

Using Link Analysis to Improve Layout on Mobile Devices

Xinyi Yin

Department of Computer Science
National University of Singapore,
Singapore 117543.
yinxinyi@comp.nus.edu.sg

Wee Sun Lee

Department of Computer Science and
Singapore-MIT Alliance,
National University of Singapore,
Singapore 117543.
leews@comp.nus.edu.sg

ABSTRACT

Delivering web pages to mobile phones or personal digital assistants has become possible with the latest wireless technology. However, mobile devices have very small screen sizes and memory capacities. Converting web pages for delivery to a mobile device is an exciting new problem. In this paper, we propose to use a ranking algorithm similar to Google's PageRank algorithm to rank the content objects within a web page. This allows the extraction of only important parts of web pages for delivery to mobile devices. Experiments show that the new method is effective. In experiments on pages from randomly selected websites, the system needed to extract and deliver only 39% of the objects in a web page in order to provide 85% of a viewer's desired viewing content. This provides significant savings in the wireless traffic and downloading time while providing a satisfactory reading experience on the mobile device.

Categories & Subject Descriptors

H.4.3 [Communications Applications]: Communications Applications - Information browsers; H.5.2 [User Interfaces]: User Interfaces - Graphical user interfaces (GUI);

General Terms: Design, Algorithms, Human Factors

Keywords: PDA (Personal Digital Assistant), HTML, WWW (World Wide Web), Link Analysis

1. INTRODUCTION

Web content is currently designed for the desktop personal computer (PC) with a big monitor and rich memory resources. PC users can use a convenient input device such as a mouse to retrieve any web page from any website. Downloading time is rarely a problem as the PCs are usually connected to the internet through high capacity lines and the large screen allows many irrelevant objects such as advertisements to be placed on the screen without overly distracting the user.

In the past five years, many mobile devices with medium and small sized screen and limited memory have appeared. For example, it is now possible to browse the web using personal digital assistants (PDA) such as the Palm or Pocket PC. The mobile phone, which is currently the most popular mobile device, has many features that make browsing the internet possible. However, these devices are not ideal platforms for surfing the web. First, the wireless bandwidth is quite limited and very expensive. Secondly, the screen size varies and can be very small, for example 120*90. Third, some

devices, such as mobile phones, have very limited memory capability. Normally, the content of a single web page will be larger than what a mobile phone can hold.

Researchers have spent a lot of effort in solving the problem of enabling such devices to view the web content in a satisfactory manner. Some of the solutions work in the push model, like [16], where the selected content is pushed to the PDA through a synchronization process. Others use pull model, like Opera browser, where the content is extracted and optimized. Normally, these methods display the whole web page. The disadvantage of this approach is the long downloading time when bandwidth is limited and the large amount of scrolling required in order to get to the relevant parts of the web page.

This paper presents a system that provides automatic conversion of web content into a form that is optimized for mobile devices. Our approach is to extract and present only the important parts of the web page for delivery to the mobile device. Such a method saves not only download time but also the time spent scrolling on the small screen devices. Errors in extraction by the system can be corrected by allowing the user to request the whole page if they are not satisfied with the extracted content. If the extraction error can be kept at a minimal level, such a system will provide a more pleasant experience for surfing the web on a mobile device.

The basic technology behind the approach is a ranking algorithm for elements of a web page. The idea behind the ranking algorithm is to first represent a web page as a graph model and then exploiting the graph structure to rank the elements. To obtain the graph, we first divide the page into inseparable basic elements. We assume that the user is entering a web page from a link. Based on the type, size, physical position shape and similarity to the anchor text of the in-link, we give each basic element an initial rank value. We use weighted edges to represent relationships between two basic elements. The weights are a function of attributes of the two elements, such as word similarity and physical proximity of the elements within the page. This graph representation of a web page is quite different from the commonly used tree-based analysis of web pages. It is predominantly semantic-based instead of syntax-based, although it is possible to exploit syntactic information to improve the effectiveness of the representation.

The graph model of a single web page is made up of hundreds of basic elements that are linked to each other in a very complex manner. Such structure is similar to the whole Internet, which is also made up of many interrelated web pages. The most successful ranking algorithm for web pages is a random walk model used by the Google search engine. The web is treated as a graph on which surfers move randomly from page to page according to the links on the page. The ranking of the web page is then the expected number of surfers visiting the page at any time.

We assume that the manner in which a person reads a web page is similar to how a surfer surfs the web. The reader enters the page through a link and is drawn to elements that are related to the anchor text in the link and are located in central positions on the page. After reading an element, the reader moves on to a highly related element. By modeling the strength of connections between elements according to their similarity, we are using a simplified model of the movement of the readers' attention on the web page. We then rank the elements according to the expected number of readers reading the particular element at any time. Based on the rankings, we select a rectangle covering all the important elements of the web page and transmit the content of the rectangle.

The contributions of this paper include a new approach for enabling pleasant surfing experience on mobile devices and a new model for processing HTML document. Rather than the traditional tree model, we convert the HTML document into a graph which allows us to use Google's successful PageRank approach for finding important elements in the document.

We organize the paper in the following way. In section 2, we give an overview of the system. In section 3, we will give the design of the system. In section 4 we will discuss the dataset, and describe the evaluation of the system. Section 5 is about related works. In section 6, we will give our conclusion and the direction for future research.

2. CONVERTING A WEB PAGE INTO A GRAPH

2.1 Basic Elements

To construct a graph from a web page, we first identify the nodes, which are the basic elements in the web page. Then we specify the edges of the graph which encode the relationships between pairs of basic elements.

Researchers have proposed different methods to divide an HTML page into logical blocks. For example, [5] proposed a visual based method to analyze the structure of a web page, and [2] provides a method to automatically understand the semantic structure of HTML pages based on detecting visual similarities of content objects. In our system, we use simpler objects as nodes in the graph: all the non-overlapping visible elements in an HTML page. We use the DOM interface provided by the web browser. From bottom up we identify nodes by using two simple rules:

1. A visible object like an image, link or text paragraph will be a basic element if it is not overlapping with another child or its parent node.
2. For overlapping objects, the minimal container of the two objects will be a potential element to be verified by the rule 1. The algorithm will seek from bottom up to locate the nearest common container, and the container will be treated as one node.

For example, a web page may contain many links that are not overlapping with each other. Each of the links will be treated as basic element. Another web page may have a text paragraph with a link. Here we have two overlapping objects. The bigger one, the text paragraph, will be chosen to be checked by rule 1. If the text paragraph is not overlapping other elements at a higher level, it will be chosen, otherwise we will recursively search upward. In this manner, all the visible objects in a web page will be elements allocated to nodes in the graph.

As shown below. Our algorithm will convert the original web page into a list of basic elements.



Figure 1. Original HTML page

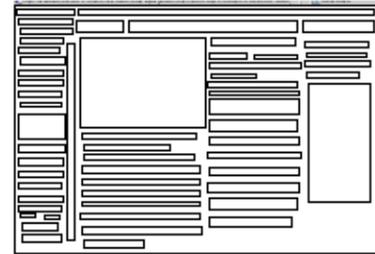


Figure 2. Decompose the original HTML page

2.2 Graph

Assume that we have N basic elements. We will build a graph such that the sum of the weights coming out of each node is 1. This allows us to use the weight on the edge as the probability of a reader going to the next element along that edge.

We first introduce an additional node S which can be considered as source of visitors to the web page. This node also serves as the sink where readers who stop reading at any particular element will go to.

Based on the features of a basic element, we will connect it to the source S with a weight that represents its contribution to the topic of a web page. We take the following features into consideration:

1. Size (Ps): An element with bigger size is more important than a smaller one. The contribution of size to the importance of element i can be calculated by

$$Ps(i) = Size(i) / \sum_{j=1}^N Size(j)$$

where size is measured by the number of pixels.

2. Text length (Pt): Element with longer visible text has higher importance. The length is the number of visible words. For example, A link with longer anchor text will draw more attention. The contribution of text length can be calculated by:

$$Pt(i) = Length(i) / \sum_{j=1}^N Length(j)$$

3. Match (Pm): Visitors from the source S will pay more attention to the content that is similar to S . We calculate the cosine similarity between the visible text in the element and the anchor text of S . We also use a stop word list including non-informative words that are commonly used in the internet context such as "click" "next" "more" "read" and others.
4. Width/height ratio (Pr): The shape of an element reflects its importance. For example, for an image, a regular image is

usually more important than an irregular image. We use the following formula to calculate the value for images:

$$\Pr(i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0.3 < \text{Width}(i) / \text{Height}(i) < 3 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

For different categories of elements we will use different formulas. For a text block we use a formula that favors higher Width/Height value:

$$\Pr(i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \text{Width}(i) / \text{Height}(i) > 4 \\ 0.5 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

5. Physical offset (Pp): Physical position is calculated by pixels. This is actually a very important feature. Element closer to the center point is more important than those near the edge of the page. We calculate the position information from, first, the physical distance between the center of the element and the center of the screen and second its horizontal offset information. Let the screen center be (X_c, Y_c) and the center of element i be (X_i, Y_i) . Then

$$\text{dis}(i) = 1 - \frac{\sqrt{(X_i - X_c)^2 + (Y_i - Y_c)^2}}{\sqrt{4X_c^2 + 4Y_c^2}}$$

$$\text{offsetX} = 2 * X_i / \text{ScreenWidth}$$

$$\text{offsetX}(i) = \begin{cases} \text{offsetX} & \text{if } 0.3 < \text{offsetX} < 0.7 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$Pp(i) = \text{offsetX}(i) + \text{dis}(i)$$

In this formula we specially take X offset into consideration because normally a web designer will put the important content in the center of the screen, while both left and right sides are for irrelevant or less important content. However, we did not make use of the vertical offset, as we see that important content in a web page can be very long.

We normalize the distance with the diagonal of the whole HTML page. All the constant value in the formula is chosen according to an ordinary web page layout.

The weight from the source S to node i is calculated by the function $W(S, i)$ where

$$W(S, i) = I(S, i) / \sum_{j=1}^N I(S, j) \text{ and}$$

$$I(S, i) = W1 * Ps(i) + W2 * Pt(i) + W3 * Pm(i) + W4 * Pr(i) + W5 * Pp(i).$$

The weight represents the probability that the reader's eye goes to each of the element as he enters the web page; it is obvious that not all the elements are equally likely to be viewed.

From each node i , we also set a weight $W(i, S) = \beta$, $0 \leq \beta \leq 1$ to indicate the probability that the person stops reading at node i and goes back to the source node S .

As described earlier, the weight of the edge between any two basic elements is an evaluation of how likely the reader is to continue with the second element after reading the first. It is calculated using the following features:

1. Distance $Pd(i, j)$: The physical distance (in pixels) of two elements in the layout of an html page.

$$Pd(i, j) = 1 - \frac{\sqrt{(X_i - X_j)^2 + (Y_i - Y_j)^2}}{\sqrt{4X_c^2 + 4Y_c^2}}$$

2. Horizontal offset (Ph): set as 1 if two element's horizontal offset is the same, otherwise 0.
3. Neighborhood (Pn): Set as 1 if two elements are neighbors, otherwise 0.
4. Match (Pm): the cosine similarity between the visible texts in the two elements.
5. Width (Pw): Set as 1 if two elements have the same width, otherwise 0.

The similarity $S(i, j)$ between distinct elements i and j is calculated by the sum of the five features. For a node i , we have already used up a weight of β for the link back to the source. Of the remaining amount $(1 - \beta)$, we use a fraction α as the loop back to itself to indicate that the user continues reading on the element for a period. Hence $W(i, i) = (1 - \beta)\alpha$. The weight from distinct nodes i to j is then calculated as

$$W(i, j) = (1 - \beta)(1 - \alpha)S(i, j) / \sum_{k=1}^N S(i, k).$$

2.3 Random Walk on the Graph

In section 2.2, we have described the algorithm to convert any web page into a graph, with the nodes representing the basic elements, and edges representing the relationship between the basic elements. In this way we convert an html web page into a structure that is similar to the whole internet.

The most successful search engine is Google, which proposed the idea of "PageRank" to describe the importance or quality of a single webpage. In our paper we will borrow the idea of PageRank to calculate the importance and quality of each basic node in a web page. PageRank can be thought of as a model of user behavior, where a user is given a random web page and he will follow the links until he get bored. The probability of a user visiting a web page is proportional to the PageRank, which can be calculated iteratively by

$$PR^t(i) = (1 - d) + d \sum_{(j, i) \in E} PR^{t-1}(j) / C(i)$$

where $PR^t(i)$ is the PageRank of node i at time t , E is the set of edges, $C(i)$ is the number of links going out of page i and $(1 - d)$ is the probability that the user will get bored and leave a certain web page back to the source. Note that in PageRank all out links are treated equally. In contrast, we have more information based on the

similarity between elements, hence have given different weights to different links.

We can similarly calculate a ranking that is proportional to the probability of a reader being at a node by using an iterative algorithm that does the following updates

$$R^t(i) = \sum_{j=1}^N W(j,i)R^{t-1}(j) + W(S,i)R^{t-1}(S)$$

and

$$R^t(S) = \beta \sum_{j=1}^N R^{t-1}(j),$$

where $R^t(i)$ is the ranking of node i at time t . The value $R^t(i)$ converges to a value that is proportional to the probability of being at the node (the first eigenvector of the transition matrix).

3 EXTRACTING AND OPTIMIZING

3.1 Extracting Relevant Elements

The task of a search engine is to return the top results that match the search query. Google achieves this by first gathering the matched web pages and then returning them in the order of its PageRank. However, even though we have the ranking for each element in the web page, we cannot simply return the elements to the user by its rank. In a search engine, every individual webpage is independent and it does not matter if one web page is returned before or after another web page. But in our system, there are semantic and logical relationship between the elements and the order of relevant elements has to be returned as it appeared in the original web page. The user will feel unhappy if he gets an article extracted from a web page that looks nice but has the wrong ordering of the elements.

Our design goal is return user the most relevant content, which is those with the highest ranks, but still need to keep the original look and feel on the mobile device. We use a simple heuristic to retrieve complete article based on the ranking of the elements.

```

Select ()
{
    list.insert(topnode);
    T1= I(S,topnode);
    T2=R(topnode);
    while(node=list.getNext()!=NULL)
    {
        d=Distance(topNode,node);
        tw=f1(d)*T1;
        for(each ni W(node, ni)>tw)
        {
            tr=f2(d)*T2;
            if(R(ni)>tr)
            {
                list.insert(ni);
            }
        }
    }
}

```

As the algorithm moves away from the top node (calculated by $d=Distance(topNode, node)$, the number of links between topNode and node), we increase the threshold tw on the weight. Otherwise, the algorithm may traverse a weak link and reach to the center of an

irrelevant part of the document. We use linear functions $f1(d) = 1+C_1d$ and $f2(d)=1-C_2d$, which increases the tw on each link traversed, and decrease the threshold on rank tr to allow element with lower rank to join. We decrease the threshold on the rank because we believe that relevant nodes further away from the center node may have lower rank.

After we obtain the list, we will put the element in its original position in the web page and find a minimal rectangle that covers all the nodes. The procedure guarantees the integrity of the original content.

3.2 Optimizing for Mobile Device

In the previous section we obtained a rectangle within a web page that encloses the true article. The target rectangle may be larger than most mobile devices; we need optimize the content and make sure it looks nice on the end device.

We have the following design goals:

1. Minimize vertical scrolling action on small screen device and eliminate horizontal scrolling action.
2. Maximize the similarity between the layout of the optimized content and the original web page.

We convert the HTML layout so that the width of the re-rendered HTML page is smaller than the screen size. To maximize the similarity between the original page and the re-rendered page, we need to retain the HTML hierarchy structure of the original page. Our algorithm can be described as from Figure 3 to 5.



Figure 3. Original HTML page

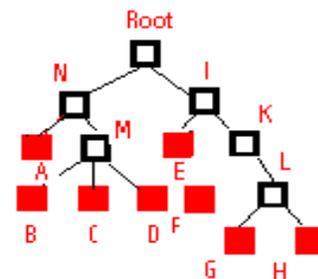


Figure 4. Layout tree

In Figure 3, the search engine indicates a larger area that will be returned to a mobile device. In Figure 4, the system will put the elements in the selected rectangle in a “Layout Tree” structure. The layout tree has the following features.

1. Each element maintains hierarchical relationship in the original HTML tree.
2. Each node has a rectangle data that records the area that it occupies in original HTML page.
3. Children of the same parent node are at the same hierarchical level in the original HTML tree.

The parent node's rectangle is the minimal rectangle that covers all the children's rectangles.



Figure 5. Optimized result

The layout tree is built bottom-up, As seen in Fig 4, suppose node B, C, D is at the same hierarchical in the original HTML tree, so we put it under the node M and set the rectangle of M as the minimal rectangle that covers B C D, then M and A shares the same parent nodes, and so on.

The algorithm to re-render the HTML can be described as the following recursive algorithm

```
Render(node)
{
  if( node.child=NULL ) return node.HTML;
  if(node.width>Screen_Width)
  { //if larger than the screen, recursively call each child.
    for(each child for node)
      result += render (node.nextChild);
  }
  else
  { //The screen is wide enough to put all child nodes
    for( each child for node)
      result += node.nextChild.HTML;
  }
}
```

If we call Render() with root node as parameter, it will return the optimized HTML page. Suppose the root's width is wider than the small screen, the algorithm recursively call render with to nodes N and I to process each sub tree. If the node N's width is still wider than the screen, we recursive call Render(A) and Render(M). At the node M, suppose it is not wider than the screen width, so we return B C D's HTML source. In case when the width of basic element is larger than the window, we will zoom in the content to fit the screen. Figure 5 shows the result.

4. EXPERIMENT RESULT AND ANALYSIS

We have implemented the system to test our ideas. We have two goals in the system. The first is to satisfy the user's information

need. We try to deliver all the information that a user wants in a web page. The second is to save the bandwidth and minimize scrolling in the mobile device. We will use the following measure to evaluate the effectiveness of the system.

1. The recall value R:
 $R = \frac{\text{retrieved elements that are relevant}}{\text{all the relevant elements}}$
 (We calculate by the area it occupies in the web page)
2. The percentage of returned elements of the extraction:
 $\text{Return} = \frac{\text{number of retrieved elements}}{\text{number of elements on the web page}}$

It is preferred that the system deliver as little content as possible while achieving the high average recall.

We created the test data in the following manner.

First, we randomly selected 158 websites from Google directory, under the category of news. From each web site we chose an average of 5 web pages and recorded the anchor text of the links that lead to the pages.

Second, for each web page, we allowed a user read the anchor text. Here we require that the anchor text is made up of meaningful sentence, rather than link like "read" or "click". We ask the user to use the mouse to specify the area that she wanted to read on mobile device. We recorded the web site name, the anchor text, and the area specified by the user. We use a total of three different users for this task.

In this manner, we collected altogether 788 web pages. We further divided the set for design and evaluation purposes. We set aside 580 sample pages to use in designing the system and adjusting the parameters. The remaining 208 samples are never seen and used only for evaluation. The design set and evaluation set do not share any page from the same web site.

We set a target average recall rate as the goal, and try to obtain a system that satisfies the recall rate using the design set. We then evaluate the return rate in the delivery on both the design and evaluation set. The return rate on the evaluation set should be a fair indication on future performance as we have never seen the pages during the design process. For the experiment we set the target average recall to be 85%. We did not use 100% because many of the elements selected by the user are actually ambiguous and hence the additional benefits of achieving total recall are small. Secondly, we believe on the mobile device people not would prefer to use the limited resource to read the most important content. In most cases we do not attach the similar importance for completeness as we do on desktop computer. We compare our system with three different algorithms.

1. Simple Match: We calculate cosine similarity between the anchor texts with every basic element. We select all the elements where the similarity is above a threshold and return elements in the smallest rectangle surrounding the selected elements.
2. Extended Match: Based on the result of the simple match, we do a second round calculation to calculate the cosine similarity between selected elements with the other elements. If the similarity is above certain threshold, we add the new element to selected list and return elements in the smallest rectangle surrounding the selected elements.
3. Initial Ranking: We give each element an initial rank and weight as described in section 2.2 and return the elements in the smallest rectangle surrounding the elements with initial ranking above a threshold.

- Full implementation of our algorithm, the initial condition is set the same as 3. We improve it with our random walk and extraction algorithm.

Table 1: Experiment Result

Method	Recall_1	Return_1	Recall_2	Return_2
1	0.55	20.8%	0.62	32.4%
2	0.71	85.9%	0.72	78.1%
3	0.72	65.9%	0.75	63.5%
4	0.86	39.3%	0.85	38.2%

In the table, “Recall_1” and “Return_1” are the experiment result on design set which is used to select thresholds and to set the values of other parameters. “Recall_2” and “Return_2” are the result on the evaluation set. In our experiment, we set $\beta=0.25$, $\alpha=0.85$, $W1=1$, $W2=1$, $W3=3$, $W4=1$ and $W5=2$. The “word match” and “extended match” algorithms can only reach to maximum recall of 0.55 and 0.71 respectively no matter how we set the parameters. For the “initial ranking” method a recall of 0.72 can be achieved, 65% of the elements on the web page need to be delivered. Initial ranking really provide valuable additional information, but it is not sufficient. We need information from the graph in order to achieve better performance. With our algorithm we just need to deliver 39.3% to achieve a better recall. In the evaluation set, we observed a similar pattern.

On average the algorithm need to return only about 38% of all the elements in a web page to reach a recall above 0.85. We believe this result is encouraging for mobile device. First of all, 38% of the elements do not mean only 62% of traffic savings. Actually the saving in bandwidth is much higher because most of the elements that are removed are usually multimedia elements or advertisements.

Secondly, 0.85 of recall does not mean that user normally does not get a full article. We checked the samples where the algorithm fails to work well. It is usually because the anchor text of the link is irrelevant to the topic of the web page. In addition to that, under our current data collecting methods, it is likely that no algorithm can get a 100% recall, as errors caused by the ambiguity of the selection are probably unavoidable. For example, consider the following web page shown in Figure 6.



Figure 6. Sample Page

The red rectangle is what user defined as relevant. It covers the entire article but the edge is not precise. The black rectangle is what the algorithm returns as positive. The algorithm is 100% correct. But if we calculate the recall by our definition, it is only 0.90.

The algorithm performs consistently on both the design and evaluation case. This shows that the algorithm is stable over different websites. Based on these results, we are confident that our system and implementation achieves the design goal. However, all the sample websites are chosen from Google directory. It is likely that most of them are well organized and designed. The tester selected links with meaningful anchor text to click on and this is also helpful for the algorithm. More research work needs to be done in the future for the real world Internet where a lot of irregular web pages and misleading anchor text might exist.

Ideally, the algorithm will be loaded in a personal gateway, which can be our own desktop computer. It will retrieve and render the page in its memory on the behalf of the mobile device, and use the algorithm to optimize the webpage before sending the optimized page to the mobile device wirelessly. Normally optimization of a web page can be done within 1 second on a normal Pentium III computer. Because the desktop is connected to Internet with cable and only small part of the page is delivered wirelessly, adding the optimization part will not greatly decrease the performance. A personal gateway will also facilitate personalization with less privacy issues.

5. RELATED WORK

Google [1] proposed that web is a graph on which surfers move randomly from page to page according to the links on the page. We believe the manner in which a person reads a web page is similar to how a surfer surfs the web. The reader enters the page through a link and is drawn to elements that are related to the anchor text in the link and are located in central positions on the page. After reading an element, the reader moves on to a highly related element. Google returns the search result ranked by the page rank, while we rank the elements in a web page and return the top content for the mobile device. In [21], the author proposed topic distillation, which is the process of finding authoritative web pages that are relevant to a given query. These pages are called the “hubs” by the author. This is quite related to our work, as we are trying to find the “hub” of the topic within one single web page from an anchor text, using a similar algorithm.

The SmartView system in [11] is based on idea of “divide and view”. The system performs partitioning of HTML document content into logical sections that can further be selected by the user and viewed independently from the rest of the document. The advantage of [11] is that it allows the user to randomly access any website and gives the user full control of which content to be displayed without predefining a “hot area”. However, the system in [11] does not handle the situation when a logical section is much bigger than the screen size of the target device, as is almost always the case if user is surfing a web page on a mobile phone. In [20], the authors proposed the idea of partitioning the web page into regions where each region has the same functionality or topic.

This work is related to the research area of web page cleaning, which assumes that the useful information on the web is always accompanied by a large amount of noise such as banner, advertisement, navigation bars, copyright notices, etc. [14]. Usually a web cleaning system will study and compare a lot of samples from a single site and learn the rules to identify “what is noise?” However, we are solving the same problem from the different angle. Our system answers the question “what is not noise?” and our system does not require more than a single page from the same

site. This feature makes it a very ideal solution for mobile devices where we could not predict what web page a user may want to read.

The web is not personalized and device independent. Most of the commercial systems create special web content for the mobile devices, for example, web Clipping [17], NTT i-Mode [18], AvantGo [16]. This solution has its limitation. The surfing experience and content is different, and the cost to maintain this service and to synchronize with the PC web is difficult. We believe mobile Internet is an extension of existing Internet and we should develop systems that convert the content in the Internet to a format that is suitable for various small screen devices. The systems need to perform three functions, including scaling, manually authoring, transforming. The functions are summarized in [6]. For example, [7] and [8] use summaries of single or multiple pages to present to the user. [9] and [16] describe the process of manually extracting only the useful information from the existing web. [10] proposed a sophisticated method for performing transformation.

6. CONCLUSION

Our goal is to design a system that can deliver device independent content to mobile devices from any web page in order to fulfill the user's information need on devices that have minimal computing power, screen and bandwidth available. We achieve this by ranking the importance of each element in a given web page and generating a customized "web" for mobile devices. In this paper, we proposed three interesting ideas. First, it is possible to represent the HTML web page with a graph structure. Second, based on our ranking algorithm that is similar to Google's PageRank, the system can understand what the most important topic of a web page is. Third, we develop an algorithm to reformat and optimize the subset of the original web page for different mobile device. Our experiments show that in the vast majority of cases the proposed system provides the expected results, making it a useful system.

With the current system, it is possible to navigate by following links that are located within the main article. However, on many sites, special navigation links are provided for navigating within the site. Most of these links are located on the top or side of the web page and will be removed by the current algorithm. Further work is required to handle these navigation requirements before the system is truly friendly for surfing on mobile devices.

With the development of wireless technology and emergence of various mobile devices, people will not be limited to the desktop computer. We will access the Internet through all possible devices. Instead of building different webs for different devices, we strongly believe that the right direction is to convert and deliver the same content in different ways to different devices.

7. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank the anonymous referees for their insightful comments.

8. REFERENCES

- [1] Sergey Brin, Lawrence Page. The Anatomy of a Large-Scale Hypertextual Web Search Engine. WWW 1998 / Computer Networks 30(1-7): 107-117
- [2] Yudong Yang, HongJiang Zhang. HTML Page Analysis Based on Visual Cues In ICDAR (2001)
- [3] Shipeng Yu, Deng Cai, Ji-Rong Wen, Wei-Ying Ma. Improving pseudo-relevance feedback in web information retrieval using web page segmentation. In Proceedings of the 11th World Wide Web Conference (WWW 12), 2003.
- [4] Yu Chen, Wei-Ying Ma, Hong-Jiang Zhang. Detecting web page structure for adaptive viewing on small form factor devices. In Proceedings of the 11th World Wide Web Conference (WWW 12), 2003.
- [5] Xiao-Dong Gu, Jinlin Chen, Wei Ying Ma, Guo-Liang Chen Visual Based Content Understanding towards Web Adaptation. In: Second International Conference on Adaptive Hypermedia and Adaptive Web-based Systems 2002, Spain.
- [6] Trevor, J. Hilbert, D.M., Schilit, B.N., Koh, T.K: From desktop to phone top, a UI for web interaction on very small devices. Processings of the 14th annual ACM symposium on user interface software and technology (UIST2001)
- [7] Buyukkokten, O., Garcia-Molina, H., Paepcke, A., T. Winograd. Power Browser: Efficient Web Browsing for PDAs. In Proceedings of the ACM Conference on Computers and Human Interaction 2000 (CHI'00)
- [8] Buyukkokten, O., Garcia-Molina, H., Paepcke, A. Seeing the Whole in Parts: Text Summarization for Web Browsing on Handheld Devices. In the Proceedings of the 10th World Wide Web Conference (WWW 10), 2001.
- [9] Bickmore, T., Schilit, B. Digester. Device Independent Access to the World Wide Web. In the Proceedings of the Sixth International World Wide Web Conference (WWW 6), 1997.
- [10] H. Bharadvaj, A. Joshi, and S. Auephanwiriyakul, "An active transcoding proxy to support mobile web access," Proceedings of 17th IEEE Symposium on Reliable Distributed Systems, West Lafayette, IN, USA, October 1998.
- [11] Natasa Milic-Frayling, Ralph Sommerer. SmartView: Flexible Viewing of Web Page Contents. In Proceedings of the 11th World Wide Web Conference (WWW 11), 2002.
- [12] Corin R. Anderson and Eric Horvitz. Web Montage: A Dynamic Personalized Start Page. In Proceedings of the 11th World Wide Web Conference (WWW 11), 2002.
- [13] Corin R. Anderson, Pedro Domingos, and Daniel S. Weld. Adaptive Web Navigation for Wireless Devices. In Proceedings of the 17th International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI-01). 2001
- [14] Lan Yi, Bing Liu. Eliminating Noisy Information in Web Pages for Data Mining. Proceedings of the ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery & Data Mining (KDD-2003), Washington, DC, USA, August 24 - 27, 2003
- [15] Lan Yi, Bing Liu. "Web Page Cleaning for Web Mining through Feature Weighting" To appear in Proceedings of Eighteenth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI-03), Aug 9-15, 2003, Acapulco, Mexico
- [16] AvantGo <http://www.avantgo.com>
- [17] MOZAT <http://www.mozat.com>
- [18] Web Clipping <http://www.palmos.com/dev/tech/webclipping/>
- [19] NTT i-Mode <http://www.ntt.co.jp/>
- [20] Ziv Bar-Yossef, Sridhar Rajagopalan. Template Detection via Data Mining and its Applications. In Proceedings of the 11th World Wide Web Conference (WWW 11), 2002.
- [21] Soumen Chakrabarti. Integrating the Document Object Model with Hyperlinks for Enhanced Topic Distillation and Information Extraction. In the Proceedings of the 10th World Wide Web Conference (WWW 10), 2001.