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**Colour plates: “Iskender-nāme” by Aḥmedī (1334/35—1412/13), MS C133 from the collection of St. Petersburg Branch of the Institute of Oriental Studies, Russian Academy of Sciences (see p. 47—61).**

**Front cover:**

Fol. 58a. Iskender and Gülshah, 10.7 × 10.9 cm.

**Back cover:**

**Plate 1.** Fol. 93b. Iskender Slaying a Dragon, 10.7 × 13.2 cm.

**Plate 2.** Fol. 140b. The Poet Aḥmedī (?), 10.7 × 14.3 cm.

**Plate 3.** Fol. 249b. The Religious Dispute in the Presence of Sultan Orkhan, 10.7 × 14.7 cm.

**Plate 4.** Fol. 254a. The Murder of Sultan Murad I, 10.7 × 14.3 cm.

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# **ORIENTAL MANUSCRIPTS AND NEW INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES**

*K. Lagally*

## **USING T<sub>E</sub>X AS A TOOL IN THE EDITING OF MULTI-LINGUAL SOURCES**

### **1. Introduction**

The recent availability of relatively inexpensive powerful computer systems opens up a host of new possibilities for many fields, among them *e. g.*, research on Oriental languages. Due to industrious collecting activities a wealth of written material has been accumulated whose evaluation by traditional means might, given the available human resources, take decades or even centuries. Much of the necessary work is of clerical nature, and could well be automated, once the material is in machine-readable form. But the necessary software is usually not available, or not affordable, and will probably have to be developed from scratch, preferably in a cooperation between Orientalists and computer experts. Also the encoding of the data is a manual process that should have to be performed only

once, and some prior consideration is advisable to avoid the necessity of duplication of effort.

As an example, imagine the building of a catalog for a large number of Arabic manuscripts. This could possibly be handled by using one of the available bilingual word processors. But the data format used will probably be private and not easily accessible, and since these tools are geared towards generating a printed version only, there is no easy way to include additional descriptive information which could otherwise be used for further evaluations.

In the sequel we present some recommendations which we believe can be helpful, and report on first results of their application.

### **2. On data encoding**

We believe there is a basic distinction between data and text, the latter viewed as a pattern of ink on paper, or some other physical representation. If the text can be understood at all we can derive from the pattern individual words that are connected into sentences and, hopefully, convey some meaning. This activity is commonly called *reading*, and extracts structural and semantic information from the pattern itself. When we encode the text as data to be processed and evaluated further we frequently are not only interested in the pattern itself but also in this additional information now available; the pattern itself may even be of little interest depending on the application, if some equivalent external representation can be reconstructed.

Reading and encoding the text is only a first, sometimes laborious step, and is often done at a point of time where not all further evaluation steps are known. Thus it is advisable to encode the information in a way that can be processed by, and transmitted between, various different computers and software systems. Our choice is obviously

influenced by the rapidly evolving state of technology and emerging standards, but we may expect future developments not to invalidate current solutions.

At the time of this writing the main limitation is the inability of many electronic mailing systems to reliably transfer anything but plain 7-bit ASCII data [1], which on the other hand can be processed by virtually any computer system now available. Thus this code is an obvious starting point, and fortunately all more powerful encodings proposed since contain it as a genuine subset, with unchanged meaning.

ASCII is primarily intended for encoding English texts, but it can equally well be used for transliterating other languages by a suitable re-interpretation and, if necessary, using more than one code byte for a character of the language in question. This can be done in a multitude of ways, and standards for switching the character mapping [2] have already been issued.

Should the restriction to 7 bits disappear soon we may also use the ISO 8859-x family of extensions to 8 bits per

character catering individually for the needs of various European languages, plus Arabic [3] and Hebrew [4]; but as these codes overlap we still have to indicate the coding used locally within multi-lingual documents, as also in the case of an ASCII transliteration.

Switching to longer code words of 16 or more bits as proposed, *e. g.*, in [5] will not solve all problems, but might introduce a considerable overhead. With the exceptions of Far Eastern languages the alphabets needed are of

moderate size, and the benefits of not having to indicate the encoding will probably not offset an increase in size of the data files by a factor of 2, especially since, as we shall show, we usually want to add other descriptive information anyway.

We thus advocate to stay, for quite some time from now, with a rather primitive encoding, supplemented by a sufficient amount of descriptive information.

### 3. Symbolic markup

Up to now we were only concerned with the encoding of the text proper. Devising a notation for the additional structural and semantic knowledge looks hopeless at first and seems to require clairvoyance, since the future processing needs cannot even be guessed. But indeed some progress is possible.

Once we consider the coded text as a linear sequence of code symbols, any additional knowledge about it can be described by a set of attributes assigned to the individual symbols, or to ranges of symbols. We might not yet for every attribute know how to process it further, nor even its exact meaning; but we certainly know whenever attributes are different, and this is all we need now. The main issue when encoding the data is to preserve all the information then available; exploiting it can come later.

A sufficiently powerful mechanism that does not require the a priori knowledge of a taxonomy of features,

consists of some means of denoting ranges of code symbols, and a mechanism of associating the *name* of an attribute or a set of attributes to such a range. We need a sufficiently rich repertoire of names such that differing attributes or sets of attributes can be denoted differently. The names are arbitrary, and their interpretation needs only to be fixed much later whenever the data will be evaluated, and for different evaluations we may well use different interpretations as required. We only have to agree on the basic format of the markup to distinguish it from the text proper. This basic idea is called *symbolic markup*.

Symbolic markup is not a new idea but has been used in several contexts for some time, and we shall briefly review two of its special applications. In doing so we shall skim over many details, simplify grossly, and also deviate from the customary terminology.

#### 3.1. SGML

The idea of SGML, for "Standard Generalized Markup Language" [6], originated within the printing industry with the goal to help separate the logical structure of a document from the details of its external printed representation, and thus ease the production process. It soon turned out that its possible scope is much wider, and one of its variants, HTML, has important applications in the distributed Hypertext system called the World-Wide Web [7].

The basic markup mechanism in SGML works as follows: a range of characters carrying an attribute A is delimited by a start tag  $\langle A \rangle$  and an end tag  $\langle /A \rangle$ . Instead of a single attribute A may also denote an attribute class, and in this case the start tag also carries an indication of the ac-

tual member of the class, and/or additional descriptive information. The set of possible tag identifiers is fixed for any document type by some formal definition not described here, but due to the class mechanism the set of possible attributes is virtually unbounded.

[8] stresses the usability of symbolic markup for capturing arbitrary information also outside of the production of documents. The main difference to our approach seems to be that for a SGML document the complete syntax of the markup used must be put down beforehand in a Document Type Definition, whereas we propose to postpone this step until the actual processing.

#### 3.2. T<sub>E</sub>X

T<sub>E</sub>X [9] is a program written by D. E. Knuth to support high quality computer type-setting of text and mathematics. It is in the public domain, and compatible implementations exist for a large range of computing systems. T<sub>E</sub>X will take care of all the visual formatting including line-breaking, hyphenation, formatting of formulas, page layout etc. The output produced is completely device independent and may be viewed on a computer screen display or also directed to a large range of output devices, provided that appropriate device driver programs are available.

T<sub>E</sub>X provides a large number of markup commands for controlling the typesetting process, and a powerful macro extension mechanism that enables the user to introduce new markup tags and define their meanings arbitrar-

ily, so that symbolic markup is easily possible. T<sub>E</sub>X can also be (mis)used as a portable general purpose data processor.

Due to the extensibility of T<sub>E</sub>X a number of macro packages have been developed to cater for special applications, among them:

□ *A<sub>4</sub>S-T<sub>E</sub>X* (see [10]), *supplying an additional set of mathematical symbols;*

□ *L<sub>A</sub>T<sub>E</sub>X* [11], *providing styles for several common document classes and supporting the logical structuring into chapters and sections, building a title block, positioning figures and tables, and managing cross references, index information, a table of contents etc.;*

□ **MI-T<sub>E</sub>X** [12], *some multi-lingual extensions for European languages;*

□ **Babel** [13], *a package supporting language-specific processing for more than 20 languages;*

□ **ArabT<sub>E</sub>X** [14—17], *catering for right-to-left languages such as Arabic, Persian, Urdu, Pashto, Hebrew etc. with full support of diacritics and vowels, ligatures, and also the common standard transcriptions\**.

□ *A number of further packages, e. g., for including graphics, are described in [18].*

Most of these packages may be combined to make use of all the additional features provided, and further extensions may be defined freely. [19] strongly advocates using symbolic markup in document design.

### 3.3. Abstract Data Bases

In some respects our approach is related to using a data base system but there are some marked differences. In a data base system, the information is stored as a collection of records consisting of a fixed number of fields; for every field the meaning and the format is determined a priori by a data base scheme. In contrast to this we advocate having an undetermined number of ranges of symbols with some attributes assigned to them, and we may introduce new attributes at any time. Also we do not require the data to be a collection of subunits with basically the same structure, even if this may frequently be the case. So we could simulate a classical data base system easily, but our approach is much more general, and could be called an “abstract data base”.

Of course, because we leave most the structure and the interpretation of the text unspecified, we cannot expect our data to be usable directly for any specific evaluation, and to process them by any given application program we will have to do some preprocessing first. Fortunately, the preprocessing task will be rather well-defined, consisting mainly of omitting information presently of no interest, and reformatting the remaining data according to the needs of the application program. Whenever the format of the input data required as well as the relevant structure of our abstract data base can be described by a formal grammar, we can automatically generate the preprocessing program by any of several existing generator systems, e. g., Lex [20], YACC [21], or WRG [22]; and in many cases the reformatting task will be fairly trivial so we might rather write the preprocessor from scratch.

## 4. Recommendations and Guidelines

From the considerations given above we derive the following recommendations on how to devise a coding scheme suitable for capturing a structured text while also preserving the known associated information.

□ *Decide on the basic encoding of the text.*

□ *Decide on the method and the format of the markup.*

□ *Assign markup tags arbitrarily, and document their meaning. Take care to mark up portions of text with different meanings differently.*

□ *Try to capture all the available structure information about the text. Concentrate on the logical structure*

*and do not worry about the layout, except if it carries essential information.*

□ *Do not omit any available information that has no apparent use. It might become important and useful later, if it is preserved now.*

□ *Rely on the computer to perform clerical tasks efficiently when given enough information; but remember that it is not intelligent, and that you will have to do the thinking.*

□ *Do not worry about efficiency of processing. Computers can be expected to continue getting faster.*

Some of these recommendations may sound obvious and trivial. According to our experience they are not.

## 5. An application

We have tested the viability of our approach within an ongoing project [23] of compiling a dictionary of Greek loanwords within Arabic. A central requirement is the ability to print Arabic, Greek, Syriac or Hebrew, and Latin script, and we decided to use and, if required, extend the author's ArabT<sub>E</sub>X system.

In addition to printing we wanted to automatically generate several indices sorted according to the collating sequences of the various languages used, and this proved feasible. We found that the necessary preprocessing could easily be handled by T<sub>E</sub>X itself plus some existing system routines.

\* The ArabT<sub>E</sub>X package is freely available for scientific and private applications. It can be downloaded from <ftp.informatik.uni-stuttgart.de> in the directory `/pub/ArabTeX/`. For other ways of acquiring it, contact the author.

### 5.1. Input encoding

As we decided to use T<sub>E</sub>X for all processing, we will use the basic T<sub>E</sub>X conventions [24]. This means the coding used will be 7-bit ASCII [25] both for text and for markup. In T<sub>E</sub>X a markup command is distinguished by a name consisting of Latin letters and preceded by an inverse slash, and, if required, followed by parameter strings included in curly braces; one of them might be the range of symbols the markup command applies to. In addition to the standard T<sub>E</sub>X commands we shall define additional symbolic commands as required.

We next take the intrinsic structure of the available input data into account. Presently they reside on a large number of index cards, each of which carries the information available about a specific Arabic lemma. There are main entries describing words derived from Greek directly or via some intermediate steps, and secondary entries that describe writing variants and refer to some main entry.

We represent these data as a possibly unordered sequence of text blocks in free format. Every text block starts with a markup command of the form `\lemma {the lemma}` followed by the descriptive information and closed by an empty line (for ease of editing only). The descriptive information may contain components in several languages that are marked up by `\ar {Arabic text}`, `\gr {Greek text}`, `\sy {Syriac text}`, `\he {Hebrew text}` as required; other languages, *e. g.*, Coptic could be added. Presently we did not distinguish the European languages occurring but could easily do so. In addition there are a few more symbolic tags like `\see` for pointers to other entries, `\var` for denoting variants, `\cod` for referring to sources, and a few more. Note that we distinguish between `\lemma` and `\ar` as their roles are different, and in the same way we denote *e. g.*, a Greek lemma and an explanation in Greek differently. Greek text is mapped to 7-bit

ASCII using the encoding proposed by Silvio Levy [26] and supported by GREEKT<sub>E</sub>X, another extension to T<sub>E</sub>X freely available [27]. For Arabic, Syriac, and Hebrew we use the standard encoding implemented in the Arab T<sub>E</sub>X system; it is a linearised variant of the ZDMG transliteration [28, 29] that uses no diacritical marks and can easily be handled using a standard computer keyboard.

The following example is typical; we made liberal use of white space to keep the input data which might have to be edited, human readable:

```
\lemma {qAbUs}
JA 1886 (1) 460.
\see \ar {qAwA-tUs} (ib.)

\lemma {qAbIl}
\gr {k'aphloc} \from \syr {qpl'}
ZDMG 1897 (51) 470.
der Kleinh'andler, Speisewirth:
\ar {mi-tl insAn -dAhib fl al-sUq `inda al-qAbIl
ya^sum al-^siwA'- wa-al.tabI-h}
"\"Wie ein Mensch welcher auf dem Markte bei
[dem] Speisewirth vorbeigeht und den Duft der ge-
kochten und gebratenen Speisen riecht\"".

\lemma {qAtisma}
\gr {k'ajisma} pl. \ar {qAtismAt}
GRAF VERZ. 86
"\"Kathisma in der Psalmeneinleitung\"".
\var \ar {qA.tsmA} (pl. \ar {qA.ssmAt}), \ar
{kAtsmA}.

\lemma {qAtsmAt}
GRAF VERZ. 86
\see \ar {qAtsmA} (ib.)
```

### 5.2. Printing the text

If we want to print a listing of the data in dictionary format we have to write a small driver program in the T<sub>E</sub>X macro language that will determine the general output format, and that will assign to all undefined tags as their meaning the required external representation by calling some T<sub>E</sub>X or Arab T<sub>E</sub>X routines. Then it will read the input data file

and let T<sub>E</sub>X process it to do the formatting. As presently no Syriac font is available we substituted Hebrew temporarily.

The resulting output for a sample page is given in the appendix. The correspondence with the encoding example should be obvious.

### 5.3. Sorting

Up to now we have assumed that our input data are sorted according to the Arabic lemma, obeying the standard Arabic collating sequence. In the long run this will not remain so and we shall have to re-sort. Now we exploit the fact that any Operating System known to us provides a sorting routine that can sort the lines of a text file according to the standard ASCII collating sequence, and we transform our input file into another one that when sorted mechanically will contain the entries in the required sequence. There is another T<sub>E</sub>X macro program that interprets the same data in a different way: instead of producing formatted output, it will read the data one complete entry at a time, filter out

the lemma, and compute an alphabetic sorting key from its internal Arabic representation that is available within ArabT<sub>E</sub>X. Now we copy the entry to an output file and prepend to every line a new tag of the form `\key {the key}`; and this new file can be processed by the standard sorting routine. The additional tag will not interfere with the printing process if in that context we define its meaning as producing no output at all. Thus we can use our sorted file as a new version of our input data, and whenever sufficiently many new data have been added, we re-process the file, compute keys for the new entries, keep the already existing ones, and re-sort again.

#### 5.4. *Compiling indices*

For compiling an index, say, on the Greek terms, from the same data set some more processing is required, but this task is simpler. We again process the data one entry at a time but only keep those entries that contain a Greek component (these are the main entries), and build a new output file containing for each main entry just the following items: a sorting key (again hidden within the argument of a tag, but this time computed from the Greek lemma), the

Greek lemma itself, and the Arabic lemma. This file can be printed by an obvious variant of the printing program described above.

For indices on other languages we proceed analogously, and we can even build a retrograde index by processing the internal representation of the Arabic lemma in reverse order. We have already tried this, and it proved to be surprisingly easy.

#### 5.5. *Further processing*

Among the lines given we could rather easily open up the way for other evaluations of the same data. We could, *e. g.*, search for lemmata in several languages, build concordances, collate versions of the same basic text for identifying variants, or derive a differently formatted file suitable for loading into a sufficiently powerful data base system.

None of this has yet been done, but we also see no basic difficulties apart from the work to be expended in

writing the necessary programs. We found T<sub>E</sub>X, as it is geared towards text processing from the outset, especially suitable for comparable tasks, but we cannot deny the fact that using the T<sub>E</sub>X macro language for programming is far from trivial, and other methods more widely known could be substituted.

#### 5.6. *Discussion*

Our present mechanism, while it proved usable, has some apparent drawbacks. One problem is that for any new way of processing we have to do some non-trivial programming; this, as we believe, is inherent. Using T<sub>E</sub>X macros for programming was locally convenient, as we had some experience, but is not mandatory; other techniques could be used as well. The fact that the parts in Oriental languages are coded in a transliteration helps editing using a very

simple plain text editor, but is not essential. The encodings for the various languages are logically independent of each other, and could easily be changed, even automatically, if some multi-language editor were available. We may even use different encodings for parts in the same language at the same time provided we keep them distinguishable by different markup tags.

### 6. **Conclusion**

Our experience has shown that encoding quite heterogeneous data in a way that preserves the available meta-information, enabled us to perform a variety of related but quite diverse automated processing tasks on the same abstract data base, without any manual re-encoding necessary. The programming effort required and the processing load invested were not trivial, but we believe that the costs incurred were reasonable given the fact that some of the tasks had, to our knowledge, never been attempted successfully before.

We generally believe in the benefits of cooperation, also between fields as diverse as Orientalistics and Computer Science; and we expect the cost of computing power to continue to decrease rapidly. Our main concern is to reduce, as far as possible, the amount of labour that cannot be delegated to a machine, in order to liberate humans from mechanical chores and to enable them to concentrate on tasks where they can exploit their specific abilities.



## Notes

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