

Building Digital Libraries: An Overview

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Abstract

Tools, techniques and protocols necessary for building up digital libraries have now fully evolved with computing power that allows parallel processing, multitasking, parallel consultation and parallel knowledge navigation and software tools that facilitate artificial intelligence and interactivity. Coincided with availability of software, hardware and networking technology, the advent of world wide web (WWW), its ever increasing usage and highly evolved browsers have paved the way for creation of digital libraries. With rapid developments in technologies necessary for developing digital libraries, the world of digital information resources has expanded rapidly and exponentially. Increasing number of publishers are using the internet as a global way to offer their publications to the international community of scientists and technologists. With the technology available at an affordable cost, the libraries are initiating small digitisation projects as an individual library or as a group of libraries. Building-up digital collection and the infrastructure required to access them is a challenge that every library has to deal with. The article delves into technological evolution, cultural revolution and contents enrichment that led to revolution in growth and development of digital libraries. The article has two distinct parts, while the first part deals with various aspects of building, accessing and organising digital resources and collection, the second part elaborates on the process, technology, formats, compression techniques and tools used in digital imaging. The article describes optical character recognition (OCR) and advocates for hybrid solution for preservation of digital information.

1. INTRODUCTION

Computerisation of the library during past few decades has focused heavily on creation of surrogate records of printed documents available in a library or for providing computerised services through secondary databases held locally on CD-ROM or magnetic tapes. The integrated library packages have served well in providing access to documents at bibliographic level. Similarly, secondary services like MEDLINE, INSPEC, COMPENDEXplus and CAS have proved themselves as effective tools for bibliographic control of research information. However, since these databases provided only bibliographic information on research

articles, users had to depend heavily on physical collection available either in their institutional library or on interlibrary loan from other libraries for references retrieved from the secondary services. Attempts were made in past to make the full text of research articles available through online search services, although technology available till late 1980s and early 1990s supported only simple text (ASCII) without graphics. Tools, techniques and protocols necessary for building-up digital libraries evolved with availability of computing power that allows parallel processing, multitasking, parallel consultation and parallel knowledge navigation and software tools that facilitate

artificial intelligence and interactivity. Coincided with the availability of software, hardware and networking technology, the advent of world wide web (WWW), its ever increasing usage and highly evolved browsers have paved the way for creation of digital libraries. With rapid developments in technologies necessary for developing digital libraries, the world of digital information resources has expanded quickly and exponentially. A large numbers of STM (science, technology and medical) electronic journals are appearing on the web. Digital information resources include not only rapidly growing collection of electronic full text resources, but also images, video, sound, and even objects of virtual reality.

The most significant shift in building digital collections is greater interoperability among information systems across the country and internationally. With the technology available at an affordable cost, the libraries are initiating small digitisation projects as individual library or as a group of libraries.

Building-up digital collection and infrastructure required to access them is a challenge that every library has to deal with. Today's digital libraries are built around Internet and web technologies with electronic journals as their building blocks. The increasing popularity of Internet and developments in web technologies are catalyst to the concept of digital library. Fig. 1 is a pictorial representation of digital library infrastructure and services that can be generated from them.

2. DIGITAL LIBRARY: HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

Although the term digital library has gained popularity in recent years but they have evolved along the technological ladder for past more than thirty years. In early 1970s, digital libraries were built around mini and mainframe computers providing remote access and online search and retrieval services to users using computer and communication technology available at that

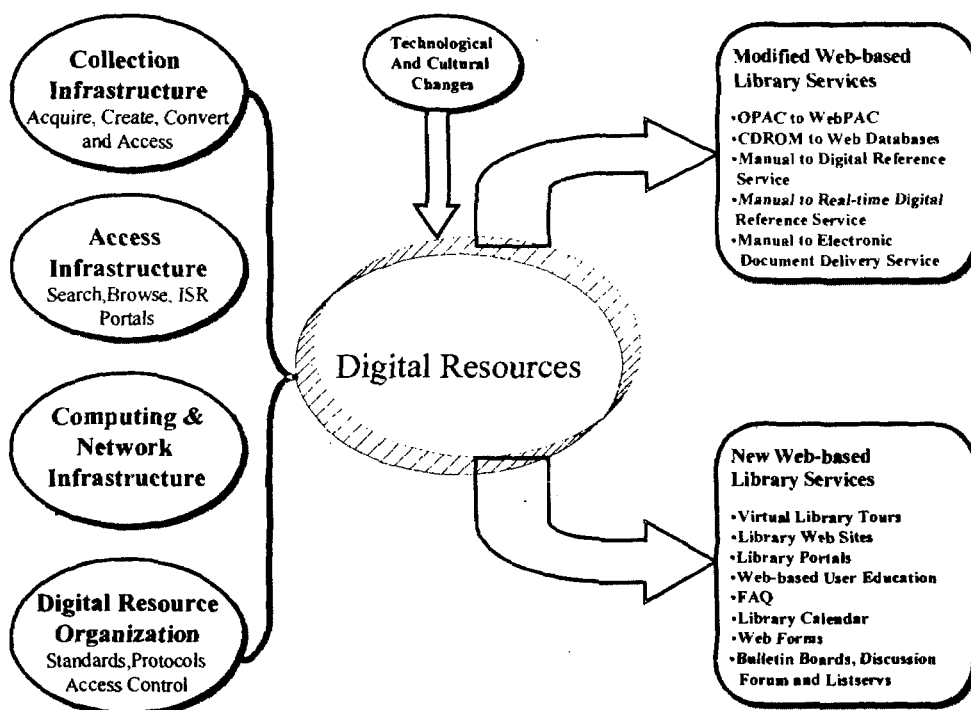


Figure 1. Digital Library Infrastructure and Services

time. The earliest application of digital library concepts involved character-coded storage and full text indexing of legal and scientific documents. The legal information through electronics (LITE) system was first implemented by the US Air Force in 1967. Several software packages were released during mid-1970s and late 1970s for computer-based storage, indexing and retrieval of documents in character-coded form. Some of the better known text storage and retrieval packages included: IBM's *storage and information retrieval system (STAIRS)*, *battelle automated search information system (BASIS)*, *INQUIRE*, *BRS/SEARCH*, *DOCU/MASTER*, *ASSASSIN*, *STATUS*, *CAIRS*, etc. By 1980s, text storage and retrieval programs were available from dozens of vendors for major computing environment including main-frame, microcomputers and local area network (LAN).

Sophisticated information storage and retrieval systems were built during 1980s using state-of-the-art technology of distributed database management system linking different remote systems. These online information retrieval services used data files generated in the process of electronic phototypesetting of printed abstracting and indexing services and other primary journals. As such, online hosts like DIALOG and STN were not only offering online databases, but also full text online journals for past several years, although as a simple ASCII or text files without graphics and pictures. In 1989, there were almost 1700 full text sources available through sixteen online systems. Availability of CD-ROM in late 1980s as a media with high storage capacity, longevity, and ease of transportation triggered production of several CD-ROM information products which were earlier available through online vendors or as conventional abstracting and indexing services in printed format. Moreover, several full text databases also started appearing in late 1980s and early 1990s leading to beginning of digital era. Some of the important full text digital collections available on CD-ROM include: *ADONIS*, *IEEE/IEE Electronic Library (IEL)*, *ABI/INFO*, *UMI's*

International Business Database, *UMI's General Reference Periodicals*, *Espace World*, *US Patents*, etc.

Digital document imaging system, which employs computer hardware and software to scan and store images of documents in digitized formats, evolved in early 1980s to overcome the limitation of text storage and retrieval systems which could only store textual information. The earliest application of a document imaging system was the Optical Disk Pilot Project at the Library of Congress. Several document imaging software packages are currently available in the market. *OmniDoc* (Newgen) and *Datascan* (Stacks India) are two important document imaging software from India.

The beginning of full text digital library involved building-up several client systems usable in a multitude of environments, such as MS Windows, MS DOS, Apple Macintosh and a diversity of UNIX systems as well as for terminal-oriented mainframe systems, notably VT-100 and VT-220. Upscaling of digital library in those days entailed huge maintenance problems because all clients system had to be upgraded and scaled for new facilities and emerging new techniques and processes.

However, 1990s brought in a true revolution in digital library system. The advent of WWW offered a crucial advantage with the availability of ready-to-use, publicly available, user-friendly graphical web browser for all prevalent platforms. Standard WWW clients such as Netscape Navigator and Internet Explorer are being upgraded regularly for added functionality such as e-mail client, support for JAVA, Active X and the ability to view important document formats without having to install plug-ins for them. These browsers solved the maintenance problem allowing developers to concentrate fully on the server side and not to bother with the client side. These browsers are available freely and are easy to use eliminating the need of extensive support and user's training. The internet and associated technologies, made it possible for digital libraries to include multimedia objects such as text, image, audio

and video. These internet and web technologies thus brought-in the graphical components to the digital library which was missing in earlier digital library implementation. There has thus been a steady move up the technological scale for the digital libraries from previous (late 1980s) low-end electronic publications available as ASCII files, to being organised and searchable on gophers (1992), and to being tagged and graphically viewable on WWW sites (1994). Recent growth and development in digital libraries can be attributed to availability of the internet and web technology as a media of information presentation and delivery and convenience it offers.

3. BUILDING-UP DIGITAL COLLECTIONS

The most important component of a digital library is the digital collection it holds or has access to. Viability and extent of usefulness of a digital library would depend upon the critical mass of digital collection it has. A digital library can have a wide range of resources. It may contain both paper-based conventional documents or information contained in computer-processible form. Information contents of a digital library, depending on the media type it contains, may include a combination of structured/unstructured text, numerical data, scanned images, graphics, audio and video recordings. Different types of resources need to be handled differently in a digital library. Rusbridge¹⁵ divided resources for a digital library in following four distinct categories, i.e., legacy, transition, new and future.

Legacy resources: these are largely non-digital resources, including manuscript, print, slides, maps, audio and video recordings. In spite of the fact that large investments are being made in the process of digitisation of resources, vast majority of existing legacy resources will remain outside the electronic domain for many years to come. These legacy resources are the major resources of existing libraries.

Transition resources: primarily designed for another medium (mostly print), are those which are being or have been digitised,

making the transition into the digital world. Such resources are converted for increased access and to reduce reliance on physical libraries. The transition resources are either digitized images or images that are converted to text by the process of OCR.

New digital resources: these are either expressly created as digital or are created in parallel to print. Publishers are increasingly moving to XML or SGML format. These formats are used to generate datafiles required for producing printed outputs. The SGML/XML databases are also used for generating HTML/PDF/XHTML or postscript file dynamically using appropriate DTDs. New digital resources are designed with a particular use in mind employing new Internet and web technologies embodying a great variation and value addition.

Future digital resources: there is an increasingly wide range of digital resources from formally published electronic journals and electronic books through databases and datasets in many formats, i.e., bibliographic, full text, image, audio, video, statistical and numeric datasets. Future resources may contain data sets which are not formally specified.

A digital library is not a single entity although it may have digital contents created in-house or acquired in digital formats stored locally on servers. A digital library may also act as a portal site providing access to digital collections held elsewhere. The digital constituents of a digital library are shown in fig. 2 and are described below:

3.1 Acquisition of Collections available in Digital Formats

Thousands of CD-ROM databases are currently available from multitude of CD-ROM producers including Silver Platter which alone produces more than 250 information products on CD-ROM. Moreover, several full text databases also started appearing in late 1980s and early 1990s, launching the beginning of a new digital era. CD-ROM networking technology is now available for providing web-based simultaneous access to CD-ROM databases on the LAN as well as on wide area network (WAN). More evolved

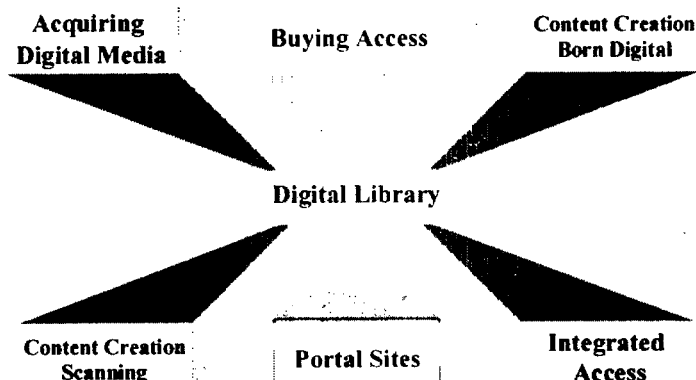


Figure 2. Collection Infrastructure of a Digital Library

technology allows caching of the contents of CD-ROMs on to a server, which, in turn, provides web-based simultaneous and faster access to the information contents of CD-ROMs. The libraries have an option to subscribe to these full text databases as a part of their digital library.

The Silver Platter's Electronic Reference Library (ERL) technology facilitates uploading of contents of ERL-complaint CD-ROM databases on the hard disc of an intranet server, which, in turn, provides integrated access and search on ERL-complaint databases. Moreover, individual research articles in the ERL-complaint database are linked to their full text research articles using Silver Platter's Silver Linker.

3.2 Buying Access to External Digital Collections

The libraries will not become digital libraries, but will rather acquire access to ever growing digital collections on behalf of their users. Majority of these collections would be provided by external sources like commercial publishers, collections mounted by scholarly societies, resources at other libraries, electronic journal sites, etc. Internet has long been a favorite media for experimenting with electronic publishing and delivery.

The technology is now available for creation of fully digitised multimedia products and make them accessible through the internet. Technological changes, especially the internet and web technology, continue to attract more and more traditional players to adopt it as a global way to offer their publications to the international community of scientists and technologists. Most of the important publishers now have their web-based interfaces to offer full texts of their journals.

The current electronic publishing market consists of traditional players offering electronic versions of their print journals as well as several new enterprises offering new products and services that are 'borne digital'. The market also has several subscription agents in their new role as aggregators. These players include:

3.2.1 Publishers and Scholarly Societies

Most well-known commercial publishers of traditional journals such as Elsevier Science, Kluwer Academic Press, Academic Press, Springer Verlag, Wiley InterScience and scholarly societies such as SIAM, ACM, IEEE/IEE are making their publications available online through their web sites.

Several universities host specialised collections on their web sites. Several universities, as members of the networked digital library of theses and dissertations (NDLTD) initiative, host doctoral dissertations submitted to their respective universities.

3.2.2 Aggregators

Third party aggregators provide access to numerous journals from a variety of publishers. Aggregators include organisations like JSTOR that offer extensive backfiles for more than 100 academic journals and OCLC Electronic Collection Online which offer full text access to more than two thousand titles via their First Search service. Other aggregators like Lexis-Nexis, Bell and Howell (UMI) and Web of Science (ISI) offer searchable indexes with links to full text journals on publisher's site. EBSCOHost, IAC Trac SearchBank and Blackwell's Electronic Journal Navigator (EJN) provide common search interface for the journals aggregated by them from assortment of publishers. Growing number of subscription agents are working with publishers to provide aggregated services for packages of titles or for full text databases.

3.3 Pricing Model

Total number of electronic journals available on the web has grown steadily from less than 10 in 1989 to 8500 in April, 2000.

One of the major issue that the publishers are concerned with is to save their economic interest in the process of providing electronic access to their printed publications. The publishers make a significant investment in the process of production of a journal which involves activities like peer-review, administration, editing, layout design, production, subscription management and distribution. Most activities that are performed for publishing a journal are common to both electronic and paper media, except for production and distribution where the cost involved is relatively low. Moreover, electronic version of journals generally provides additional features like link to corrections, link to additional materials, e-mail link to author(s), etc., which require additional work

on part of the publisher. Tenopir and King (1997) in a study concluded that the cost of electronic journals can not be substantially lower than their printed versions.

Journals are made available through the web at varying price models. In a survey of 8001 peer reviewed electronic journals conducted by EBSCO, it was found that 50% of electronic journals are free with their print journals, 34% require additional payment over their print subscription and 16% are available online only without their print counter-part. Overall, 84% of journals require a print subscription to journals as a prerequisite for online access to their electronic version³. Following are prevalent pricing models:

3.3.1 Electronic Subscription linked to Print Subscription

The electronic subscription to journals in most of the cases are linked to their printed counterparts, i.e., it may be offered free with print subscription (e.g. publications of American Society for Physics and ASCE) or priced at a fixed percentage over the print subscriptions (e.g. IEEE's ASPP package).

3.3.2 Electronic Subscription with Campus Licenses

Electronic publishers facilitate campus wide unlimited access to subscribed journals on payment of a fixed amount of platform fee. Example: Elsevier Science (ScienceDirect).

3.3.3 Electronic Subscriptions are Bundled

Several electronic publishers offer access to the entire range of their electronic journals and other publications bundled into one. For example IEL and AGM Digital Library offer access to their entire site on subscription. Access to individual journals or a subset is not permissible. Similarly, Academic Press offer all journals available on their site (Academic's Project IDEAL) for 10% more than the print subscription to library consortia.

3.3.4 Pay-per-Look

Publishers and aggregators have started experimenting with models wherein a user can search a database online for a modest

usage fee, identify articles of interest, and then call up such articles in full text on a per-look basis.

3.3.5 Electronic Only

A few publishers and aggregators have started offering only electronic version of their journals providing a *modest discount for those* who forego print versions.

3.3.6 Consortium Licensing

Consortia provide union strength to negotiate with electronic publishers for the best possible price and rights. Most publishers already have well-defined policies and offer for libraries subscribing as consortia. The consortia licensing is widely used the world over by the libraries. It is slowly picking up in India also.

3.3.7 National Licensing

National licenses can also be negotiated with electronic publishers for core collections. Singapore, Taiwan and UK have arranged national licenses for some of the important full text resources.

Besides, electronic journals, there are several online databases that are now available through the web including *Medline* (several versions), *AGRICOLA* and *ERIC* (all free). Most online search services like *STN* and *DIALOG* also have their web-based interfaces. Reference works like encyclopedia, dictionaries, handbooks, atlases, etc., are also making their electronic appearance on the web. Electronic resources created exclusively for the web include web-based educational tutorials called 'online courseware'.

The online courseware are proliferating the web as a strong contender for distant education. Telecampus, Canada (www.telecampus.edu/) lists more than 12,000 online courseware available on the web. Moreover, highly specialised web sites are now coming-up in various disciplines which offer information in totality including all kinds of resources in electronic format, *EI Engineering Village* (<http://www.ei.org/>), *ISI Electronic Library* (<http://www.isinet.com>), *IEL* (<http://www.ieee.org/>), *Engineering Sciences*

Data Unit (<http://www.esdu.com>) are some of the important examples.

Electronic resources accessible on the web for free or for a fee are undeniably major and important constituent of a digital library.

3.4 Converting Digital Datasets

The libraries or the institutions implementing digital libraries may have datasets that are originally created in digital format. Doctoral dissertations submitted to universities and research institutions are undisputedly highly valuable documents that qualify to be an important component of any digital library. Moreover, institutions may have in-house journal(s), annual reports, technical reports, or other datasets, that may be included in digital collection. Items listed above are invariably composed in one of the word processing programme or in a desk-top publishing package.

The documents composed on word processing packages or desktop publishing packages can be converted into HTML, PostScript and PDF using tools like Acrobat 4.0 or Acrobat Exchange. Online converters are also available through Adobe's site. HTML, as a *defacto* language of the web and PDF as a *defacto* standard for online distribution of electronic information, can be employed to facilitate transition from computer processible files to a format accessible on the web.

For regular publications, the institutions may adopt SGML or XML to provide structure and functionality to their publications. Most electronic publishers are increasingly using SGML/XML to ripe the benefit that the format offer. SGML (or XML) documents provide benefit of a database management system without being one. Publishers code the accepted submissions in SGML/XML in a semi-automated process using assortment of software packages available to them or using custom-made software specially designed for this purpose. The database of SGML documents are used for providing search by authors, keywords, etc., and browse the content pages of journals. Behind the web interface lies a relational database like Oracle

that store SGML/XML documents. Search and browse operation on highly structured XML/SGML datasets provides dynamically generated web pages (HTML-on-fly). These HTML files provide link to full text of documents in HTML/PDF/PostScript, all formats are generated dynamically from the same SGML/XML datasets using pre-defined DTDs.

3.5 Conversion of Existing Print Media into Digital Format

Several digital library projects are concerned with providing digital access to materials that already exist with traditional libraries in printed media. Scanned page images are practically the only reasonable solutions for institutions such as libraries for converting existing paper collection (legacy documents) without having access to the original data in computer processible formats convertible into HTML/SGML or in any other structured or unstructured text. Scanned images are natural choice of large-scale conversions for major digital library initiatives. Printed text, pictures, and figures are transformed into computer-processible forms using a digital scanner or a digital camera in a process called document imaging or scanning. The digitally scanned images are stored in a file as a bit-mapped page image, irrespective of the fact that a scanned page contains a photograph, a line drawing or text. A bit-mapped page image is a type of computer graphic, literally an electronic picture of the page which can most easily be equated to a facsimile image of the page and as such they can be read by humans, but not by the computers, i.e., 'text' in a page image is not searchable on a computer using the present-day technology. An image-based implementation requires a large space for data storage and transmission. There are several large projects using page images as their primary storage format, including project JSTOR (www.jstor.org) at Princeton University, USA funded by the Mellon Foundation. The project JSTOR has a complete set of more than 120 journals scanned and hosted on web servers that reside at the University of Michigan and is

mirrored at Princeton University, USA. Using technology developed at Michigan, high resolution (600 dpi) bit-mapped images of each page are linked to a text file generated with OCR software. Linking a searchable text file to the page images of the entire published record of a journal along with newly constructed table of contents, indexes, permits high level of access, search and retrieval of the journal content previously unimaginable⁸.

Capturing page image format is comparatively easy and inexpensive, it is reproduction of a page maintaining page integrity and originality. The scanned textual images, however, are not searchable unless it is OCR'd, which, in itself, is highly error prone process specially when it involves scientific texts.

3.6 Creating Portals or Gateways to the Electronic Collection available on the Web

The web has become the most successful networked hypermedia-based system that allows rapid access to a wide variety of networked information resources. It allows linking amongst electronic resources stored on servers dispersed geographically on distant locations. The portal sites or gateways redirect a user to the holders of the original digital material. It may provide its own indexing and search services or may combine original resources from a number of different providers. The portal sites or the gateways restrict their operation to providing linkages to independent third party sources. Home pages of all the major education and research institutions, specially in developed world, provide an organised and structured guide to electronic resources available on the internet. Some of the major portal sites or gateways that provide access to electronic resources on the internet are as follows:

WWW Virtual Library
<http://www.edoc.com/>

Internet Public Library
<http://www.ipl.org/>

Michigan Electronic Library
<http://mel.lib.mi.us/>

Penn Electronic Library
<http://www.library.upenn.edu/resources/>

BUBL Information Service
<http://bubl.ac.uk/>

Argus Clearing House
<http://www.clearinghouse.net/>

Internet Index
<http://sunsite.berkeley.edu/InternetIndex/>

3.7 Integrated Access Interface

Digital libraries typically integrate multitude of resources and media types. Constituents of a digital library may have:

- (a) Collection acquired in digital form
- (b) Collections digitised in-house
- (c) Buying access to electronic resources including e-journals
- (d) Subject gateways and the library OPACs.

In effect, a digital library may not only have multitude of resources but also multitude mechanism to access these resources. Most libraries having sizable collections in digital forms and have adopted two-fold strategy that include: (a) provide access to resources through the library catalogue wherever possible; and (b) provide access to electronic resources and specialised collections through the library home page.

In cases of electronic journals, web access via an alphabetical listing and/or subject index of all titles, offers a quick and simple means of inventory and direct hypertext links to full text sources. Similarly, access to other specialised collection can also be provided through a set of menus that serves as rough and ready finding aid. It is particularly useful for institutions that have not implemented web-based catalogues and cannot offer hypertext links from a catalogue record. On the other hand, access to e-journals is separate from the online catalogue and other journals that are part of the library's collection. Web-based catalogues can enable users to connect directly to the full text source via hypertext links in the catalogue record.

Acquisition of Endeavour's Information System by the Elsevier Science, marks integration of Elsevier's contents into Endeavour's digital library technology. A new

product called 'ENCompass' from Endeavour would come up as a single, seamless search across disparate remote and local collections (Science Direct Connections, 2000).

4. PRINT TO DIGITAL: OPTIONS FOR CONVERSION

The digital imaging technology offers a number choices that can be adopted depending on the objective of scanning, end users, availability of finances, etc. There are four basic approaches that can be adapted to translate from print to digital:

- ☐ Scanned as image
- ☐ OCR
- ☐ Retaining page layout using acrobat capture
- ☐ Re-keying the data.

4.1 Scanned as Image

Image only is the lowest cost option in which each page is an exact replica or the original source document. Since OCR is not carried out, the document is not searchable. Most scanning software generate TIFF format, by default, which can be converted in to PDF using a number of software tools. Scan to TIFF/PDF format is recommended only when the requirement of project is to make documents portable and accessible from any computing platform. The images can be browsed through a table of contents composed in HTML providing link to scanned images.

4.2 Optical Character Recognition (OCR)

The latest versions of both Xerox's TextBridge and Caere's OmniPage incorporate technology allow the option of maintaining text and graphics in their original layout as well as plain ASCII and word-processing formats. Output can also include HTML with attributes like bold, underline, and italic retained.

4.2.1 Retaining Layout After OCR

Several software packages now offer facility of retaining the page layout after it has

been OCRed. The process for retaining the page layout is software dependent. Caere's Omnipro offers two ways of retaining page layout following OCR. It calls them True Page Classic and True Page Easy. True Page Classic places each paragraph within a separate frame of a word processor into which the OCR output is saved. If one wishes to edit anything subsequently, then the relevant paragraph box may need to be resized. However, 'Easy Edit' facilitates editing of pages without the necessity of resizing the boxes although there is a greater chance of spillage over the page. Xerox Text Bridge offers similar feature called DocuRT which is broadly equivalent to True Page Easy Edit. The process of OCR dismantles the page, OCRs it, and then reassembles it in such a way that all the component parts such as tabs, columns, tables, graphics can be used in a text manipulation package such as word processor.

The process of OCR results in a computer-processible file that is less accurate than rekeying-in the data. At an accuracy ratio of 98%, a page having 1800 characters will have 36 errors per page on an average. It is therefore, imperative to clean up after OCR unless original scanned image will be viewed as page and OCR being used purely for creating a searchable index on the words that will be searched via a fuzzy retrieval engine like Excalibur which is highly tolerant to OCR errors.

Another possibility for cleaned-up OCR is use of specialist OCR system such as Prime Recognition. With production OCR in mind, Prime OCR licenses leading recognising engine and passes the data through several of them using voting technology along with artificial intelligent algorithms. The use of multiple OCR engines improves the result achieved by a single engine by 65–80 %. The technology is available at price depending upon number of search engine that one would like to incorporate. Michigan Digital Library production services used Prime OCR for placing more than two million pages of SGML-encoded text and the same number of page images on the web.

4.3 Retaining Page Layout Using Acrobat Capture

The Acrobat Capture 2.0 provides several options for retaining not only the page layout but also the fonts, and to fit text into the exact space occupied in the original, so that the scanned and OCRed copy never over- or under-shoots the page. Accordingly, it treats unrecognizable text as pasted-in images, which are perfectly readable by anyone looking at the PDF file, but which will be absent from the editable and searchable text file. In contrast, ordinary OCR programs treat unrecognised text as tildes or some other special character in the ASCII output. Acrobat Capture can be used to scan pages as images, image+text and as normal PDF, all the three options retain page layout.

Image Only: Image only option has already been described in option 1.

Image+Text: In image+text solutions, a OCRed text is generated for each image where each page is an exact replica of the original and left untouched, however, the OCRed text sits behind the image and is used for searching. The OCRed text is generally not corrected for errors since it is used only for searching. The cost involved is much less than PDF Normal. However, the entire page is a bitmap and neither fonts nor line drawings are vectorised, so the file size of Image + Text PDFs is considerably larger than the corresponding PDF Normal files and pages will not display as quickly or cleanly on screen.

PDF Normal: PDF normal gives the clearest on-screen display, is searchable, and yet with significantly smaller file size than Image+Text. The result is not, however, an exact replica of the scanned page. While all graphics and formatting are preserved, substitute fonts may be used where direct matches are not possible. It is a good choice when files need to be posted to the web or otherwise delivered online. If, during the capture and OCR process, a word cannot be recognised to the specified confidence level, capture, by default, substitutes it with a small portion of the original bitmap image. Capture's 'best guess' of the suspect word lies behind the bitmap so that searching and indexing are still

possible. However, one cannot guarantee that these bit-mapped words are correctly guessed. In addition, the bit-map is somewhat obtrusive, detracting from the 'look' of the page. Further, capture provides option to correct suspected errors left as bit-mapped image or leave them untouched.

4.4 Re-keying

A classic solution of this kind would comprise of keying-in the data and its verification. This involves a complete keying of the text, followed by a full rekeying by a different operator, the two keying-in operation might take place simultaneously. The two keyed-in files are compared and any errors or inconsistencies are corrected. This would guarantee at least 99.9% accuracy, but to reach 99.955% accuracy level, it would normally require full proof-reading of the keyed-in files, plus table lookups and dictionary spellchecks.

5. STEPS IN THE PROCESS OF DIGITISATION

The following four steps are involved in the process of digitisation: scanning, indexing, storage, and retrieval. Software, variably called document image processing (DIP), electronic filing system (EFS) and document management systems (DMS) provides all or more of these functions:

5.1 Scanning

The process involves acquisition of an electronic image through its original that may be a photograph, text, manuscript, etc. into the computer using an electronic image scanner. An image is read or scanned at a predefined resolution and dynamic range. The resulting file, called 'bit-map page image' is formatted and tagged for storage and subsequent retrieval by the software package used for scanning. Fax card, electronic camera or other imaging devices may also employed for acquisition of an image, however, image scanners are most important and most commonly used component of an imaging system for transfer of normal paper-based documents into an image.

5.2 Indexing

Indexing of a document converted into an image or text file is the second step in the process of document imaging. The process of indexing scanned image involves linking of database of scanned images to a text database. Scanned images are just like a set of pictures that need to be related to a text database describing them and their contents. An imaging system typically stores a large amount of unstructured data in a two file system for storing and retrieving scanned images. The first is traditional file that has a text description of the image along with a key to a second file. The second file contains the document location. The user selects a record from the first file using a search algorithm. Once the user selects a record, the application keys into the location index, finds the document and displays it.

Most of the document imaging software packages, through their menu driven or command driven interface, facilitate elaborate indexing of documents. While some DMS facilitate selection of indexing terms from the image file, others allow only manual keying in of indexing terms. Further, many DMS packages provides OCR capabilities for transforming the images into standard ASCII files. The OCR'd text then serves as a database for full text search of the stored images.

5.3 Storage

The most tenacious problem of a document image relates to its file size and, therefore, to its storage. Every part of an electronic page image is saved regardless of presence or absence of ink. The file size varies directly with scanning resolution, the size of the area being digitised, compression ratio, content and the style of graphic file format used to save the image. The scanned images, therefore, need to be transferred from the hard disc of scanning workstation to an external large capacity storage devices such as an optical disc, CD-ROM/DVD-ROM disc, cartridge tapes, etc. While the smaller document imaging system use offline media, which need to be reloaded when required, or

fixed hard disc drives allocated for image storage. larger DMS use auto-changers such as optical jukeboxes and tape library systems. The image storage device may be either remote or local to the retrieval workstation depending upon the imaging systems and DMS used.

5.4 Retrieval

Once scanned images and OCR'd text documents have been saved as a file, a database is needed for selective retrieval of data contained in one or more fields within each record in the database. Typically, a document imaging system uses at least two files to store and retrieve documents. The first is traditional file that has a text description of the image along with a key to the second file. The second file contains the document location. The user selects a record from the first-file using a search algorithm. Once the user selects a record, the application keys into the location index, finds the document and displays it. Most of the DMS provide elaborate search possibilities including use of Boolean and proximity operators (and, or, not) and wild cards. Users are also allowed to refine their search strategy. Once the required images have been identified their associated document image can quickly be retrieved from the image storage device for display or printed output.

6. DIGITAL IMAGING TECHNOLOGY

Digital imaging is the process of converting paper documents including text, graphics, or pictures into digital images that can be made accessible over electronic networks. A digital image, in turn, is composed of a set of pixels (picture elements), arranged according to a pre-defined ratio of columns and rows. An images file can be managed as regular computer file and can be retrieved, printed and modified using appropriate software. Further, textual images can be OCR'd so as to make its contents searchable. Digital imaging is an inter-linked system of hardware, software image database and access sub-system with each having its own components. Digital systems are

characterised by multiple core and peripheral systems that includes:

- ✧ Hardware (scanners, computers data storage and data output peripherals)
- ✧ Software (image capturing, data compression)
- ✧ Network (data transmission)
- ✧ Display technologies.

Digital images, also called 'bit-mapped page image' are 'electronic photographs' or set of bits or pixels (picture elements) represented by '0' and '1'. A bit-mapped page image is a true representation of its original in terms of typefaces, illustrations, layout and presentation of scanned documents. As such information contents of 'bit-mapped page image' cannot be searched or manipulated unlike text file documents (or ASCII). However, an ASCII file can be generated from a bit-mapped page image using an optical character recognition (OCR) software such as Xerox's TextBridge and Caere's OmniPage. The quality of digital image can be monitored at the time of its capture by the following factors:

- Bit depth/dynamic range
- Resolution
- Threshold
- Compression
- Image enhancement.

6.1 Bit Depth or Dynamic Range

The number of bits used to define each pixel determines bit depth. The greater the bit depth, the greater the number of gray scale or colour tones that can be represented. 'Dynamic range' is the term used to express the full range of total variations, as measured by a densitometer between the lightest and darkest portion of a document. Digital images can be captured at varied density of bits per pixel depending upon: (a) the nature of source material or document to be scanned; (b) target audience or users; and (c) capabilities of the display and print subsystem that are to be used. Bitonal or black & white or binary scanning is generally employed in libraries to scan pages containing text or the drawings. Bitonal or binary scanning

represents one bit per pixel (either '0' (black) or '1' (white). Gray scale scanning is used for reliable reproduction of intermediate or continuous tones found in black & white photographs to represent shades of grey. Multiple numbers of bits ranging from 2-8 are assigned to each pixel to represent shades of grey in this process. Although each bit is either black or white, as in the case of bitonal images, but bits are combined to produce a level of grey in the pixel that is black, white or somewhere in between. Colour scanning can be employed to scan colour photographs. As in the case of grey-scale scanning, multiple bits per pixels typically 2 (lowest quality) to 8 (highest quality) per primary colour are used for representing colour. Colour images are evidently more complex than grey scale images, because, it involves encoding of shades of each of the three primary colours, i.e. red, green and blue (RGB). If a coloured image is captured at 2 bits per primary colour, each primary colour can have 2^2 or 4 shades and each pixel can have 4^4 shades for each of the three primary colour.

Evidently, increase in bit depth increases the quality of image captured and the space required to store the resultant image. Generally speaking, 12 bits per pixel (4 bits per primary colour) is considered minimum pixel depth for good quality colour image. Most of today's colour scanner can scan at 24-bit colour (8 bit per primary colour).

Table 1 provides binary calculation for no of shades represented by bit depth.

Sl. No.	No. of Bits	No. of bits/shade	No. of shades	No. of shades/pixel
1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	$2^2=4$	$4^3=64$
3	4	3	$2^3=8$	$8^3=512$
4	8	4	$2^4=16$	$16^3=4096$
5	16	5	$2^5=32$	$32^3=32768$
6	32	6	$2^6=64$	$64^3=262144$
7	64	7	$2^7=128$	$128^3=2097152$
8	128	8	$2^8=256$	$256^3=16777216$

Table 1: Binary Calculation for No. of Shades Represented by Bit Depth

6.2 Resolution

The number of pixel in a given area defines the resolution of an image. It is measured in terms of dot per inch (dpi) in case of an image file and as ratio of number of pixel on horizontal line x number of pixel in vertical lines in case of display resolution on a monitor. Higher the dpi set on the scanner the better the resolution and quality of image and larger the image file.

Regardless of the resolution, image quality of an image can be improved by capturing an image in greyscale. The additional gray-scale data can be processed electronically to sharpen edges, fill-in characters, remove extraneous dirt, remove unwanted page strains or discoloration, so as to create a much higher quality image than possible with binary scanning alone. A major draw back in gray scale is the large amount of data captured. Continuing increase in resolution will not result in any appreciable gain in image quality after some time, except for increase in file size. It is thus important to determine the point at where sufficient resolution has been used to capture all significant details present in the source document.

The black and white or bitonal images (textual) are scanned most commonly at 300 dpi that preserve 99.9% of the information contents of a page and can be considered as adequate access resolution. Some preservation projects scan at 600 dpi for better quality. A standard SVGA/VGA monitor has a resolution of 640 x 480 lines while the ultra-high monitors have a resolution of about 2048 x 1664 (about 150 dpi).

6.3 Threshold

The threshold setting in bitonal scanning defines the point on a scale, usually ranging from 0 to 255, at which gray values will be interpreted as black or white pixels. In bitonal scanning, resolution and threshold are the key determinants of image quality. Bitonal scanning is best suited to high-contrast documents, such as text and line drawings. For continuous tone or low contrast documents such as photographs, gray scale or colour scanning is required. In gray

scale/colour scanning both resolution and bit depth combine to play significant roles in image quality.

6.4 Compression

Image files are evidently larger than textual ASCII files. It is thus necessary to compress image files so as to achieve economic storage, processing and transmission over the network. A black & white image file of a page of text scanned at 300 dpi is about 1 MB in size where as a text file containing the same information is about 2-3 KB. Image compression is the process of reducing size of a image by abbreviating the repetitive information such as one or more rows of white bits to a single code. The compression algorithms may be grouped into the following two categories:

6.4.1 Lossless Compression

The conversion process converts repeated information as a mathematical algorithm that can decompressed without losing any details into the original image with absolute fidelity. No information is 'lost' or 'sacrificed' in the process of compression. Lossless compression is primarily used in bitonal images.

6.4.2 Lossy Compression

Lossy compression process discards or averages details that are least significant or which may not make appreciable effect on the quality of image. This kind of compression is called 'lossy' because when the image compressed using 'lossy' compression techniques, is decompressed, it will not be an exact replica of the original image. Lossy compression is used with gray scale/colour scanning, and in particular with complicated images.

Compression is necessary in digital imaging but more important is the ability to output uncompressed true replica of images. This is especially important when images are transferred from one platform to another or are handled by software packages under different operating system.

Uncompressed images often work better than compressed images for different

reasons. It is thus suggested that scanned images should be either stored as uncompressed images or at the most as lossless compressed images. Further, it is best to use one of the standard and widely supported compression protocols than a proprietary one, even if it offers efficient compression and better quality. Attributes of original documents may also be considered while selecting compression techniques. For example ITU G-4 is designed to compress text where as JPEG, GIF and ImagePAC are designed to compress pictures. It is important to ensure migration of images from one platform to another and from one hardware media to another. It may be noted that highly compressed files are more susceptible to corruption than uncompressed files.

6.5 Compression Protocols

Following protocols are commonly used for bitonal, gray scale or colour compression:

6.5.1 ITU-G4

ITU G-4, a standard developed by International Telecommunication Union (ITU), is considered as de facto standard compression scheme for storing black & white bitonal images. An image created as a TIFF and compressed using ITU-G4 compression technique is called a Group-4 TIFF or TIFF G-4. TIFF G-4 is a lossless compression scheme. Joint Bi-level Image Group (JBIG) (ISO-11544) is another standard compression technique for bitonal images.

6.5.2 JPEG (Joint Photographic Expert Group)

JPEG (Joint Photographic Expert Group) is an ISO-10918-1 compression protocol that works by finding areas of the image that have same tone, shade, colour or other characteristics and representing this area by a code. Compression is achieved at loss of data. It is generally observed that compression of about 10 or 15 to one can be achieved without visible degradation of image quality.

6.5.3 LZW (Lempel-Ziv Welch)

LZW compression technique uses a table-based lookup algorithm invented by

Abraham Lempel, Jacob Ziv, and Terry Welch. Two commonly-used file formats in which LZW compression is used are the graphics interchange format (GIF) and the tag image file format (TIFF). LZW compression is also suitable for compressing text files. A particular LZW compression algorithm takes each input sequence of binary digit of a given length (for example, 12 bits) and creates an entry in a table (sometimes called a 'dictionary' or 'codebook') for that particular bit pattern, consisting of the pattern itself and a shorter code. As input is read, any pattern that has been read before results in the substitution of the shorter code, effectively compressing the total amount of input to something smaller. The decoding program that uncompresses the file is able to build the table itself by using the algorithm as it processes the encoded input.

6.5.4 Wavelet and Fractal Compression

Fractal, wavelet and flaxPix file formats offer advantages for providing access to digital images of oversized materials on the web. Unlike JPEG and LZW compression that maintain images as array of pixels, wavelet and fractal compression convert images into mathematical models in order to save storage space. Both compression techniques are lossy. Some applications are combination of both wavelet and fractal compression.

(a) Wavelet Compression

Wavelet compression is a method of mathematical modeling of images that breaks the image down into small waves that represent the frequency analysis of a function. The shapes and patterns in an image are identified and then described using mathematical functions or formulas. The function that models or describes the image is contained within the compression and decompression software. Wavelet compression is very efficient, with ratio upto 50:1, depending upon the images being compressed. In comparison JPEG images are usually compressed between 10:1 & 20:1 and LZW around 2:1.

Wavelet compression can take a longer time to compress images due to the complex mathematics involved. However, the time required to decompress wavelet or fractally encoded image is usually comparative to decompressing a JPG image. Wavelet compression is used in varied digital applications, photographic images, audio & video recordings, 2D & 3D rendering, multimedia, finger-prints imaging, medical imaging (radiography MRI, etc.), satellite and remote sensing imaging, GIS, maps & document imaging. Multi-resolution Seamless Image Database (MrSID) from Lizard Tech uses wavelet compression technique.

(b) Fractal Compression

Mathematically, a fractal describes a structure that has many repeated forms regardless of scale. Fractal Compression works by using variety of methods to identify features within an image and then breaking down the image into mathematically modeled series of repeating shapes and patterns. Compression ratio of upto 250:1 can be achieved using fractal compression depending upon the image being compressed. Fractal compression take longer time to compress images than wavelet compression but the decompression is relatively quick.

6.6 Image Enhancement

Image enhancement process can be used to improve scanned images at a cost of image authenticity and fidelity. The process of image enhancement is, however, time consuming. It requires special skills and would invariably increase the cost of conversion. Typical image enhancement features available in a scanning or image editing software include filters, tonal reproduction, curves and colour management, touch, crop, image sharpening, contrast, transparent background, etc. In a page scanned in grayscale, the text/line art, and half tone areas can be decomposed and each area of the page can be filtered separately to maximize its quality. The text area on page can be treated with edge sharpening filters so as to clearly define the

character edges, a second filter could be used to remove the high-frequency noise and finally another filter could fill in characters. Gray scale area of the page could be processed with different filters to maximize the quality of the halftone.

7. FILE FORMATS

The digitally scanned images are stored in a file as a bit-mapped page image, irrespective of the fact that a scanned page contains a photograph, a line drawing or text. The scanned image can be formatted and tagged in dozens of different formats to facilitate easy storage and retrieval depending upon the scanner and its software. National and international standards for image-file formats and compression methods exist to ensure that data will be interchangeable amongst systems. An image file stores discrete sets of data and information allowing a computing system to display, interpret and print the image in a pre-defined format. An image file format consists of three distinct components, i.e., header which stores information on file identifier and image specifications such as its size, resolution, compression protocols, etc.; image data consisting of look-up table and image raster; and lastly footer that signals file termination information. While bit-mapped portion of a raster image is standardised, it is the file header that differentiate one format from another. The display software of a raster image picks up the details, like resolution, compression technique, etc., from the file header and displays an electronic replica of the original page. File formats also define the compression protocol used for compressing or decompressing an image.

Most of the scanning software allow saving of scanned images in a number of formats. TIFF (Tagged Image File Format) is the most commonly used file format and is considered de facto standard for bitonal scanning. TIFF is a truly multi-platform protocol and is a good candidate for scanning projects. Some image formats are proprietary, developed and supported by a commercial vendor and require a specific software or hardware for displaying the printing scanned images.

Annexure - 1 lists file formats used for digital images.

It would be appropriate to store a high resolution image as a TIFF master (archival format) and distribute the image as JPEG/ GIF file (access format). Software are now available that would generate a JPEG or GIF files 'on the fly' from a master TIFF file.

8. TOOLS OF DIGITISATION

An image scanning system may consist of a stand-alone workstation where most or all the work is done on the same workstation or as a part of a network of workstations with imaging work distributed and shared amongst various workstations. The network usually includes a scanning station, a server and one or more editing, and retrieval stations. A typical scanning workstation for a small, production level project, could consist of the following:

- Microcomputer–Pentium III/Pentium IV
- Scanner and scanning software
- Storage system
- Network
- Display system
- Printer.

This section will concentrate on scanners and scanning software as important components of scanning workstation.

8.1 Scanners

Digital scanners are used to capture a digital image from an analogue media such as printed page or a microfiche/microfilm at a predefined resolution and dynamic range (bit range). There are following two types of image scanners:

8.1.1 Vector scanners

These scanners scan an image as a complex set of x, y coordinates. Vector images are generally used in geographical information systems (GIS). The display software for the vector image interprets the image as function of coordinates and other included information to produce an electronic replica of the original drawing or photograph. Vector images can be zoomed in portion to

display minute details of a drawing or a map. Maps, engineering drawings, and architectural blueprints are often scanned as vector images.

8.1.2 Raster scanners

Raster images are captured by raster scanners by passing lights (laser in some cases) down the page and digitally encoding it row by row. Multiple passes of lights may be required to capture basic colours in a coloured image. Raster scanners are used in libraries to convert printed publications into electronic forms. Majority of electronic imaging system generate raster images.

The scanners used for digitising analogue images into digital images come in a variety of shapes and sizes. There are following types of scanners:

- Flatbed Scanners—right angle, prism and overhead flatbed
- Sheet-Feed Scanners
- Drum Scanners
- Digital Cameras
- Slide Scanners
- Microfilm Scanner
- Video Frame Grabber.

The type of scanner selected for an imaging project would be influenced by the type, size and source of documents to be scanned. Many scanners can handle only transparent material, whereas others can handle only reflective materials.

8.1.3 Flatbed Scanners

Flatbed scanners are most common and look like photocopiers and are used in much the same way. Source material is placed face down for scanning. The light source and CCD move beneath the platen, while the document remains stationary as in the case of photocopying machine. Flatbed scanner comes in various models like right-angle, prism and planetary/overhead to handle bound volumes and books.

Examples: HP ScanJet 6300C, Ricoh IS420, Bell & Howell 1000FB Fujitsu 3097G, Minolta PS3000, Xerox Docu CS620. Flatbed

scanners can accept both reflective as well as transparent media over a glass platen.

8.1.4 Sheet feed Scanners

In a sheet-feed scanner, as is indicated in the name, document is fed over a stationary CCD and light source via roller, belt, drum, or vacuum transport. Like flat-bed scanner, sheet-feed scanner also have optional attachment to auto feed uniform-sized stacks of documents to be scanned.

Example: Kodak 500S, Tangent CCS300-SF.

8.1.5 Drum Scanners

Source material, in a drum scanner is wrapped on a drum, which is then rotated past a high-intensity light source to capture the image. They offer superior image quality, but require flexible source material of limited sized that can be wrapped around the drum. They are specially targeted for graphic art market as they offer highest resolution for grey scale and colour scanning. Drum Scanner use Photo-Multiplier (Vacuum) Tubes (PMTs) instead of CCDs, which offer a greater bit depth (12 to 16 bits).

Example: Juno CP-4000, Scan graphics ScanMate5000, ColorGetter.

8.1.6 Digital Cameras

Digital cameras mounted on copy cradle resemble microfilming stand. Source material is placed on the stand and the camera is cranked up or down in order to focus the material within the field of view. Digital cameras are most promising scanner development for library and archival applications.

Example: Zeutschel OminiScan 3000, Minolta PS 3000.

8.1.7 Slide Scanner

Slide scanners have a slot in the side to accommodate a 35mm slide. Inside the box the light passes through the slide to hit a CCD array behind the slide. Slide scanners can generally scan only 35mm transparent source materials.

Example: Kodak PCD Scanner 4045,
Nikon LS3510, Leaf Systems Leafscan 45.

8.1.8 Microfilm Scanner

Specially targeted to library/archival application, microfilm scanners have adapters to convert roll film, fiche, and aperture cards in the same model.

Example: Mekel M500XL, SunRise SRI-50, Lenzpro 2000 Multimedia Digitiser.

8.1.9 Video Frame Grabber or Video Digitiser

Video digitisers are circuit boards placed inside a computer, attached to a standard video camera. Any thing that is filmed by the video camera is digitised by the video digitiser.

8.2 Image Capturing/Scanning Software

The process of converting a paper document into a computer-processible digital image is done using a software variably called document imaging system, electronic filing system or DMS, etc. Scanning softwares also come with the scanners. Important document imaging software are:

Altris Software

<http://www.altris.com/>

OPTIX

<http://www.blueridge.com/>

Documentum

<http://www.documentum.com/>

Poweroffice

<http://www.expower.com/>

FileNet

<http://www.filenet.com/>

LAVA Systems

<http://www.lavasys.com/>

NovaManage

<http://www.novasoft.com/>

LiveLink

<http://www.opentext.com/livelink/index.html>

Docs Open

<http://www.pcdos.com/>

Parlance Ambassador

<http://www.xyvision.com/>

DMS Products from India

Data Scan, (Stacks Software Pvt. Ltd.)

<http://www.stex.com/>

OmniDocs (NewGen)

<http://www.newgensoft.com/>

9. ORGANISING DIGITAL IMAGES

A disc full of digital images without any organisation, browse and search options may have no meaning except for one who created it. Scanned images need to be organised in order to be useful. Moreover, images need to be linked to the associated metadata to facilitate their browsing and searching. The following steps describe process of organising the digital images:

(a) Hierarchical storage

Organise the scanned image files into disc hierarchy that logically maps the physical organisation of the document. For example, in a project on scanning of journals, create a folder for each journal, which, in turn, may have folder for each volume scanned. Each volume, in turn may have a subfolder for each issue. The folder for each issue, in turn, may contain scanned articles that appeared in the issue along with a content page, composed in HTML providing links to articles in that issue.

(b) Nomenclature

Name the scanned image files in a strictly controlled manner that reflect their logical relationship. For example, each article may be named after the surname of first author followed by volume number and issue number. For example, file name 'smithrkamv5n1.pdf' conveys that the article is by 'R.K. Smith' that appeared in volume 5 and issue no.1 of *Applied Mechanics*. The file name for each article would, therefore, convey a logical and hierachial organisation of the journal.

(c) Description

Describe the scanned images file internally, using image header and externally using linked descriptive metadata files. Most software packages provide for storing 'administrative data' regarding image, i.e., date of creation, format type & version, compression technique, name of creator, etc. in the image header. 'Structured' or

'descriptive' metadata for images are the keywords assigned to each image.

(d) Table of contents

The simplest and most effective method for providing access is through a table of contents and links each item to its respective object/image. Content pages of issues of journals, done in HTML, would offer browsing facility. full text search to HTML pages or OCR'd pages can be achieved by installing one of the free internet search engines like:

Oingo Free Search

http://www.oingo.com/oingo_free_search/products.html;

Swish-E

<http://www.berkeley.edu/SWISH-E/>

WhatyoUseek

<http://intra.whatuseek.com/>

Excite

<http://excite.com/>

Google

<http://www.google.com>

Large scanning projects would, however, require a back-end database storing images or links to the images, metadata (descriptive/administrative). Back-end database used by most DMS holds the functionality required by most web applications. Important document management systems like File Net have now integrated their database with HTML conversion tools. Further, some of the DMS have also signed up with Adobe to incorporate Acrobat and Acrobat capture into their web-based DMS. These databases entertain queries from users through 'HTML forms' and generate search results on the fly.

OCR does not actually convert an image into text but rather creates a separate file containing the text while leaving the image intact. There are four types of OCR technology that are prevailing in the market. These technologies are: matrix matching, feature extraction, structural analysis and neural network.

(a) Matrix/Template matching: Compares each character with a template of the same character. Such a system is usually limited to a specific number of fonts, or must be 'taught' to recognise a particular font.

(b) Nature extraction: Can recognise a character from its structure and shape (angles, points, breaks, etc.) based on a set of rules. The process claims to recognise all fonts.

(c) Structural analysis: Determines characters on the basis of density gradations or character darkness.

(d) Neural networking: Neural networking is a form of artificial intelligence that attempts to mimic processes of the human mind. Combined with traditional OCR techniques plus pattern recognition, a neural network-based system can perform text recognition and learn from its success and failure. Referred to as intelligent character recognition (ICR), a neural network-based system is being used to recognise hand-written text as well as other traditionally difficult source material. Neural network ICR can contemplate characters in the context of an entire word. New ICR combines neural networking with fuzzy logic.

10. Hybrid Solution

It would be imperative to consider producing a more reliable media like microfilm simultaneous to the process of digitisation if archival preservation is one of the objectives. The process of microfilming produce a high-resolution image on the microfilm/microfiche that equates to approximately 1000 dpi in digital binary scanning. In comparison, a bitonal digital image can at best be scanned at 600 dpi for archival storage.

The microfilm/microfiche can be used for conversion to electronic image format. Moreover, future improvements in scanning technology can be utilised by rescanning a microfilm to obtain high-resolution images. It is expected that ultimately electronic scanning will reach or exceed photographic quality. Durability and reliability of computers, storage media and formats used for electronic image files may also increase and stabilise.

11. CONCLUSION

With the technology available at an affordable cost, the libraries can initiate small digitisation projects as individual library or as a group of libraries. Building-up digital collection and infrastructure required to access them is a challenge that every library has to deal with.

Recent growth and development in digital libraries can broadly be grouped into three broad categories, i.e., (a) digitisation of traditional printed-resources and their integration with secondary sources of information like Medline. Most of the secondary services now incorporate link to the full text articles on the publisher's site. Developments of platforms like Crossref, Web of Science, Silver Linker, etc. are indication of trends towards gradual merger of full text resources and secondary services; (b) digital library derived from the datafiles generated as a byproduct in the process of printing of primary journals or major reference works. Most of the publishers of STM journals have launched their digital collections consisting of electronic counter-parts of their printed journals; and (c) new information sources that are created specially for the web imbibing fruits of technological advances. The numbers and variety of resources in the last category are expected to increase as the users respond to technologically advanced products and services. The meaning of digital library is in the process of evolution as it climb along the technological ladder. It can thus be concluded that further advances in the area of digital libraries would rest upon further technological developments as well as conceptual foundation that is being laid down presently.

Unlike microfilming, digital imaging technologies present a preservation solution for the documents in libraries with increased accessibility over the electronic networks, high-quality output, OCR'd text, electronic links to individual pages, etc. However, imaging technologies are still in a continuous flux of change. New standards and protocols are being defined on a regular basis for file formats, compression techniques, hardware

components, network interfaces, etc. The librarian should be aware of constant threat of 'techno-obsolescence' and transitory standards. Magnetic and optical discs as a physical media are re-engineered to store more and more data. There is a constant threat of backward compatibility for the products that were used in the past. Acquiring an imaging system with all its peripherals capable of enhancing access to the library resources is quite a simple task specially now that the cost of all computing systems and peripherals are crashing down. However, the libraries must be concerned with all aspects of imaging technologies, as well as new demands that the technology will place on them as an organisation.

Digital images will have to be constantly migrated converted to new formats computing devices, storage media and software as new forms of storage devices, updated formats and software and improved computing systems are released. In spite of the fact that this constant migration conversion of digital images would not only be expensive it would also direct valuable manpower resources into a constant re-invention of wheel, it would be essential to do so otherwise valuable images data would be left behind an obsolete machinery which will eventually break down rendering data inaccessible.

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File Formats in Digital Libraries

Abbreviation	Format	File Extension
File Format for Unstructured Text		
ASCII	American Standard Code for Information Interchange	.txt
File Format for Structured Text		
SGML	Standard Generalised Markup Language.	.sgml
HTML	Hypertext Markup Language	.html or .htm
XML	Extended Markup Language	.xml
PDF	Portable Document Format (Adobe)	.pdf
PS	PostScript (Adobe)	.ps
TEXT	Texture Format	.txt
File Format for Images		
PDF	Portable Document Format	.pdf
BMP	Bit Map Page (Windows)	.bmp
IMG	Ventura Publisher	.img
JPEG	Joint Photographic Expert Group	.jpg
JFIF	JPEG File Format	.jff
PCP	PC Paint (B&W Mode)	.pcp
PCX	PC Paint Brush (Color & B&W)	.pcx
PSD	Photoshop	.psd
TGA	True Vision Targa	.tga
PNG	Portable Network Graphic	.png
TIFF	Tagged Image File Format	.tif or .tiff
TIFF-G4	Tagged Image File Format with Group 4 Fax Compression	.tif
SPIFF	Still Picture Interchange File Format.	.spf
PCD	Photo CD (Kodak)	.pcd
Web-Compatible Image File Format		
GIF	Graphics Interchange Format	.gif
JPEG	Joint Photographic Experts Group	.jpg
Audio/video File Format		
WAVE	Waveform Audio (Microsoft)	.wav
AIFF	Audio Interchange Format	.aif
JPEG	File Format	.jff
VoC	Creative Voice	.voc
MIDI	Musical Instrument Digital Interface	.midi
SND	Sound	.snd
AU	Audio (Sun Microsystems)	.au
RA	Real Audio Format (Progressive Networks)	.ra
AVI	Audio Visual Interleave	.avi
FLA	Macromedia Flash Movie	.fla
FLC	AutoDesk FLIC Animation	.flc
MOV	Quicktime for Windows Movie	.mov
MPEG	Motion Picture Expert Group	.mpeg
MP2	MPEG Audio Layer 2	.mp2
MP3	MPEG Audio Layer 3	.mp3