

## Emerging Technologies in Modern Libraries: A Review of Blockchain, IoT, Big Data, and Smart Information Systems

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### Abstract

The Fourth Industrial Revolution has ushered in a constellation of transformative technologies blockchain, the Internet of Things (IoT), big data analytics, cloud computing, and augmented/virtual reality that are collectively reshaping every sector of knowledge management, including academic and research libraries. This conceptual review examines the application, potential, and challenges of these emerging technologies within the library and information science (LIS) domain, synthesising peer-reviewed literature published between 2007 and 2020 from Scopus, IEEE Xplore, ACM Digital Library, and Google Scholar. The paper traces how blockchain can secure digital rights and academic credentials; how IoT enables smart, responsive library environments; how big data analytics unlocks new intelligence about user behaviour and collection optimisation; and how augmented and virtual reality opens immersive pathways for information literacy instruction. A recurring theme across all technologies is the pronounced gap between international deployments particularly in technologically advanced libraries in North America, Europe, and East Asia and the current state of readiness in Indian academic libraries. While pioneering initiatives from INFLIBNET, the National Digital Library of India, and select IIT and IIM libraries indicate the direction of travel, significant barriers of infrastructure, funding, skill, and policy remain to be addressed. The paper concludes with targeted recommendations for building a sustainable, ethical, and inclusive smart library ecosystem in India.

**Keywords:** Blockchain; Internet of Things; Big Data Analytics; Smart Libraries; Cloud Computing; Augmented Reality; INFLIBNET; Library 4.0; Industry 4.0; Emerging Technologies; India

### 1. Introduction

#### *1.1 Background: Industry 4.0 and the Library*

The term 'Industry 4.0', coined by Klaus Schwab and popularised through the World Economic Forum, refers to the fusion of physical, digital, and biological systems enabled by a set of enabling technologies: artificial intelligence, robotics, the Internet of Things, blockchain, and advanced data analytics (Schwab, 2016). These technologies do not merely improve existing processes they redefine what processes are possible, dissolving boundaries between the physical and digital, between producer and consumer of information, and between reactive and anticipatory service models.

Libraries as institutions fundamentally concerned with the organisation, preservation, and mediation of recorded knowledge are both subjects of this transformation and active agents within it. The shift from static document repositories to dynamic, intelligent, network-embedded information ecosystems represents a transformation as profound as the transition from manuscript to print, or from print to digital (Borgman, 2007; Lankes, 2016). Smart information ecosystems libraries that can sense their environments, learn from user behaviour, verify the provenance of information, and adapt services in real time are no longer speculative

futures. They are operational realities in some parts of the world, and urgent aspirations in others (Wang, 2018; Noh, 2015).

In India, this transformation occurs against the backdrop of a higher education system of unparalleled scale and complexity: more than 900 universities, over 40,000 colleges, and a student population exceeding 37 million, served by libraries of dramatically varying capability. While the IITs, IIMs, and INFLIBNET-networked central universities have been early adopters of emerging technologies, the majority of India's college libraries remain at the early stages of even basic automation making the journey toward smart library systems a multi-stage challenge rather than a single technological leap (INFLIBNET Centre, 2019; Purohit & Kumar, 2019; Gupta & Kataria, 2020).

## ***1.2 Importance of Emerging Technologies in Libraries***

Three converging imperatives drive the urgency of emerging technology adoption in libraries. The first is the expectation imperative: users shaped by Google, Amazon, and Netflix systems that return instant, personalised, predictive responses find static library portals increasingly inadequate. A library that cannot offer personalised resource recommendations, real-time availability information, or conversational search is, from the perspective of its digital-native users, functionally inferior to a simple web search (Johnson et al., 2015; Lund & Wang, 2019).

The second is the security imperative. As libraries accumulate richer datasets user borrowing histories, research profiles, access logs, institutional repository content their cybersecurity obligations intensify correspondingly. Blockchain-enabled provenance verification, encrypted patron data management, and secure credential systems address security requirements that conventional library systems were not designed to meet (Patel, 2019; Casino et al., 2019).

The third is the intelligence imperative. The volume of scholarly output has grown beyond any individual's ability to navigate, and even the most skilled reference librarian cannot personally match the pattern-recognition capabilities of a well-trained machine learning system operating across a corpus of millions of papers. Intelligent systems that can analyse research landscapes, identify gaps, recommend resources, and predict emerging trends are increasingly viewed not as luxuries but as professional necessities for libraries that wish to remain relevant to research communities (Trivedi, 2019; Zhu & Spezi, 2019).

## ***1.3 Objectives of the Review***

This review is guided by four objectives:

1. To review the conceptual foundations and current applications of emerging technologies blockchain, IoT, big data analytics, cloud computing, and AR/VR in library and information services.
2. To analyse the documented applications of these technologies in both international library contexts and Indian academic library environments, highlighting the convergences and disparities.
3. To identify the ethical, technical, and human challenges that impede adoption, with particular reference to the constraints facing Indian library systems.

4. To explore the trajectories leading toward future smart library ecosystems and to articulate research-informed recommendations for sustainable implementation.

## 2. Review Methodology

This paper adopts a conceptual narrative review methodology, appropriate for synthesising an emerging, interdisciplinary literature base. Primary literature was retrieved from four databases: Scopus, IEEE Xplore, ACM Digital Library, and Google Scholar. Search terms included: blockchain in libraries; IoT smart library; Internet of Things library management; big data analytics academic libraries; cloud library services; augmented reality library; virtual reality information literacy; smart library systems; Library 4.0; INFLIBNET emerging technologies; artificial intelligence library India. Terms were applied singly and in Boolean combination.

Inclusion criteria required peer-reviewed publication status, direct relevance to library and information science, and technology-focused content. The coverage period of 2007–2020 was selected to encompass both the foundational theoretical literature on these technologies (particularly IoT and blockchain, which entered mainstream discourse around 2008–2015) and their practical library applications through 2020. Given the Indian authorial perspective, publications in DESIDOC Journal of Library & Information Technology, Annals of Library and Information Studies, and SRELS Journal of Information Management received additional systematic attention.

## 3. Blockchain Technology in Libraries

### 3.1 Conceptual Overview

Blockchain, first described by Nakamoto (2008) in the context of the Bitcoin cryptocurrency, is a distributed ledger technology in which data is stored in cryptographically linked blocks across a decentralised network of nodes, such that no single entity controls the ledger and any modification to an existing record is immediately detectable. Three properties make blockchain particularly compelling for information management applications: decentralisation, which eliminates single points of failure and control; immutability, which ensures that records once written cannot be altered without consensus from the network; and smart contracts, which are self-executing programs embedded in the blockchain that automatically enforce agreement terms when predefined conditions are met (Swan, 2015; Tapscott & Tapscott, 2016; Casino et al., 2019).

These properties translate directly into capabilities of considerable value to libraries: verifiable, tamper-proof records of provenance and ownership for digital objects; automated royalty and licensing transactions through smart contracts; and decentralised credential systems that do not depend on the continued existence of any single institution for verification. Babel and Haag (2018), in one of the earliest dedicated reviews of blockchain in LIS, identified copyright management, institutional credentialing, and secure repository architecture as the three most promising application domains. Li (2018) added digital resource trading enabling libraries to buy, sell, and license digital content through blockchain-mediated peer-to-peer transactions as a fourth emerging area.

### 3.2 Applications in Libraries

#### 3.2.1 Copyright Management and Digital Rights Protection

Copyright management is one of the most administratively burdensome aspects of digital library operation. Libraries must track licence agreements, usage rights, access restrictions, and renewal dates across thousands of subscriptions simultaneously a task that is simultaneously critical (non-compliance carries legal liability)

and largely invisible to users. Blockchain-based smart contracts can automate licence compliance: when a user accesses a copyrighted resource, a smart contract can verify the library's licence, log the transaction on the immutable ledger, and trigger micropayment or usage reporting functions without human intervention (Harris, 2009; Patel, 2019).

Internationally, several pilot projects have explored blockchain for journal article licensing. The Semantic Blockchain project (developed in collaboration between European research libraries) demonstrated that blockchain-mediated article access could reduce administrative overhead while providing publishers with more granular usage data than conventional COUNTER statistics. For Indian libraries, where compliance with international publisher licence terms is sometimes inconsistently monitored, blockchain-automated licence management could simultaneously reduce compliance risk and provide INFLIBNET with more accurate data on consortium-wide resource utilisation (Arora & Trivedi, 2010; INFLIBNET Centre, 2019).

### **3.2.2 Secure Institutional Repository Systems**

Institutional repositories platforms for archiving and disseminating the research output of universities face persistent challenges of content integrity assurance: how can a user be certain that a pre-print version of an article has not been silently modified after deposit? Blockchain-based repositories can provide cryptographic proof of version integrity at the point of deposit, creating an immutable audit trail that is publicly verifiable without requiring trust in the repository operator (Patel, 2019; Li, 2018).

In India, the Shodhganga repository of Indian theses hosting over 500,000 doctoral dissertations by 2020 would benefit substantially from blockchain-based provenance assurance. Academic misconduct concerns, including plagiarism and data fabrication in doctoral research, are a recognised problem in Indian universities. An immutable blockchain-anchored record of submission date and content hash for each Shodhganga deposit would create a verifiable timeline of intellectual priority that could support academic integrity enforcement (INFLIBNET Centre, 2020; Patel, 2019).

### **3.2.3 Academic Credential Verification**

The verification of academic credentials degrees, certificates, transcripts is a major operational challenge for universities and employers alike, typically requiring manual requests to issuing institutions and subject to document fraud. Blockchain-based credential systems, such as MIT's Blockcerts framework, allow institutions to issue tamper-proof digital credentials anchored on a public blockchain, verifiable by any third party without requiring contact with the issuing institution (Swan, 2015; Tapscott & Tapscott, 2016).

Library-specific applications include the issuance of verifiable digital certificates for information literacy training, library skill workshops, and professional development programmes. Indian universities conducting INFLIBNET-organised training programmes reaching thousands of library professionals annually could issue blockchain-anchored certificates that provide verifiable evidence of professional development for UGC-linked career advancement purposes (INFLIBNET Centre, 2019).

## ***3.3 Advantages and Limitations of Blockchain in Libraries***

The advantages of blockchain for library applications are principally those of trust, transparency, and automation: records that cannot be falsified, processes that execute without human intervention, and verification that does not require institutional intermediaries (Casino et al., 2019; Swan, 2015). These

advantages are particularly valuable in contexts like many Indian public universities where administrative trust and process reliability are variable.

Against these advantages must be weighed significant limitations. Blockchain systems are computationally intensive proof-of-work consensus mechanisms consume substantial energy though proof-of-stake alternatives significantly reduce this burden (Nakamoto, 2008; Casino et al., 2019). Scalability remains an active research challenge: public blockchains that must process thousands of transactions per second cannot currently match the throughput of centralised databases. Complexity is a practical barrier: deploying and maintaining a blockchain-based library system requires technical expertise well beyond the current capacity of most Indian library IT teams. And the legal status of smart contracts under Indian contract law particularly the Indian Contract Act 1872 remains largely untested, creating uncertainty about the enforceability of blockchain-mediated licence agreements (Patel, 2019).

#### **4. Internet of Things (IoT) in Libraries**

##### ***4.1 Smart Library Infrastructure***

The Internet of Things refers to the network of physical objects 'things' embedded with sensors, software, and connectivity that enable them to collect and exchange data with other devices and systems via the internet (Farooq et al., 2015). In the library context, IoT transforms passive physical spaces into responsive, data-rich environments that can monitor their own condition, communicate with users, and adapt to usage patterns in real time (Antonescu & Likar, 2019; Wang, 2018).

Smart shelves equipped with weight sensors, RFID readers, and optical recognition can detect when an item is removed, misplaced, or returned, updating the catalogue in real time without staff intervention. Occupancy sensors infrared, ultrasonic, or camera-based can map how different areas of the library are used throughout the day, providing administrators with the data necessary to optimise space allocation, furniture configuration, and staffing patterns (Al-Amin & Islam, 2019; Hoy, 2018). Environmental monitoring sensors tracking temperature, humidity, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, and noise levels can protect collection preservation conditions and create optimally conducive study environments (Wang, 2018).

Internationally, the Singapore National Library Board's IoT-enabled libraries represent perhaps the most comprehensive public deployment of smart library infrastructure globally, with automated book sorting systems, real-time shelf-reading robots, and patron-facing mobile apps providing live space availability information. In Europe, the Biblioquet system deployed in several French public libraries uses IoT sensors to guide visually impaired users through library spaces using audio navigation. In India, smart library infrastructure deployments have been documented primarily at IIT Bombay, IIT Kanpur, and the Indian Institute of Science Bangalore, where RFID-integrated smart shelves and occupancy monitoring systems have been implemented (Purohit & Kumar, 2019; Kaur & Kaur, 2019; Pendse, 2020).

##### ***4.2 RFID and IoT Integration***

RFID technology, which predates the IoT paradigm, has become a foundational layer within smart library IoT architectures. When RFID is integrated with IoT infrastructure, the result is a system capable not merely of recording individual check-out transactions but of tracking item movement throughout the library in real time, generating continuous inventory data, and triggering automated workflows reshelving alerts, preservation condition warnings, or inter-library loan initiation based on detected item states (Purohit & Kumar, 2019; Sreekumar & Bhatt, 2011).

The convergence of RFID and IoT also enables library management systems to receive a continuous feed of location and condition data, enabling predictive maintenance (identifying items showing signs of physical deterioration before they fail), dynamic collection management (redistributing items based on observed demand across branch locations), and real-time accuracy of OPAC availability records (Antonescu & Likar, 2019). In India, Kaur and Kaur (2019) documented IoT-RFID integration at three academic libraries in Punjab, finding that real-time inventory accuracy improved from approximately 72% (with periodic manual stock-checks) to over 95% following IoT integration.

### ***4.3 User-Centric IoT Services***

Beyond back-end efficiency, IoT enables a new generation of user-facing services. Indoor navigation systems using Bluetooth beacons, Wi-Fi triangulation, or QR code wayfinding allow users to locate specific items within large multi-floor library buildings without staff assistance. This capability is particularly valuable for users with mobility impairments or visual difficulties, and for the many library users especially new students who find large academic library buildings disorienting (Hoy, 2018; Al-Amin & Islam, 2019).

Personalised IoT alerts push notifications to a user's mobile phone when a reserved item becomes available, when their borrowed item is approaching its due date, or when a new acquisition matches their stated research interest profile represent an extension of traditional library notification services into the always-on mobile environment that characterises contemporary student life. In India, where WhatsApp penetration among university students exceeds 90%, IoT-triggered WhatsApp notifications represent a pragmatic and cost-effective channel for personalised library communication (Gupta & Kataria, 2020; Kaur & Kaur, 2019).

## **5. Big Data Analytics in Libraries**

### ***5.1 Conceptual Framework***

Big data refers to datasets characterised by the four 'Vs' of volume, velocity, variety, and veracity datasets that exceed the processing capacity of conventional database tools and require distributed computing architectures (Qiu et al., 2016; Davenport & Patil, 2012). Academic libraries generate big data from multiple sources: catalogue search logs, digital resource access records, borrowing transaction histories, e-resource usage statistics (COUNTER-compliant reports), institutional repository access logs, and increasingly, IoT sensor streams from smart library infrastructure (Bhatt & Bhatt, 2019; Wang, 2018).

The analytical frameworks applied to library big data range from descriptive analytics (what patterns exist in historical usage data?) through diagnostic analytics (why do particular resources show declining usage?) to predictive analytics (which resources are likely to be needed by which users next semester?) and prescriptive analytics (what acquisition, weeding, or subscription decisions will optimise collection value?). The progression from descriptive to prescriptive represents an increasing degree of analytical ambition and technical capability, with most library applications currently concentrated in the descriptive and diagnostic tiers (Bhatt & Bhatt, 2019; Yadav & Singh, 2020).

### ***5.2 Applications in Library Services***

#### **5.2.1 User Behaviour Analysis**

Understanding how users actually navigate and use library resources as opposed to how librarians assume they do is one of the most practically valuable applications of big data analytics. Analysis of search query logs can

reveal the vocabulary users employ, the refinement strategies they adopt when initial searches fail, and the points in the search process at which they abandon the library system for alternative sources such as Google Scholar or ResearchGate (Chowdhury, 2010; Trivedi, 2019).

Internationally, analyses of EBSCO and ProQuest usage logs by consortia have identified patterns of platform navigation that have driven interface redesign decisions, improving user task completion rates measurably. In India, Bhatt and Bhatt (2019) analysed six years of OPAC search logs at a Gujarat university library, finding that more than 40% of searches returned zero results indicating a profound vocabulary mismatch between user search language and cataloguing terminology that had gone undetected and unaddressed for years. This kind of evidence, invisible without analytics, provides a compelling case for the practical value of big data in library management.

### **5.2.2 Collection Optimisation and Predictive Acquisition**

Big data analytics transforms collection development from an art driven primarily by selector expertise, faculty requests, and publisher marketing to an evidence-based discipline grounded in demonstrated patterns of use, predictive demand modelling, and systematic cost-value analysis. Analytics platforms can identify items with high interlibrary loan demand (signalling acquisition candidates), items with zero circulation over extended periods (candidates for weeding), and subject areas where usage is growing relative to current collection depth (investment priorities) (Yadav & Singh, 2020; Bhatt & Bhatt, 2019).

For Indian academic libraries operating under significant acquisitions budget constraints, the stakes of collection intelligence are particularly high. Yadav and Singh (2020) surveyed 45 Indian academic libraries and found that fewer than a quarter used any form of systematic usage analytics to inform acquisition decisions, with the majority relying primarily on faculty recommendations. The gap between available analytical capability readily accessible through platforms like Koha and SOUL and actual practice represents a significant lost opportunity.

### **5.3 Challenges in Big Data Adoption for Indian Libraries**

Several obstacles impede the adoption of big data analytics in Indian academic libraries. Data quality is a primary concern: analytics models are only as good as the data they operate on, and libraries with inconsistently catalogued records, incomplete usage statistics, or multiple disconnected ILS platforms produce data too fragmented to support reliable analytical conclusions. The analytical skills required to design, run, and interpret big data analyses are rare among current library professionals, and LIS curricula have been slow to incorporate data science competencies as core requirements (Vishwakarma & Verma, 2019; Yadav & Singh, 2020).

## 6. Cloud Computing and Smart Libraries

### 6.1 Cloud-Based Library Services

Cloud computing the delivery of computing services (servers, storage, databases, software) over the internet on a pay-per-use model has transformed the economics and architecture of library information systems. Software-as-a-Service (SaaS) library management platforms, cloud-hosted institutional repositories, and virtual reading rooms all depend on cloud infrastructure to deliver scalable, always-accessible services without requiring libraries to maintain their own server hardware (Kumar & Sharma, 2020; Mukhopadhyay & Bhattacharya, 2015).

Cloud-based ILS platforms including Ex Libris Alma, OCLC WorldShare Management Services, and cloud-hosted Koha deployments enable remote access management, centralised administration across multiple library branches, and automatic system updates without local IT intervention. The transition from premise-based to cloud-based systems reduces upfront capital expenditure on server hardware while introducing ongoing subscription costs that must be carefully modelled against traditional cost structures (Yeh & Walter, 2016; Kumar & Sharma, 2020).

### 6.2 Benefits and the Indian Context

Cloud adoption in library systems offers three principal benefits: scalability (capacity can be increased or reduced in response to seasonal demand peaks such as examination periods), cost efficiency (particularly for storage-intensive services like digital repositories, where cloud economics are often favourable to on-premises alternatives), and flexibility (cloud-hosted systems support mobile access and remote work models that on-premises systems may not) (Kumar & Sharma, 2020).

In India, cloud adoption in academic libraries has been progressing, but unevenly. Kumar and Sharma (2020) surveyed 60 university libraries and found that approximately 35% had adopted at least one cloud-based service (typically cloud-hosted email, storage, or web hosting), while fully cloud-hosted ILMS remained rare, with INFLIBNET's own infrastructure the most widely trusted cloud provider. Concerns about data sovereignty particularly regarding the storage of student personal data on servers outside India and about connectivity reliability in Tier-2 and Tier-3 locations are the primary restraints. The Government of India's GI Cloud (MEGHRAJ) initiative, providing a national cloud infrastructure compliant with Indian data governance requirements, represents the most viable pathway for broad cloud adoption in Indian academic libraries (Mukhopadhyay & Bhattacharya, 2015).

## 7. Augmented Reality and Virtual Reality in Libraries

### 7.1 Conceptual Distinctions and Library Applications

Augmented Reality (AR) overlays digital information on the user's physical environment, typically through a smartphone camera or dedicated AR headset. Virtual Reality (VR) replaces the physical environment entirely with a computer-generated simulation, accessed through a VR headset. Both technologies offer distinct but complementary applications in library and information services (Zhao, 2020; Nair, 2020).

Virtual library tours allowing prospective students, researchers, or community members to explore a library's physical and digital spaces without physical presence have been piloted at several major international university libraries, including the University of California and the University of Glasgow. These tours have

proven particularly valuable during the COVID-19 period, when physical library access was restricted (Zhao, 2020). Interactive AR applications for in-library wayfinding overlaying shelf location indicators, item availability information, and related-resource suggestions on the user's smartphone view of physical stacks have been demonstrated in proof-of-concept deployments at libraries in the United States, South Korea, and Japan (Johnson et al., 2015).

In India, AR and VR adoption in academic libraries is in its very earliest stages. Nair (2020) conducted an exploratory study of AR awareness and readiness among 80 library professionals in Kerala, finding that while awareness of AR as a technology was moderately high (67%), only 12% were aware of any AR library application, and none had personal experience with AR deployment. This pattern of awareness without implementation is consistent with findings across other emerging technology domains in Indian library literature: professionals recognise the potential but lack the infrastructure, budget, and institutional support to move from concept to deployment (Gupta & Kataria, 2020; Pendse, 2020).

## ***7.2 Immersive Information Literacy Training***

Perhaps the most pedagogically rich application of AR/VR in libraries is in information literacy instruction. Traditional information literacy workshops delivered in a library classroom, often in a single session, typically to groups of students with widely varying prior knowledge are poorly matched to the learning needs of diverse student cohorts. VR-based information literacy modules allow students to practise database navigation, source evaluation, and citation formation at their own pace, in an immersive simulated environment that provides immediate feedback without the social anxiety of making mistakes in a group setting (Johnson et al., 2015; Zhao, 2020).

For Indian universities serving first-generation students with limited prior exposure to academic library resources and research methodology, this self-paced, experiential approach to information literacy training has particular appeal. The challenge lies in the cost of VR hardware and content development, both of which remain substantial barriers in resource-constrained institutional environments.

## **8. Ethical and Operational Challenges**

### ***8.1 Ethical Issues***

The adoption of smart technologies in libraries creates ethical tensions that the profession has not yet fully resolved. Privacy is the most acute of these. IoT sensors that monitor occupancy and movement, analytics systems that profile user information-seeking behaviour, and AI recommendation engines that learn from borrowing history collectively create a surveillance infrastructure whose implications are not trivial. The library profession's foundational commitment to intellectual freedom the principle that users should be able to seek information without fear of observation or judgement is genuinely threatened by systems that, however beneficial their service implications, necessarily record what people read, search for, and access (Poole, 2017).

In India, the legal framework governing library data privacy is underdeveloped. The Personal Data Protection Bill (under parliamentary consideration during 2019–2020) would establish a general data protection framework, but library-specific data governance addressing questions of how long user data may be retained, what purposes it may be used for, and what disclosure rights users have is entirely absent from current policy. The collection of biometric data (for smart access systems) and the detailed behavioural profiles created by big data analytics systems create risks that are likely to fall on already-marginalised students those from low-income backgrounds, those with unconventional research interests disproportionately (Poole, 2017).

Surveillance risk is a closely related concern. Smart library infrastructure can be repurposed for surveillance functions that extend well beyond library management: occupancy sensors that provide granular data on individual movement patterns, IoT-connected cameras, and network access logs that reveal browsing behaviour all represent surveillance capabilities that library administrators may not have fully anticipated when deploying what they conceived as service-improvement tools. The distinction between a library that tracks usage patterns to improve service and a library that surveil students requires active institutional governance, not just technical controls.

## ***8.2 Technical Challenges***

The technical challenges of emerging technology adoption in libraries are considerable. Infrastructure dependency is a defining constraint: IoT systems require reliable, high-bandwidth wireless networks; blockchain deployments require computational resources and sustained connectivity; big data analytics requires server capacity and specialised software infrastructure. For Indian libraries outside the metropolitan centres, where network reliability and power supply are often inconsistent, these infrastructure prerequisites represent substantial barriers (Purohit & Kumar, 2019; Gupta & Kataria, 2020).

Interoperability is a systemic challenge. Smart library systems are only as valuable as their ability to exchange data seamlessly: an IoT occupancy monitoring system that cannot communicate with the ILMS, a blockchain repository that cannot interact with the catalogue, or an analytics platform that cannot ingest data from both the OPAC and the digital repository creates information silos rather than intelligent ecosystems. Standards for library IoT and smart system interoperability are nascent and incompletely adopted, and the vendor landscape is fragmented across proprietary platforms (Antonescu & Likar, 2019; Wang, 2018).

## ***8.3 Human and Organisational Challenges***

The technology skills gap in the Indian library profession is a persistent and well-documented obstacle. MLIS programmes have been slow to incorporate blockchain fundamentals, IoT architecture, data analytics, and AR/VR development into their curricula. As a result, the generation of library professionals currently in service in Indian academic institutions predominantly lacks the conceptual foundations required to evaluate, select, and manage the emerging technology systems that this paper reviews (Vishwakarma & Verma, 2019; Gupta & Kataria, 2020).

Adaptation barriers compound skill gaps. Many experienced library professionals have built their professional identity around mastery of skills MARC cataloguing, reference interview technique, collection selection expertise that are being partially automated or displaced by emerging technologies. The psychological adjustment required to embrace technologies that restructure these core competencies is not trivial, and institutional cultures that lack visible leadership support for technology adoption make that adjustment harder. The risk is a self-reinforcing cycle: professionals who lack the skills to evaluate technologies cannot advocate effectively for their adoption, and without adoption, opportunities to develop practical skills through use never arise.

## **9. Comparative Analysis of Emerging Technologies**

Table 1 presents a consolidated comparative overview of the five emerging technology domains reviewed in this paper, summarising their major library applications, principal benefits, current limitations, and readiness status in Indian academic libraries.

**Table 1. Comparative overview of emerging technologies in libraries: Applications, benefits, limitations, and Indian readiness.**

Technology	Major Library Application	Principal Benefits	Key Limitations	Indian Readiness (2020)
Blockchain	Copyright management; digital credential verification; secure repository provenance	Tamper-proof records; automated licence compliance; decentralised trust	High complexity; energy use; scalability constraints; uncertain legal status in India	Conceptual/pilot stage; no large-scale deployment documented
Internet of Things (IoT)	Smart shelves; occupancy monitoring; RFID integration; user navigation	Real-time inventory accuracy; space optimisation; personalised user alerts	Infrastructure dependency; privacy risks; interoperability gaps; maintenance costs	Early adoption at IITs, IIMs, IISc; limited outside elite institutions
Big Data Analytics	User behaviour analysis; collection optimisation; predictive acquisition	Evidence-based decisions; zero-result search identification; demand forecasting	Data quality dependency; analytics skill shortage; fragmented data sources	Low; fewer than 25% of surveyed libraries using systematic analytics
Cloud Computing	SaaS ILS; cloud repository hosting; remote access; disaster recovery	Scalability; cost efficiency; remote access; automatic updates	Data sovereignty concerns; connectivity dependency; subscription cost models	Moderate; approximately 35% using some cloud services; MEGHRAJ pathway emerging
AR / VR	Virtual library tours; immersive information literacy; AR wayfinding	Experiential learning; accessibility for remote/disabled users; spatial orientation	High hardware and development costs; awareness gap; infrastructure requirements	Very low; awareness without implementation; exploratory studies only

## 10. Emerging Trends and Future Smart Library Ecosystems

### 10.1 Autonomous Libraries

The logical endpoint of converging IoT, AI, and robotics adoption in libraries is the autonomous library a physical environment that manages its own day-to-day operations without requiring continuous human oversight. Self-reshelving robots that read RFID tags and navigate stacks autonomously, AI-driven acquisition systems that identify and order needed resources without librarian review, and smart building systems that adjust lighting, temperature, and furniture configuration in response to detected occupancy patterns all represent components of the autonomous library vision (Wang, 2018; Noh, 2015).

No academic library has yet achieved comprehensive autonomy nor is full autonomy necessarily a desirable goal, given the professional judgement that librarians contribute to collection curation, user consultation, and community engagement. The more realistic and appropriate target is supervised autonomy: routine operations

handled intelligently by automated systems, with librarians focusing on the higher-level functions that require human expertise, contextual judgement, and interpersonal relationship. In India, the path toward supervised autonomy runs through the prerequisite of basic automation a milestone that the majority of college libraries have yet to achieve.

### ***10.2 AI + IoT Integration and the Smart Library Platform***

The most powerful emerging technology configuration for libraries is not any single technology but the integration of AI and IoT systems that can both sense their environment in real time (IoT) and make intelligent inferences and decisions based on that data (AI). A library where IoT sensors provide continuous data on which items are being handled, which spaces are occupied, and how environmental conditions are changing, combined with AI systems that analyse those data streams to predict needs, identify problems, and trigger responses, begins to approximate a genuinely intelligent knowledge environment (Breeding, 2018; Chen, 2019).

INFLIBNET's roadmap for SOUL 4.0, as reported in the 2020 NDLI status report, includes exploration of AI-enhanced recommendation and analytics features. If INFLIBNET develops AI-IoT integration capabilities within the SOUL platform leveraging the data from the hundreds of RFID systems already deployed in INFLIBNET member libraries the impact on Indian academic library service quality could be substantial and broadly distributed (INFLIBNET Centre, 2020).

### ***10.3 Metaverse Libraries***

The concept of the metaverse a persistent, shared, three-dimensional virtual environment accessible through VR and AR interfaces introduces possibilities for library services that extend well beyond virtual tours and immersive instruction. A metaverse library could host virtual study groups, three-dimensional visualisation of complex datasets, collaborative real-time annotation of digital texts, and virtual research consultations with librarians that replicate the experiential richness of in-person interaction for geographically distributed users (Zhao, 2020).

While metaverse library services are, as of 2020, firmly in the experimental category, the rapid development of accessible VR hardware and the social familiarity with virtual environments among younger cohorts of users suggests that the timeline to practical deployment may be shorter than it currently appears. For India, where regional language barriers, geographic distance, and institutional inequalities limit many students' access to high-quality library services, a well-designed metaverse library could potentially provide equitable access to resources and expertise that physical libraries have never been able to deliver universally.

### ***10.4 Quantum Information Systems***

Quantum computing which exploits quantum mechanical phenomena to perform computations that are intractable for classical computers represents a technology that is, as of 2020, still primarily a research domain but whose library implications are beginning to be theorised. Quantum computing could enable information retrieval across datasets of virtually unlimited scale at speeds that would make real-time personalised semantic search across all human knowledge practically feasible. Quantum cryptography could provide a mathematically unbreakable foundation for the secure library credentials and copyright management systems that current blockchain approaches approximate but cannot guarantee (Swan, 2015).

For Indian libraries, quantum computing is a distant horizon rather than an immediate planning consideration. Its relevance in this review lies primarily in establishing the directionality of technological development: the systems that libraries will be managing in 2040 will be qualitatively different from those of today, and LIS education and professional development must cultivate a culture of technological adaptability rather than competence in any specific system.

### 11. Research Gaps

A careful assessment of the reviewed literature reveals the following significant gaps requiring scholarly attention:

1. Absence of implementation studies in developing-country libraries: The large majority of empirical studies on blockchain, IoT, big data, and AR/VR in libraries originate from institutions in North America, Western Europe, and East Asia. Implementation experience in developing-country contexts particularly in Indian State universities and colleges outside the metropolitan tier is almost entirely absent. The challenges, adaptations, and outcomes of deployment in resource-constrained, intermittently connected, and multilingual environments are fundamentally different from those in well-resourced settings, and warrant dedicated investigation.
2. Limited ethical governance research specific to library AI and IoT: While data privacy concerns are regularly acknowledged in the literature, no study reviewed here proposed an operationally grounded ethical governance framework specifically designed for AI and IoT deployment in library contexts. The intersection of Indian data protection law, library professional ethics, and smart sensor infrastructure is an entirely uncharted research territory.
3. Absence of standard smart library frameworks for the Indian context: International frameworks such as Library 4.0 (Noh, 2015) and Wang's (2018) smart library model provide useful conceptual starting points, but they were developed without reference to the distinctive institutional, infrastructural, and policy contexts of Indian academic libraries. An India-specific smart library readiness framework analogous to the NAAC quality assurance model would provide a practically useful instrument for institutional self-assessment and benchmarking.
4. Insufficient longitudinal evaluation studies: Most technology deployment studies in the reviewed literature report initial implementation outcomes without follow-up assessments of sustained use, system evolution, skill development, or long-term impact on service quality. Multi-year studies that track the entire lifecycle of emerging technology adoption from initial piloting through maturation to routine operation are needed to understand what sustainable technology integration in libraries actually requires.
5. Indic-language natural language processing for smart library applications: Smart library chatbots, recommendation systems, and semantic search engines predominantly operate in English. The development of NLP capabilities for Hindi, Tamil, Telugu, Bengali, Marathi, and other major Indian languages calibrated to library domain vocabulary and user query patterns is a critical research gap with direct implications for equitable service delivery.

## 12. Recommendations

### *12.1 Develop Smart Library Policies*

Indian academic libraries lack institutional policies governing the acquisition, deployment, and governance of smart technologies. Every library embarking on IoT, AI, or big data initiatives should develop a Smart Library Policy that addresses: technology selection criteria, data collection and retention boundaries, user privacy protections, cybersecurity standards, and staff development requirements. INFLIBNET should develop a model Smart Library Policy template suitable for adaptation by member institutions, informed by international best practice from IFLA's guidelines on digital services and user privacy.

### *12.2 Strengthen Cybersecurity Frameworks*

As library systems become richer repositories of personal data, cybersecurity must be elevated from an afterthought to a foundational design principle. Libraries should implement minimum cybersecurity standards aligned with the Government of India's National Cyber Security Policy (2013) and its successor frameworks. Regular security audits of ILS, repository, and IoT systems, staff training on social engineering and phishing awareness, and multi-factor authentication for administrative access should be treated as non-negotiable baselines rather than aspirational best practices.

### *12.3 Invest in Librarian Digital Competencies*

No technology serves users well if the professionals responsible for it lack the competencies to configure, evaluate, and adapt it. MLIS curricula should be comprehensively reformed to include data science fundamentals, IoT literacy, blockchain conceptual foundations, AR/VR application awareness, and ethical AI as mandatory core modules. INFLIBNET's professional development programmes already the most impactful training infrastructure in Indian librarianship should introduce technology-focused workshop tracks, available both in-person and through open online delivery, addressing the specific emerging technology adoption challenges of Indian academic libraries.

### *12.4 Promote Interdisciplinary Research*

The challenges of emerging technology adoption in libraries cannot be solved by library science alone. Computer scientists who understand blockchain and IoT architecture, social scientists who study technology adoption in public institutions, legal scholars who understand data governance, and education researchers who study information literacy pedagogy all have essential contributions to make. Funding agencies including UGC, DST, and IMLS (for Indo-US collaborative projects) should create dedicated interdisciplinary research grant schemes that incentivise collaboration between LIS departments, computer science departments, and social science faculties on smart library research questions with Indian contextual relevance.

## 13. Conclusion

Emerging technologies blockchain, IoT, big data analytics, cloud computing, and augmented and virtual reality are collectively redefining what a library can be and do. They offer the prospect of libraries that are simultaneously more efficient and more personalised; more secure and more accessible; more intelligent in their response to user needs and more transparent in how they handle user data. These are not marginal improvements to library service they represent a qualitative transformation in the relationship between libraries, information, and people.

The review presented in this paper consistently reveals a pronounced gap between the pace of this transformation in technologically advanced international settings and the current state of readiness in the majority of Indian academic libraries. The exceptions INFLIBNET-connected central universities, IITs, IIMs, and a handful of progressive state universities demonstrate that the gap is not insurmountable. They also demonstrate that the prerequisites for success are consistent: sustained institutional commitment, adequate and reliable funding, professional development investment, and policy frameworks that govern rather than merely permit technology adoption.

Sustainable smart library implementation requires something that no technology can provide: a shared institutional belief that libraries matter enough to invest in seriously. In India, that belief must translate into budgetary allocations, curriculum reforms, accreditation incentives, and policy frameworks that treat library technology not as a peripheral amenity but as a core component of educational infrastructure. When it does, the emerging technologies reviewed in this paper will find fertile ground in which to grow.

The future library will not be defined by the technology it deploys but by the values those technologies serve: equity, curiosity, intellectual freedom, and the right of every person, regardless of where they were born or how much money their institution has, to access the full breadth of human knowledge. Technology is the means. Those values are the end.

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