Not All Hits Are Created Equal: Cooperative Proxy Caching Over a Wide-Area Network

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Abstract

Given the benefits of sharing a cache among large user populations, Internet Service Providers will likely enter into peering agreements to share their caches. This position paper describes an approach for inter-proxy cooperation in this environment. While existing cooperation models focus on maximizing global hit ratios, values of cache hits in this environment depend on peering agreements and access latency of various proxies. It may well be that obtaining an object directly from the Internet is less expensive and faster than from a distant cache. Our approach takes advantage of these distinctions to reduce the overhead for locating objects in the global cache.
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1 Introduction

Recent studies of Web access traces have shown significant benefits of providing a shared cache to a large user population. This prompted an active interest in large-scale distributed proxy caching platforms, in which multiple proxies cooperate and share cached objects.

Existing approaches to inter-proxy cooperation try to maximize global hit ratios. However, there are cases in which *distant* copies of objects in the cache may not be worth fetching, and for which the source server may be a better choice. This may certainly be the case in very wide area collective caches as might occur with cooperating and independently managed ISPs. Depending on peering agreements and characteristics of links between ISPs, it may be beneficial in terms of costs and/or latency to fetch an object from the source rather than an outside proxy. Note that for a caching platform contained entirely within an ISP, tradeoffs may be different depending on the pricing model. In a volume-based pricing model, it may be valuable to maximize hit ratio even at the expense of latency, to reduce the inflow of outside traffic. Such environments would be better served by existing approaches (e.g., [2, 3, 5, 7, 8], and many commercial products).

Given that there is little value in distant hits, our observation is that, in this type of environment, the system should not try to maximize the global hit ratio. Consequently, instead of paying the overhead for maintaining global location information of cached objects, each node in our present approach maintains a directory of objects cached in its vicinity. For each proxy this directory is different. While the global hit ratio is reduced, our approach sacrifices hits of little value.

In addition to reducing the space overhead for directories, our approach also eliminates the need for long-haul communication to propagate directory updates. Indeed, since a proxy does not need to know about objects cached at distant nodes, directory updates are always propagated among proxies in the vicinity of each other.

There are currently two proposals for cache cooperation at Internet peering points, from NLANR and Mirror Image Internet [11, 10]. These are the kinds of approaches which, when deployed over many peering points and ISPs, would benefit from our proposal.

2 Target Environment

Consider a collection of ISPs, each with a proxy. We do not consider the implementation of the ISP proxy - there are many commercial proxy products targeting the ISP market. For simplicity, we assume that each ISP maintains a centralized proxy cache. If an ISP implements its proxy internally as a distributed cooperative cache, it could designate a node to be a representative in its exchanges with other ISP proxies according to our approach. For instance, in the Harvest/Squid cooperation model [2], the ISP top-level cache could act as the representative; in the CRISP model [8], the role of the representative could be taken by the mapping server.

ISP proxies cooperate to share cached objects among their clients. We refer to a pair of ISP proxies that agreed to such cooperation as *neighbors*. Thus, for each proxy, there is a "neighborhood" of other ISP proxies with which it can communicate to satisfy requests. The information about the neighborhood of a proxy is provided by the proxy administrator based on the peering agreements of the proxy's ISP with other ISPs.

We assume each pair of neighbors is assigned a distance metric reflecting the costs of transferring data between them. This may include monetary costs, latency and bandwidth of the connection, etc. We assume that these metrics are globally comparable, that is, if the metric of a pair (i, j) is greater than that of (p, q), then sending data between i and j is more "expensive" than between p

and q. As an approximation, one could adopt an approach from BGP routing and assign metric 1 to all neighbor pairs.

Our goal is to exploit the knowledge of the neighborhoods to provide an efficient model for inter-proxy cooperation.

3 Related Work

A fundamental question distributed proxy architectures must resolve is how a cache that received a request for an object it does not have finds out if any other cache has it before declaring a global miss. The three main existing approaches include broadcast probe, exemplified by Harvest [2] and Squid [4], hash-partitioning of the object namespace among caches [3] and a directory service first proposed in CRISP [8].

None of these approaches scale well to inter-ISP caching. Broadcast probes degrade performance of global misses. On a global miss, a cache at every level of hierarchy must wait for the *slowest* response from all probed nodes before proceeding to the next level, which is especially harmful when any of the nodes do not respond or a message is dropped in the network. Moreover, the document is then passed through the tree on the way from the end-server to the client. Hash-partitioning does not respect any topological locality: requests from all clients for an object must go the cache responsible for that object regardless of the distance between the client and the cache. The simple directory service implemented in the first version of CRISP involves synchronous queries to the centralized directory on a local miss.

An enhancement to Harvest/Squid scheme, proposed in [15], improves utilization of aggregate cache space by eliminating duplicate copies stored in parents and children. On a wide area network, however, having multiple copies may actually be beneficial, since it reduces hit distances.

A follow-up work on CRISP studied various alternatives for a directory service [7]. One of the proposed alternatives is to fully replicate the directory on every proxy and asynchronously propagate local changes in each cache to the rest of the directories to keep all replicas weakly consistent. The main concern with this approach is space overhead for maintaining replicated directory on every node. A major improvement to the replicated directory approach is provided by the *summary cache* mechanism [5], which proposes a very compact way of approximating directory contents using Bloom filters. This proposal is orthogonal to our idea, where it can be used to

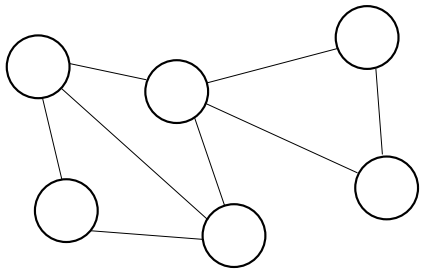

Figure 1: A neighborhood graph.

represent vicinity directories.

Another approach, proposed in [7], uses a central directory service in a novel way - only to identify a subdirectory of objects that are shared by more than one client. It is this subdirectory that is then replicated among the proxies. Beside identifying objects to be included in the subdirectory, the central directory is also used to keep subdirectory replicas on all proxies loosely consistent. While cutting substantially the space overhead, this approach sacrifices hits due to the second accesses to shared objects, which resulted in 5 percentage point drop in global hit ratio. Our present approach also reduces global hit ratio, but is targeted for a different environment and sacrifices a different class of hits: the hits that are distant enough to be of little value.

The work of [14] proposes to use a Harvest-style hierarchy to propagate object location hints. Since the system attempts to capture all global hits, it pays the overhead for maintaining and propagating hints even in cases when hits delivered by these hints would be of little value. Also, our proposal incorporates a much more direct notion of topological proximity.

A method to calculate a measure of usefulness of a cooperative relation between two caches is proposed in [12]. This (or similar) technique could be used by our approach to assign distance metrics automatically.

4 The Protocols

4.1 Communication Graph

The system is represented by a (not necessarily connected) *neighborhood graph* with proxies as nodes and edges connecting neighboring proxies (Figure 1). Each edge is labeled by a *distance metric* reflecting the costs/delay of transferring an object between the end-points. We assume for simplicity symmetric communication where transferring an object over the edge is the same in either

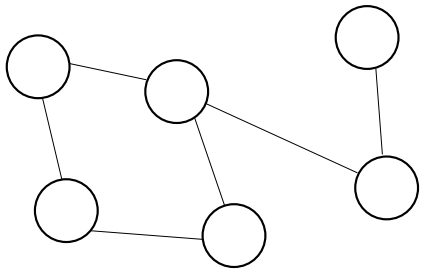

Figure 2: The communication graph corresponding to the neighborhood graph of Figure 1.

direction. It is straightforward to incorporate asymmetric communication models by assigning two distance metrics to an edge, one for each direction.

Based on this graph, a *communication graph* is constructed where each pair of nodes is connected via a shortest path on the neighboring graph. The communication graph is constructed using a protocol similar to the Internet's BGP routing protocol [9]. The same mechanism is also used by the system to automatically reconfigure the communication graph in response to node or link failures and repairs. Figure 2 shows the communication graph corresponding to the neighborhood graph of Figure 1.

Each node i maintains a directory of objects cached in the "vicinity" of the node, where the vicinity is defined to be a set of nodes whose distance from i is below a threshold v. An entry for object x, $dir(x)$ contains $dir(x).node$, the id of the proxy believed to be the closest one having x in its cache, and $dir(x).dist$, the distance from that proxy to i. The directory maintenance is done by forwarding changes in local cache contents along the communication paths and will be described shortly.

When a proxy needs to fetch an object from another proxy, it sends the request along the shortest path in the communication graph, which is again similar to Internet routing. It is important to note that, since no proxy ever requests objects from outside its vicinity, a proxy only needs to maintain a communication *sub*graph that covers its vicinity.

4.2 Directory Updates Ordering

One important detail our design must deal with is that there may be multiple communication paths between the same pair of nodes i and j. This may cause a node to learn about cache additions and deletions at other nodes in a wrong order, even if every edge in the communication graph is

a FIFO channel. As an example, consider the system with the communication graph of Figure 2. Assuming $v = 5$, node 4's vicinity includes nodes 1, 2, 3, and 4. Node 4 may learn about cache updates at node 1 via node 2 or node 3. Assume that node 1 added object x into its cache, then sent the notification to its neighbors (nodes 2 and 3) then removed object x from the cache and then sent another notification. If node 4 learns about both updates via node 2 and then receives a notification from node 3 containing just the first update (addition of x to node 1's cache) then it should not act on this last notification. Otherwise, it would erroneously add into its directory an entry indicating that x exists in node 1's cache.

Associating timestamps with directory entries introduces a problem of garbage collection of deleted entries: since the proxy no longer has timestamps of purges entries, it is difficult to distinguish whether a newly received update refers to a new entry (in which case it must be added to the directory) or to a deleted entry (in which case the update is obsolete and must be discarded). To efficiently ensure proper update ordering, we observe that a node should discard either all or none of the updates to any given node's cache from any notification message received. This allows us to avoid keeping timestamps for individual directory entries. Instead, we use *timestamp vectors*, which contain timestamps per node rather than per entry. Timestamp vectors of various flavors have been used in distributed computing for multiple purposes, and to the best of our knowledge, were first used for information dissemination in [13]. Formal treatment of timestamp vectors including proofs that they indeed avoid problems like the one of the above example, is given, e.g., in [6].

In our approach, each node i maintains a timestamp vector T_i. T_i has an element for every node in i's vicinity. Element T_{ij} contains the time of the last notification from j that i is aware of. (Note that i may become aware of a notification transitively, through other nodes.)

To see intuitively how timestamps can help, let us assume that, in the above example, node 1 generated its addition and deletion notifications to nodes 2 and 3 at local times 10 and 11, respectively. Then, the first notification will carry with it the timestamp vector with the element T_{11} equal to 10, while the second notification's timestamp vector will have T_{11} equal to 11. Since the notification from node 2 to 4 was sent after node 2 had seen both notifications from node 1, the notification from 2 to 4 will carry a timestamp with $T_{21} = 11$. Then, after receiving this notification, node 4 will also have timestamp vector with $T_{41} = 11$, and therefore will discard any updates originated from node 1 if they came in any notification message carrying a timestamp

vector in which the element corresponding to node 1 is less than or equal to 11. In this way, the stale update coming with the notification from node 3 will be discarded (note that other updates in this notification message, those regarding other nodes' caches, may still be fresh and should be added to node 4's directory).

4.3 Directory Maintenance

Every node i keeps a log of updates of its local cache (i.e., deletions from and additions to its cache), and also updates to its directory due to notifications from other proxies. Each update has a format $(p, x, action, dist, time)$, where p is the id of the node that originated the update (i.e., whose local cache changed), x is the id of the object, *action* tells whether an object was added to or removed from p's cache, *dist* gives the total distance between p and node i, and *time* gives the time of the change according to p's local clock. Node i also maintains a *notification set*, which is a subset of updates that i has yet to communicate further to its neighbors. An update is included in the notification set if *dist* is below a *vicinity threshold*, v. Finally, each node maintains a variable *age* which records the time of the oldest update in its notification set.

Whenever the difference between *age* and the current local time exceeds a delay threshold τ, node i sends its notification set to all its neighbors in the communication graph.[1] Prior to sending the notification set, i records the current value of its local clock in the timestamp vector element corresponding to itself, T_{ii}, and includes the entire timestamp vector in the notification message. i also records the local clock value in its *age* variable.

A node j, upon receiving the notification message from a neighbor i, executes the following steps (the algorithm below stresses clarity over efficiency - several straightforward performance improvements are possible).

1. For each node k such that T_{ik} and T_{jk} exist, if T_{jk} is equal to or greater than T_{ik}, discard all update records with $node = k$ from the notification set.

2. For each remaining update $(p, x, action, dist, time)$,

   - Update *dist* to equal $dist_{new} = dist + d_{ij}$, where d_{ij} is the distance label of the edge

[1] Note that we neglect the effects of clock skew on deciding when to propagate the notification set. Given that τ is in the order of minutes and clock synchronization on well-administered machines is within seconds, this seems a sensible practical decision. For a theoretically inclined, clock synchronization could be piggybacked on the notification exchange messages.

between i and j.

- If $dist_{new} \leq v$ (i.e., i is in j's vicinity) apply the update to the directory. For a deletion, if the directory contains an entry for x with the same node as that of the update record (i.e., $dir(x).node = node$), remove the entry. For an addition, if either the current directory has no entry for x or the entry lists a more distant node than that of the update (i.e., $dir(x).dist > dist_{new}$) add or replace the existing entry with a new entry with $dir(x).node = p$ and $dir(x).dist = dist_{new}$.
- If the directory was modified in the previous step, add the update $(p, x, action, dist_{new}, time)$ to the notification set, to be propagated further to j's neighbors in the next notification message.

3. Update j's timestamp vector. For each node k that has a corresponding element in T_i but not in T_j, create a new element $T_{jk} = T_{ik}$. For each node q that has elements in both vectors, set $T_{jk} = \max(T_{jk}, T_{ik})$.

4. Finally, if the oldest $time$ among the non-discarded updates received, $time_{oldest}$ is older (smaller) than the current value of age, then set age to $time_{oldest}$.

4.4 Request Processing

When a proxy receives a request for a page it does not have in its local cache, it checks its directory. If the object is found there, the proxy attempts to fetch it from the proxy listed in the corresponding directory entry, by forwarding the request to that proxy along the shortest proxy path in the communication graph. Otherwise, or if the above attempt fails, the proxy fetches the object from the Internet. In either case, the proxy may choose to add the object in its cache[2], in which case it adds an addition update to its notification set. If this caused removal of any objects from its cache, each removal generates a deletion update in the notification set. All these updates have $dist = 0$.

Since a proxy is notified of only updates that occur at proxies within distance v, its directory will only index the contents of these proxies. This limits the size of the directory and the notification traffic. On the other hand, modulo the notification delay, the directory on every proxy reflects the whole contents of all proxy caches in the proxy's vicinity. The analysis of the DEC trace indicated that a propagation delay of $5 - 10$ minutes resulted in negligible decrease in the hit ratio [14]. Thus,

[2]We do not discuss policies for admitting or discarding objects in the cache here.

if the delay is limited to the above number (which is more than reasonable in practice), virtually all vicinity hits will be utilized.

5 Self-Synchronization

The protocol, as described, may exhibit a *self-synchronization* property. This property, which is a common danger in networking, means that all nodes eventually start taking a certain action in unison, degrading the system performance. In our case, the system may converge to a situation where many nodes send notifications at about the same time. This could result in periodic bursts of traffic. While the likelihood of this danger in our case is unclear at this point, we could guard against it by varying τ randomly (within certain limits) at each node.

6 Dynamic Vicinities

As a future work, one can extend our vicinity caching scheme to allow different vicinity thresholds for different Web sites. With this extension, a proxy learns about performance of fetches from various end-servers and chooses site-specific vicinity thresholds correspondingly. Sites with similar performance are put into equivalence classes, called *vicinity classes*, which can be represented compactly by Bloom filters [1] or by higher level domain names. For instance, a proxy in Germany may choose a higher vicinity threshold for .com sites than for .de sites. When a notification arrives, the proxy discards directory updates whose distance exceeds the threshold of the class to which the corresponding site belongs.

If the number of vicinity classes becomes large, a proxy may choose to build an index over Bloom filters to quickly find the class to which a given Web site belongs. Split all vicinity classes into two groups, represent each group by a combined filter (logical OR of all member filters). Within each group, divide all classes into two groups again, and so forth, until each group contains one (or a small number of) classes. This results in a tree of class groups, where descendant groups are contained in their parent groups. To find the class to which the Web site belongs, descend from the root to a leaf in the group tree so that each group on the path matches the site's bits. Once a leaf group is reached, check each class in this group until the matching class is found. This is a binary search with logarithmic complexity.

In a similar fashion, proxies can *measure* the distance metric to their neighbors. The metrics

are then propagated throughout the network along with notifications and used to compute the communication graph and the shortest paths between proxies.

7 Conclusion

This paper outlines a new model for cooperation between Internet proxy caches. The underlying observation is that as the network distance between proxies increases, the value of obtaining an object from another proxy quickly decreases, as compared to obtaining it directly from the Internet. Existing approaches that attempt to always maximize the hit rate incur overhead for locating objects in other caches without necessarily benefiting from finding those objects.

On the other hand, in our approach, each proxy indexes only the objects cached in its "vicinity" in the network. Thus, the overhead for object location is incurred only when it pays off to find the object.

Our approach should be especially useful for inter-ISP cache sharing. The growing interest to such sharing is evidenced by the proposals from NLANR and Mirror Image Interenet for cache cooperation at Internet peering points [11, 10]. The paper describes the basic architecture and protocols of our approach. An implementation of this approach is underway.

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