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**UNIVERSITÄT
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3D Metric Fields

A Novel Approach to a New Idea

Bachelor Thesis

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Abstract

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Chapter 1

Introduction

- What are Frame Fields?
- Why are they important?
- How do *we* generate them?

A frame field

A vector field is locally integrable, if and only if $\nabla \times A = 0$. [3]

Chapter 2

Mathematical Background

We will make heavy use of differential geometry in the following sections. To get us all on the same page, I introduce the basic concepts what we will use, but I refrain from giving any proofs. I will give definitions only as far as we need it. These definitions will by no means be exhaustive. The following is an incomplete summary of what we need presented in “Introduction to smooth manifolds” [2]

Manifold A manifold \mathcal{M} is a space that locally looks like Euclidean space. More exactly, a n -manifold is a topological space, where each point on the manifold has an open neighborhood that is locally homeomorphic to an open subset of Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n . A manifold can be equipped with additional structure. For example, we can work on *smooth manifolds*. In simple terms, a manifold is *smooth* if it is similar enough to \mathbb{R}^n that we can do Calculus like differentiation or integration on it. For this, each point on the manifold must be locally *diffeomorphic* to an open subset of \mathbb{R}^n space.

Tangent space, Tangent bundle There are many equivalent definitions for the tangent space. One definition is for each point p in the manifold \mathcal{M} , the tangent space $T_p\mathcal{M}$ consists of $\gamma'(0)$ for all differentiable paths $\gamma : (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ with $p = \gamma(0)$. The tangent space is a vector space which has the same dimension as its manifold, which is 3 in our case. These tangent spaces can be “glued” together to form the *tangent bundle* $T\mathcal{M} = \sqcup_{p \in \mathcal{M}} T_p\mathcal{M}$, which itself is a manifold of dimension $2n$. An element of $T\mathcal{M}$ can be written as (p, v) with $p \in \mathcal{M}$ and $v \in T_p\mathcal{M}$. This admits a natural projection $\pi : T\mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$, which sends each vector $v \in T_p\mathcal{M}$ to the point p where it is tangent: $\pi(p, v) = p$. A *section* $\sigma : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow T\mathcal{M}$ is a continuous map, with $\pi \circ \sigma = \text{Id}_{\mathcal{M}}$. Sections of $T\mathcal{M}$ are vector fields on \mathcal{M} .

Cotangent space, Cotangent bundle The dual space V^* of a vector space V consists of all linear maps $\omega : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We call these functionals *covectors* on V . V^* is itself a vector space, with the same dimension as V and operations like addition and scalar multiplication can be performed on its elements. Any element in a vector space can be expressed as a finite linear combination of its basis. This basis is called the *dual basis*. Thus, we call the dual space of the vector space $T_p\mathcal{M}$ its *cotangent space*, denoted by $T_p^*\mathcal{M}$. As before, the disjoint union of $T_p^*\mathcal{M}$ forms the *cotangent bundle*: $T^*\mathcal{M} = \sqcup_{p \in \mathcal{M}} T_p^*\mathcal{M}$. Defined analogously from above, sections σ on $T^*\mathcal{M}$ define *covector fields* or *1-forms*.

Tensors Before we can introduce differential forms in the next paragraph, we need to go a little bit into *tensors*. In simple words, tensors are real-valued, multilinear functions. A map $F : V_1 \times \dots \times V_k \rightarrow W$ is multilinear, if F is linear in each component. For example, the dot product in \mathbb{R}^n is a tensor. It takes two vectors and is linear in each component - bilinear. Another example is the *Tensor Product of Covectors*: Let V be a vector space and take two covectors $\omega, \eta \in V^*$. Define the new function $\omega \otimes \eta : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $\omega \otimes \eta(v_1, v_2) = \omega(v_1)\eta(v_2)$. It is multilinear, because ω and η are linear. We look at a special class of tensors, the *alternating tensors*. A tensor is alternating, if it changes sign whenever two arguments are interchanged, i.e. $\omega(v_1, v_2) = -\omega(v_2, v_1)$. A covariant tensor field over a manifold defines a covariant

tensor at each point on the manifold, covariant because the tensor is over the cotangent space $T_p^*\mathcal{M}$. An alternating tensor field is called a *differential form*.

Differential Forms, Exterior Derivative Recall that a section from $T^*\mathcal{M}$ is called a differential 1-form, or just 1-form. Define the *wedge product* (or *exterior product*) between two 1-forms:

$$(\omega \wedge \eta)_p = \omega_p \wedge \eta_p$$

Notice the similarity to the *Tensor Product of Covectors*: We get a new map, (a 2-form):

$$\omega \wedge \eta : T\mathcal{M} \times T\mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

The wedge product is antisymmetric, therefore $\omega \wedge \eta = -\eta \wedge \omega$ for 1-forms ω and η . There is a natural differential operator d on differential forms we call *exterior derivative*. The exterior derivative is a generalization of the differential of a function. In particular, a smooth function f (a 0-form) has the derivative df which is a 1-form. The exact definition is not important for us, so let us just look at some properties so we can work with it. If ω is a k -form, $d\omega$ is a $(k+1)$ -form. TODO

Riemannian metric, g -orthonormality Inner products are examples of symmetric tensors. They allow us to define lengths and angles between vectors. We can apply this idea to manifolds. A Riemannian metric g is a symmetric positive-definite tensor field at each point. If \mathcal{M} is a manifold, the pair (\mathcal{M}, g) is called a *Riemannian manifold*. Let g be the Riemannian metric on \mathcal{M} and $p \in \mathcal{M}$, then g_p is an inner product on $T_p\mathcal{M}$. We write $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_g$ to denote this inner product. Any Riemannian metric can be written as positive-definite symmetric matrix, which allows for this simple form: $\langle v, w \rangle_g = v^\top g w$.

Such a new metric allows for the definition of *g -orthonormality*: A basis $[e_1, e_2, e_3]$ of $T_p\mathcal{M}$ is *g -orthonormal* if $\langle e_i, e_j \rangle_g = \delta_{ij}$.

connection, covariant derivative

lie algebra $\mathfrak{so}(3)$

Frame field, vector field, integrability

A frame F is a set of 6 vectors $\{\pm F_0, \pm F_1, \pm F_2\}$. We can represent such a frame F as a 3×3 matrix F , where the i th-column is F_i . A frame field then maps to every point in 3D-space such a frame, i.e. $F : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$. Usually, we work on a 3-manifold \mathcal{M} and a positively oriented frame field, i.e. $F|_{\mathcal{M}} : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$, where $\det(F) > 0$. To allow for anisotropic, nonuniform meshes, we generalize orthonormality of frames to g -orthonormal frames. Orthonormality is measured in some metric g , and a frame F satisfies the condition $\langle F_i, F_j \rangle_g = \delta_{ij}$. Any frame field with $\det(F) > 0$ naturally defines a metric $g = (FF^\top)^{-1}$, where F is g -orthonormal

$$F^\top g F = Id.$$

We can factor the frame field F into a symmetric part $g^{1/2}$ and a rotational part R

$$F = g^{-1/2} R$$

The symmetric part $g^{-1/2}$ keeps F g -orthonormal

$$\implies F^\top g F = (g^{-1/2} R)^\top g g^{-1/2} R = R^\top g^{-1/2} g g^{-1/2} R = Id.$$

and R represents a rotational field $R : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow SO(3)$. The requirements for our frame field are:

- Smoothness
- Integrability
- Metric consistency: $g = (FF^\top)^{-1}$

Chapter 3

Connection One-Form ω

A vector field U is integrable, if and only if $\nabla \times U = 0$, which means the vector field has vanishing curl everywhere. We can express this more naturally with the language of differential forms: The curl can be written as the exterior derivative d of a one-form α . A one-form (more generally, a differential form) is closed, if $d\alpha = 0$. Therefore, the local integrability can be expressed as the closedness of a one-form. We want F^{-1} (TODO: why F^{-1}) to be integrable. To achieve local integrability for, it suffices to make R locally integrable. We can think of a rotation field R as the composition of 3 vector fields

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ R_1 & R_2 & R_3 \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

where $R_i : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is a vector field. We can therefore construct a vector-valued one-form, given $p = (x, y, z)^\top$ in Euclidean coordinates

$$\alpha \triangleq F^{-1}dp = R^\top g^{1/2}dp$$

where $dp = (dx, dy, dz)^\top$ is the common orthonormal one-form basis of $\Omega^1(\mathcal{M})$.

$$R \text{ locally integrable} \iff \mathbf{0} = d\alpha$$

Some reformulations yield:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{0} = d\alpha &= d(R^\top g^{1/2}dp) \stackrel{(1)}{=} dR^\top \wedge (g^{1/2}dp) + R^\top d(g^{1/2}dp) \\ &= R^\top (\omega \wedge (g^{1/2}dp) + d(g^{1/2}dp)) \end{aligned}$$

where for (1), the Leibnitz Rule for the exterior derivative is applied, and we define

$$\omega = RdR^\top \in \mathfrak{so}(3).$$

Remark. ω is an antisymmetric matrix-valued one-form (every element is a one-form).

Proof. We differentiate the orthogonality condition of the rotation matrix R (taking the derivative w.r.t. every element):

$$\begin{aligned} Id &= RR^\top \\ d(Id) &= d(RR^\top) \\ \mathbf{0} &= dRR^\top + RdR^\top \\ \mathbf{0} &= (RdR^\top)^\top + RdR^\top \\ -(RdR^\top)^\top &= RdR^\top \end{aligned}$$

□

Elements of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{so}(3)$ can be thought as infinitesimal rotations and ω can be used as a connection one-form. For our purposes, it suffices to know that elements are antisymmetric matrices. To make R locally integrable, we find ω such that the one-form α is closed ($d\alpha = 0$, curl-free), then try to match the ω with R , which can be expressed as

$$\min_{R \in SO(3)} \|RdR^T - \omega\|^2.$$

Connection evaluation To find ω , we use the above equation

$$\mathbf{0} = R^\top (\omega \wedge (g^{1/2} dp) + d(g^{1/2} dp)) \iff \mathbf{0} = \omega \wedge (g^{1/2} dp) + d(g^{1/2} dp)$$

and reformulate into a linear system. We represent the antisymmetric matrix-valued one-form ω

$$\omega = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \omega_{12} & -\omega_{31} \\ -\omega_{12} & 0 & \omega_{23} \\ \omega_{31} & -\omega_{23} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

by $\begin{bmatrix} \omega_{23} & \omega_{31} & \omega_{12} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} dx & dy & dz \end{bmatrix} W$. We write $W = [W_1, W_2, W_3]$, $W_i \in \mathbb{R}^3$. That is, W is the matrix with the coefficients for the one-forms, e.g. $W_1 = [(\omega^{23})_1, (\omega^{23})_2, (\omega^{23})_3]^\top$. Recall, a one-form can be expressed as

$$\omega_{ij} = (\omega^{ij})_1 dx + (\omega^{ij})_2 dy + (\omega^{ij})_3 dz$$

So e.g.

$$\omega_{23} = \begin{bmatrix} dx & dy & dz \end{bmatrix} W_1 = (\omega^{23})_1 dx + (\omega^{23})_2 dy + (\omega^{23})_3 dz$$

We write $A = g^{1/2} = [A^1, A^2, A^3]$. We use the equation $\mathbf{0} = \omega \wedge (g^{1/2} dp) + d(g^{1/2} dp)$. First part:

$$\begin{aligned} \omega \wedge g^{1/2} dp &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \omega_{12} & -\omega_{31} \\ -\omega_{12} & 0 & \omega_{23} \\ \omega_{31} & -\omega_{23} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \wedge \begin{bmatrix} A_1^1 & A_1^2 & A_1^3 \\ A_2^1 & A_2^2 & A_2^3 \\ A_3^1 & A_3^2 & A_3^3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} dx \\ dy \\ dz \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} +\omega_{12} \wedge (A_2^1 dx + A_2^2 dy + A_2^3 dz) - \omega_{31} \wedge (A_3^1 dx + A_3^2 dy + A_3^3 dz) \\ -\omega_{12} \wedge (A_1^1 dx + A_1^2 dy + A_1^3 dz) + \omega_{23} \wedge (A_3^1 dx + A_3^2 dy + A_3^3 dz) \\ +\omega_{31} \wedge (A_1^1 dx + A_1^2 dy + A_1^3 dz) - \omega_{23} \wedge (A_2^1 dx + A_2^2 dy + A_2^3 dz) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

It will get really messy if we calculate each component here, so let us calculate one component separately first:

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_{ij} \wedge (A_k^1 dx + A_k^2 dy + A_k^3 dz) &= ((\omega^{ij})_1 dx + (\omega^{ij})_2 dy + (\omega^{ij})_3 dz) \wedge (A_k^1 dx + A_k^2 dy + A_k^3 dz) \\ &= (\omega^{ij})_1 A_k^2 dx \wedge dy + (\omega^{ij})_1 A_k^3 dx \wedge dz \\ &\quad + (\omega^{ij})_2 A_k^1 dy \wedge dx + (\omega^{ij})_2 A_k^3 dy \wedge dz \\ &\quad + (\omega^{ij})_3 A_k^1 dz \wedge dx + (\omega^{ij})_3 A_k^2 dz \wedge dy \\ &= ((\omega^{ij})_1 A_k^2 - (\omega^{ij})_2 A_k^1) dx \wedge dy \\ &\quad + ((\omega^{ij})_2 A_k^3 - (\omega^{ij})_3 A_k^2) dy \wedge dz \\ &\quad + ((\omega^{ij})_3 A_k^1 - (\omega^{ij})_1 A_k^3) dz \wedge dx \end{aligned}$$

where we use the fact that $dx \wedge dx = 0$ and $dx \wedge dy = -dy \wedge dx$. We can clean up the above expression using the cross product:

$$\begin{bmatrix} ((\omega^{ij})_2 A_k^3 - (\omega^{ij})_3 A_k^2) \\ ((\omega^{ij})_3 A_k^1 - (\omega^{ij})_1 A_k^3) \\ ((\omega^{ij})_1 A_k^2 - (\omega^{ij})_2 A_k^1) \end{bmatrix}^\top \begin{bmatrix} dy \wedge dz \\ dz \wedge dx \\ dx \wedge dy \end{bmatrix} = [W_i \times A^k]^\top \begin{bmatrix} dy \wedge dz \\ dz \wedge dx \\ dx \wedge dy \end{bmatrix}$$

We use the fact that $[A_1, A_2, A_3] = [A^1, A^2, A^3]$ because A is symmetric, and W_1 corresponds to ω_{23} , W_2 to ω_{31} and W_3 to ω_{12} . Second part:

$$d(g^{1/2}dp) = d(Adp) = d\left(\begin{bmatrix} A_1^1 & A_1^2 & A_1^3 \\ A_2^1 & A_2^2 & A_2^3 \\ A_3^1 & A_3^2 & A_3^3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} dx \\ dy \\ dz \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

Again, we can do this separately for each row:

$$\begin{aligned} & d(A_k^1 dx + A_k^2 dy + A_k^3 dz) \\ &= dA_k^1 \wedge dx + dA_k^2 \wedge dy + dA_k^3 \wedge dz \\ &= \frac{\partial A_k^1}{\partial x} dx \wedge dx + \frac{\partial A_k^1}{\partial y} dy \wedge dx + \frac{\partial A_k^1}{\partial z} dz \wedge dx \\ &+ \frac{\partial A_k^2}{\partial x} dx \wedge dy + \frac{\partial A_k^2}{\partial y} dy \wedge dy + \frac{\partial A_k^2}{\partial z} dz \wedge dy \\ &+ \frac{\partial A_k^3}{\partial x} dx \wedge dz + \frac{\partial A_k^3}{\partial y} dy \wedge dz + \frac{\partial A_k^3}{\partial z} dz \wedge dz \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial A_k^3}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial A_k^2}{\partial z}\right) dy \wedge dz + \left(\frac{\partial A_k^1}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial A_k^3}{\partial x}\right) dz \wedge dx + \left(\frac{\partial A_k^2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_k^1}{\partial y}\right) dx \wedge dy \\ &= (\nabla \times A_k)^\top \begin{bmatrix} dy \wedge dz \\ dz \wedge dx \\ dx \wedge dy \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Finally, we can put everything together:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{0} &= \begin{bmatrix} (W_3 \times A^2 - W_2 \times A^3 + \nabla \times A^1)^\top \\ (W_1 \times A^3 - W_3 \times A^1 + \nabla \times A^2)^\top \\ (W_2 \times A^1 - W_1 \times A^2 + \nabla \times A^3)^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} dy \wedge dz \\ dz \wedge dx \\ dx \wedge dy \end{bmatrix} \\ &\iff \begin{bmatrix} (W_2 \times A^3 - W_3 \times A^2)^\top \\ (W_3 \times A^1 - W_1 \times A^3)^\top \\ (W_1 \times A^2 - W_2 \times A^1)^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} dy \wedge dz \\ dz \wedge dx \\ dx \wedge dy \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (\nabla \times A^1)^\top \\ (\nabla \times A^2)^\top \\ (\nabla \times A^3)^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} dy \wedge dz \\ dz \wedge dx \\ dx \wedge dy \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Take the curl to the other side and switch order on the left-hand side to cancel the -1 . As we are only interested in the 9 components of W , we omit the two-form basis and transform into a 9x9 linear system for W . We define A_\times and $\text{vec}(\cdot)$ as

$$A_\times = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -A_\times^3 & A_\times^2 \\ A_\times^3 & 0 & -A_\times^1 \\ -A_\times^2 & A_\times^1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \text{vec}(W) = \begin{bmatrix} W_1 \\ W_2 \\ W_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

with A_\times^i defined as

$$A_\times^i = [A_1^i \quad A_2^i \quad A_3^i]_\times = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -A_3^i & A_2^i \\ A_3^i & 0 & -A_1^i \\ -A_2^i & A_1^i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\text{vec}(\cdot)$ turns a 3x3-matrix into a 9x1-vector by stacking the columns. With these two definitions, we can transform the above equality into a linear system

$$A_\times \text{vec}(W) = \text{vec}(\nabla \times A)$$

where $\nabla \times A$ is just the curl applied to each column. This transformation can be checked by laboriously plugging in the definitions and comparing the coefficients. With tedious calculations, one can show that $\det(A_\times) = -2 \det(A)^3 = -2 \det(g)^{3/2} < 0$, which means this is a linear system that can be used to solve for W at a point.

Chapter 4

Discretized connection evaluation

- Calculation of R
- Piecewise linear discretization

Chapter 5

Algorithm for R between two arbitrary points in a mesh

[1] Here is an example for how to specify an algorithm in pseudo-code.

Algorithm 1 Byzantine Leader-Based Epoch-Change (process p_i).

```
1: State
2:    $lastts \leftarrow 0$ : most recently started epoch
3:    $nextts \leftarrow 0$ : timestamp of the next epoch
4:    $newepoch \leftarrow [\perp]^n$ : list of NEWEPOCH messages

5: upon event  $complain(p_\ell)$  such that  $p_\ell = leader(lastts)$  do
6:   if  $nextts = lastts$  then
7:      $nextts \leftarrow lastts + 1$ 
8:     send message  $[NEWPOCH, nextts]$  to all  $p_j \in \mathcal{P}$ 

9: upon receiving a message  $[NEWPOCH, ts]$  from  $p_j$  such that  $ts = lastts + 1$  do
10:    $newepoch[j] \leftarrow NEWPOCH$ 

11: upon exists  $ts$  such that  $\{p_j \in \mathcal{P} \mid newepoch[j] = ts\} \in \mathcal{K}_i$  and  $nextts = lastts$  do
12:    $nextts \leftarrow lastts + 1$ 
13:   send message  $[NEWPOCH, nextts]$  to all  $p_j \in \mathcal{P}$ 

14: upon exists  $ts$  such that  $\{p_j \in \mathcal{P} \mid newepoch[j] = ts\} \in \mathcal{Q}_i$  and  $nextts > lastts$  do
15:    $lastts \leftarrow nextts$ 
16:    $newepoch \leftarrow [\perp]^n$ 
17:   output  $startepoch(lastts, leader(lastts))$ 
```

Chapter 6

Conclusion

The conclusion looks back at the entire work, gives a critical look, summarizes, and discusses extensions and future work.

Appendix A

Extra material

Extra material may be placed in an appendix that appears after the conclusion.

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Erklärung

Erklärung gemäss Art. 30 RSL Phil.-nat. 18

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