote{https://metacpan.org/release/UAAS/libwww-perl-b.04} calculate both standards-compliant and simple heuristic freshness lifetime.

If the initial response had RFC7232 headers, we made another request to see if the server included the headers but does not support conditional requests. The heuristic we employed is that if the headers remain the same, but the result was returned, rather than just a response code 304 (which indicates that the previous result can be reused), the server does most probably not support it.

For endpoints, we examined the response message, to see if there are any results to our query, and recorded that if there are. In addition to the endpoints registered in the SPARQLES survey \footnote{https://metacpan.org/release/KJETILK/RDF-Generator-HTTP-0.003}, our process found 18 endpoints that responded with results. For all others, we parsed the response, and recorded any errors if the parser concluded the content were invalid.

For resource types other than “vocabulary”, we look for SPARQL endpoints in the response, using the predicates sd:endpoint and void:sparqlEndpoint. We then do the same query as above and record the relevant headers. Unfortunately, we found early that this only turns up misconfigured endpoints that point to localhost, and was removed from the spider for the final analysis.

Finally, if the Linked Open Vocabularies \footnote{https://metacpan.org/release/KJETILK/RDF-Generator-HTTP-0.003} SPARQL endpoint used a URI for the vocabulary that was different from the namespace URI (after a normalization step), another request would be made to record the selected HTTP headers from that as well.

4 Statistical method

The hypothesis tests in this paper were implemented using contingency tables (see e.g. \footnote{https://metacpan.org/release/KJETILK/RDF-Generator-HTTP-0.003}). This formalism is suited to see if the distribution of Server headers are different for those implementations that offer caching headers from those that don’t. Intuitively, we expect these distributions to be similar, “long-tail” distributions, i.e. a handful of servers are used by a large number of projects, and then it falls off rapidly, and so, some servers are used only by very few. Likewise, it is to be expected that only a few projects have given caching enough attention, but that they account for the majority of the support. The question is if the presence of caching headers is merely a matter of proportion, or if there are some that have given it more attention, but still is in relatively little use.

Using the statistics system R \footnote{https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/contingencyTables/index.html}, we use a statistical test, namely Pearson’s $\chi^2$ test with simulated $p$-value (based on 10000 replicates). The simulation is done using a Monte Carlo method to compensate for the fact that many servers
will not expose caching headers at all, an issue that would otherwise violate the underlying assumptions of the test.

Since the same test can be used for binned data in many different situations, we used it more informally in other parts of the paper as well.

5 Valid versus invalid responses

Since web servers may be configured to instruct clients and proxies to cache errors differently from successfully served requests, it is interesting to investigate whether we can simply use all cache headers in the analysis, or if we should remove unsuccessful responses to avoid introducing bias to the analysis of valid responses.

For a visual inspection, we may use a quantile-quantile plot to plot the freshness lifetimes of successful responses versus requests that failed for some reason. If the distribution of both variables are the same, these points will lie on a straight line. In Figure 1 we see successful responses vs. the most common parse error, and it is clear that these are so different that no further formal analysis is necessary. This is one of the reasons why we filtered unsuccessful requests before we analyzed the freshness lifetimes in the paper.

Figure 1: A quantile-quantile plot of freshness lifetimes for standard compliant headers with and without errors.
References


