

Indoor Localisation

Project Thesis

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Chapter 1

Assignment

1.1 Initial assignment

The overall goal of this thesis is to show what the possibilities of the Long Term Evolution (LTE) for Internet of Things (IoT) applications are. The application for this technology is going to be a trackable key chain for the ICOM-car key.

First an evaluation of the current state of the narrowband Internet of Things (nb-IoT) net in Switzerland needs to be done. The development kit SODAQ SARA AFF, which contains the SARA-R410M module from u-blox, is going to be the base for this thesis. Following points shall be answered:

- The current network coverage
- Implementation of a localisation working with base stations
- Feasibility of a nb-IoT based localisation within buildings
- Access of the user data
- Estimation of the power consumption

After the evaluation the goal is to develop a demonstrator key chain for the ICOM-car key. A localisation on the HSR campus should be possible. Inside the buildings the precision ought to be high enough to determine the right room. A visualisation of the current location shall be implemented.

1.2 Updated assignment

Due to unforeseen circumstances regarding the nb-IoT infrastructure the strategy needed to be updated. The corresponding explanation is described in chapter 4: Development.

The new approach for an indoor localisation is the use of Wi-Fi access points.

1. ASSIGNMENT

The used technique is called fingerprinting, which will be illustrated in the chapter: XXX. The location will still be transmitted over the nb-IoT net.

Abstract

This thesis includes different attempts for an indoor localisation. Outdoor localisation systems are widely known and used, for example Global Positioning System (GPS). Due to their wavelength those systems are not suitable for an indoor use, because they can't penetrate buildings.

At first it was the goal to develop an indoor localisation using the narrowband Internet of Things (nb-IoT) net. This method proved to be impossible for now, because the current nb-IoT infrastructure wasn't capable of doing so. The next approach included the help of Wireless Fidelity (Wi-Fi) access points to determine the location. Following, these different approaches are described and evaluated.

Chapter 2

Introduction

Localisation techniques play a big part in our everyday lives, such as driving in an unknown place or just sharing your location. These systems are quite accurate with sometimes up to 2-3 meters deviation or even less. But there is one big problem with these Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS). Their signal wavelength isn't short enough to penetrate buildings.

Fortunately there are other options, but they all come with other disadvantages, for example the need of base stations. This makes those systems immobile. Nb-IoT on the other hand uses the cellular network which makes it perfectly mobile and is also receivable inside buildings. This thesis attempts to implement an indoor localisation using the previously mentioned advantages with the help of the nb-IoT net from Swisscom.

Chapter 3

Theory

This chapter gives some short information about the environment and background of this thesis. Furthermore there are some used techniques described.

3.1 IoT

The Internet of Things (IoT) is more of a technology than an actual internet. The Internet of Things is a term for the summary of independent systems which communicate with few data and an emerged out of sensor networks and embedded systems. As an example a humidity sensor inside an office which sends the humidity in intervals to a server is called an IoT device. It's functions are limited and the amount of data is very little. On the other hand a mobile would not be called an IoT device because it does not always operate independently. [5]

3.2 LTE & nb-IoT

Our cellular standards constantly improve. After GSM, also commonly referenced to as 2G for second generation, came the third generation (3G,H,H+) and today there is the fourth generation Long Term Evolution (LTE) or (4G,4G+,LTE-A,LTE+). [3] narrowband Internet of Things (nb-IoT) is an extension of the LTE for IoT applications. It is optimized to handle a huge count and density of devices which require a better signal saturation in buildings. narrowband Internet of Things (nb-IoT) penetrates buildings far better than regular LTE. Typical applications are smart utilities such as gas, water and electricity meters.[2]

3.2.1 3GPP

3rd Generation Partnership Project (3GPP) unites seven different telecommunications standard development organizations, together they provide the Reports and Specifications that define 3GPP technologies. They cover cellular telecommunications technologies, including radio access, core network and service capabilities, which provide a complete system description for mobile telecommunication. Mobile carriers and telecommunication manufacturers lay out their product after these standards.[1]

The 3GPP Release 14 improves the ability to track the position using LTE-M and nb-IoT. This feature needs to be implemented by the mobile network. This improvement includes Enhanced Cell-ID (E-CID) and Observed Time Difference of Arrival (OTDOA).[4]

3.3 GNSS

Wird eventuell aus theory teil gestrichen

3.4 AT-Commands

AT-Commands are a standard for communication with a modem. There are four main types of AT-Commands. As an example the table 3.1 represents the mentioned types with their syntax and also a sample code with a short description.

Command Type	Sample Command	Description
Action	AT+CPWROFF	Executes command
Read	AT+UCIND?	Reads values from modem
Set	AT+UCIND=1234	Sets values in modem
Test	AT+UCIND=?	Test configure parameter

Table 3.1: AT-Command overview table with SARA R410 sample code [6]

3.4.1 Fingerprinting

hihi finger

3.5 Wi-Fi

wofür?

3.6 Triangulation

transgulation

3.6.1 RSSI

Received Signal Strength Indication (RSSI) is used, as the name implies, as an indicator for the received signal strength. The received signal power is logarithmically compared to the power of 1 mW and displayed in decibel-milliwatts (dBm). The RSSI includes next to the data signal also noise (white & thermic) and power shares of other signals such as control signals and other terminals. Even though it includes all these additives it is still quite a good indicator for the received signal strength of a modem. There are several scales to interpret these values as the following graph shows.

RSSI Value Range	Definition
>-70 dBm to -79 dBm	Excellent
-80 dBm to -89 dBm	Good
-90 dBm to -100 dBm	Mediocre
-101 dBm to -110 dBm	Poor
<-110 dBm	No Signal

Table 3.2: Classification of the RSSI values TODO:CITE
<https://www.fts-hennig.ch/antennen/blog/lte-leistung/>

3.6.2 OTDOA

dota

3.7 Hardware

hard hehe

3.7.1 Sadaq SARA AFF

selber aff

u-blox SARA-R410M

u-blockiert

3.7.2 ESP8266

ESP8266

Application layer
Transport layer
Network layer
Data link layer

Table 3.3: TCP/IP

3.8 TCP/IP

The Internet consists of millions of connected computer networks around the globe. Inside of the Internet one can exchange and access information with other users. The Internet is now used as a term referring to the global network of computers. The connections is based on the Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol (TCP/IP). TCP/IP consists of four different layers, as seen in table 3.3

- The *application layer* offers a wide variety of applications, i.e. Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP), Domain Name System and Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP).
- The *transport layer* transports the data for the application layer. Mostly it uses the connection oriented and more reliable TCP/IP or the connectionless and less reliable User Datagram Protocol (UDP).
- The *network layer* routes packages across the networks. Internet Protocol (IP) provides an connectionless service in this layer.
- The *data link layer* is responsible for the hardware details regarding the data transmission. Different Link layer technologies like Ethernet ,Wi-Fi and nb-IoT can support various network layer protocols.

3.8.1 IP and Port

Every host inside the internet receives a unique IP address which can be given every time it connects to the internet or it can be a static which can be reserved. In order for the package to arrive at the right position or process the IP address is given additional information, called port. The port numbers from 1 to 255 are used for internet-wide services like SSH and HTTP, while those from 256 to 1023 are reserved for Unix specific services. For different use cases the port number higher than 1023 are to be preferred. In a server client based communication the server uses a given port i.e. HTTP port 80 and the client one over 1023, in order to have multiple HTTP connections with a number of servers.

Chapter 4

Writing scientific texts in English

This chapter was originally a separate document written by Reto Spöhel. It is reprinted here so that the template can serve as a quick guide to thesis writing, and to provide some more example material to give you a feeling for good typesetting.

4.1 Basic writing rules

The following rules need little further explanation; they are best understood by looking at the example in the booklet by Knuth et al., §2–§3.

Rule 4.1 Write texts, not chains of formulas.

More specifically, write full sentences that are logically interconnected by phrases like ‘Therefore’, ‘However’, ‘On the other hand’, etc. where appropriate.

Rule 4.2 Displayed formulas should be embedded in your text and punctuated with it.

In other words, your writing should not be divided into ‘text parts’ and ‘formula parts’; instead the formulas should be tied together by your prose such that there is a natural flow to your writing.

4.2 Being nice to the reader

Try to write your text in such a way that a reader enjoys reading it. That’s of course a lofty goal, but nevertheless one you should aspire to!

Rule 4.3 Be nice to the reader.

Give some intuition or easy example for definitions and theorems which might be hard to digest. Remind the reader of notations you introduced

many pages ago – chances are he has forgotten them. Illustrate your writing with diagrams and pictures where this helps the reader. Etc.

Rule 4.4 Organize your writing.

Think carefully about how you subdivide your thesis into chapters, sections, and possibly subsections. Give overviews at the beginning of your thesis and of each chapter, so the reader knows what to expect. In proofs, outline the main ideas before going into technical details. Give the reader the opportunity to ‘catch up with you’ by summing up your findings periodically.

Useful phrases: ‘So far we have shown that ...’, ‘It remains to show that ...’, ‘Recall that we want to prove inequality (7), as this will allow us to deduce that ...’, ‘Thus we can conclude that Next, we would like to find out whether ...’, etc.

Rule 4.5 Don’t say the same thing twice without telling the reader that you are saying it twice.

Repetition of key ideas is important and helpful. However, if you present the same idea, definition or observation twice (in the same or different words) without telling the reader, he will be looking for something new where there is nothing new.

Useful phrases: ‘Recall that [we have seen in Chapter 5 that] ...’, ‘As argued before / in the proof of Lemma 3, ...’, ‘As mentioned in the introduction, ...’, ‘In other words, ...’, etc.

Rule 4.6 Don’t make statements that you will justify later without telling the reader that you will justify them later.

This rule also applies when the justification is coming right in the next sentence! The reasoning should be clear: if you violate it, the reader will lose valuable time trying to figure out on his own what you were going to explain to him anyway.

Useful phrases: ‘Next we argue that ...’, ‘As we shall see, ...’, ‘We will see in the next section that ...’, etc.

4.3 A few important grammar rules

Rule 4.7 There is (almost) *never* a comma before ‘that’.

It’s really that simple. Examples:

We assume that ...
Wir nehmen an, dass ...

It follows that ...

Daraus folgt, dass ...

‘thrice’ is a word that is seldom used.

‘thrice’ ist ein Wort, das selten verwendet wird.

Exceptions to this rule are rare and usually pretty obvious. For example, you may end up with a comma before ‘that’ because ‘i.e.’ is spelled out as ‘that is’:

For $p(n) = \log n/n$ we have ... However, if we choose p a little bit higher, that is $p(n) = (1 + \varepsilon) \log n/n$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$, we obtain that...

Or you may get a comma before ‘that’ because there is some additional information inserted in the middle of your sentence:

Thus we found a number, namely n_0 , that satisfies equation (13).

If the additional information is left out, the sentence has no comma:

Thus we found a number that satisfies equation (13).

(For ‘that’ as a relative pronoun, see also Rules 4.9 and 4.10 below.)

Rule 4.8 There is usually no comma before ‘if’.

Example:

A graph is not 3-colorable if it contains a 4-clique.

Ein Graph ist nicht 3-färbbar, wenn er eine 4-Clique enthält.

However, if the ‘if’ clause comes first, it is usually separated from the main clause by a comma:

If a graph contains a 4-clique, it is not 3-colorable .

Wenn ein Graph eine 4-Clique enthält, ist er nicht 3-färbbar.

There are more exceptions to these rules than to Rule 4.7, which is why we are not discussing them here. Just keep in mind: don’t put a comma before ‘if’ without good reason.

Rule 4.9 Non-defining relative clauses have commas.

Rule 4.10 Defining relative clauses have no commas.

In English, it is very important to distinguish between two types of relative clauses: defining and non-defining ones. This is a distinction you absolutely need to understand to write scientific texts, because mistakes in this area actually distort the meaning of your text!

It’s probably easier to explain first what a *non-defining* relative clause is. A non-defining relative clauses simply gives additional information *that could also be left out* (or given in a separate sentence). For example, the sentence

The WEIRDSORT algorithm, which was found by the famous mathematician John Doe, is theoretically best possible but difficult to implement in practice.

would be fully understandable if the relative clause were left out completely. It could also be rephrased as two separate sentences:

The WEIRDSORT algorithm is theoretically best possible but difficult to implement in practice. [By the way,] WEIRDSORT was found by the famous mathematician John Doe.

This is what a non-defining relative clause is. *Non-defining relative clauses are always written with commas.* As a corollary we obtain that you cannot use ‘that’ in non-defining relative clauses (see Rule 4.7!). It would be wrong to write

~~The WEIRDSORT algorithm, that was found by the famous mathematician John Doe, is theoretically best possible but difficult to implement in practice.~~

A special case that warrants its own example is when ‘which’ is referring to the entire preceding sentence:

Thus inequality (7) is true, which implies that the Riemann hypothesis holds.

As before, this is a non-defining relative sentence (it could be left out) and therefore needs a comma.

So let’s discuss *defining* relative clauses next. A defining relative clause tells the reader *which specific item the main clause is talking about*. Leaving it out either changes the meaning of the sentence or renders it incomprehensible altogether. Consider the following example:

The WEIRDSORT algorithm is difficult to implement in practice.
In contrast, the algorithm that we suggest is very simple.

Here the relative clause ‘that we suggest’ cannot be left out – the remaining sentence would make no sense since the reader would not know which algorithm it is talking about. This is what a defining relative clause is. *Defining relative clauses are never written with commas.* Usually, you can use both ‘that’ and ‘which’ in defining relative clauses, although in many cases ‘that’ sounds better.

As a final example, consider the following sentence:

For the elements in \mathcal{B} which satisfy property (A), we know that equation (37) holds.

4.4. Things you (usually) don't say in English

Table 4.1: Things you (usually) don't say

It holds (that) ... (‘Equation (5) holds.’ is fine, though.)	We have ...	<i>Es gilt ...</i>
x fulfills property \mathcal{P}.	x satisfies property \mathcal{P} .	<i>x erfüllt Eigenschaft \mathcal{P}.</i>
in average	on average	<i>im Durchschnitt</i>
estimation	estimate	<i>Abschätzung</i>
composed number	composite number	<i>zusammengesetzte Zahl</i>
with the help of	using	<i>mit Hilfe von</i>
surely	clearly	<i>sicher, bestimmt</i>
monotonously increasing	monotonically incr.	<i>monoton steigend</i>
(Actually, in most cases ‘increasing’ is just fine.)		

This sentence does not make a statement about all elements in \mathcal{B} , only about those satisfying property (A). The relative clause is *defining*. (Thus we could also use ‘that’ in place of ‘which’.)

In contrast, if we add a comma the sentence reads

For the elements in \mathcal{B} , which satisfy property (A), we know that equation (37) holds.

Now the relative clause is *non-defining* – it just mentions in passing that all elements in \mathcal{B} satisfy property (A). The main clause states that equation (37) holds for *all* elements in \mathcal{B} . See the difference?

4.4 Things you (usually) don't say in English – and what to say instead

Table 4.1 lists some common mistakes and alternatives. The entries should not be taken as gospel – they don't necessarily mean that a given word or formulation is wrong under all circumstances (obviously, this depends a lot on the context). However, in nine out of ten instances the suggested alternative is the better word to use.

Chapter 5

Typography

5.1 Punctuation

Rule 5.1 Use opening (‘) and closing (’) quotation marks correctly.

In \LaTeX , the closing quotation mark is typed like a normal apostrophe, while the opening quotation mark is typed using the French *accent grave* on your keyboard (the *accent grave* is the one going down, as in *frère*).

Note that any punctuation that *semantically* follows quoted speech goes inside the quotes in American English, but outside in Britain. Also, Americans use double quotes first. Oppose

“Using ‘lasers,’ we punch a hole in . . . the Ozone Layer,” Dr. Evil said.

to

‘Using “lasers”, we punch a hole in . . . the Ozone Layer’, Dr. Evil said.

Rule 5.2 Use hyphens (-), en-dashes (–) and em-dashes (—) correctly.

A hyphen is only used in words like ‘well-known’, ‘3-colorable’ etc., or to separate words that continue in the next line (which is known as hyphenation). It is entered as a single ASCII hyphen character (-).

To denote ranges of numbers, chapters, etc., use an en-dash (entered as two ASCII hyphens --) with no spaces on either side. For example, using Equations (1)–(3), we see. . .

As the equivalent of the German *Gedankenstrich*, use an en-dash with spaces on both sides – in the title of Section 4.4, it would be wrong to use a hyphen instead of the dash. (Some English authors use the even longer emdash (—))

instead, which is typed as three subsequent hyphens in \LaTeX . This emdash is used without spaces around it—like so.)

5.2 Spacing

Rule 5.3 Do not add spacing manually.

You should never use the commands `\` (except within tabulars and arrays), `_` (except to prevent a sentence-ending space after *Dr.* and *such*), `\vspace`, `\hspace`, etc. The choices programmed into \LaTeX and this style should cover almost all cases. Doing it manually quickly leads to inconsistent spacing, which looks terrible. Note that this list of commands is by no means conclusive.

Rule 5.4 Judiciously insert spacing in maths where it helps.

This directly contradicts Rule 5.3, but in some cases \TeX fails to correctly decide how much spacing is required. For example, consider

$$f(a,b) = f(a + b, a - b).$$

In such cases, inserting a thin math space `\,` greatly increases readability:

$$f(a,b) = f(a + b, a - b).$$

Along similar lines, there are variations of some symbols with different spacing. For example, Lagrange's Theorem states that $|G| = [G : H]|H|$, but the proof uses a bijection $f: aH \rightarrow bH$. (Note how the first colon is symmetrically spaced, but the second is not.)

Rule 5.5 Learn when to use `_` and `\@`.

Unless you use 'french spacing', the space at the end of a sentence is slightly larger than the normal interword space.

The rule used by \TeX is that any space following a period, exclamation mark or question mark is sentence-ending, except for periods preceded by an upper-case letter. Inserting `\` before a space turns it into an interword space, and inserting `\@` before a period makes it sentence-ending. This means you should write

Prof.\ Dr.\ A. Steger is a member of CADMO\@.
If you want to write a thesis with her, you
should use this template.

which turns into

Prof. Dr. A. Steger is a member of CADMO. If you want to write a thesis with her, you should use this template.

The effect becomes more dramatic in lines that are stretched slightly during justification:

Prof. Dr. A. Steger is a member of CADMO. If you

Rule 5.6 Place a non-breaking space (~) right before references.

This is actually a slight simplification of the real rule, which should invoke common sense. Place non-breaking spaces where a line break would look ‘funny’ because it occurs right in the middle of a construction, especially between a reference type (Chapter) and its number.

5.3 Choice of ‘fonts’

Professional typography distinguishes many font attributes, such as family, size, shape, and weight. The choice for sectional divisions and layout elements has been made, but you will still occasionally want to switch to something else to get the reader’s attention. The most important rule is very simple.

Rule 5.7 When emphasising a short bit of text, use `\emph`.

In particular, *never* use bold text (`\textbf`). Italics (or Roman type if used within italics) avoids distracting the eye with the huge blobs of ink in the middle of the text that bold text so quickly introduces.

Occasionally you will need more notation, for example, a consistent typeface used to identify algorithms.

Rule 5.8 Vary one attribute at a time.

For example, for WEIRDSORT we only changed the shape to small caps. Changing two attributes, say, to bold small caps would be excessive (\LaTeX does not even have this particular variation). The same holds for mathematical notation: the reader can easily distinguish g_n , $G(x)$, \mathcal{G} and G .

Rule 5.9 Never underline or uppercase.

No exceptions to this one, unless you are writing your thesis on a typewriter. Manually. Uphill both ways. In a blizzard.

5.4 Displayed equations

Rule 5.10 Insert paragraph breaks *after* displays only where they belong. Never insert paragraph breaks *before* displays.

L^AT_EX translates sequences of more than one linebreak (i.e., what looks like an empty line in the source code) into a paragraph break in almost all contexts. This also happens before and after displays, where extra spacing is inserted to give a visual indication of the structure. Adding a blank line in these places may look nice in the sources, but compare the resulting display

$$a = b$$

to the following:

$$a = b$$

The first display is surrounded by blank lines, but the second is not. It is bad style to start a paragraph with a display (you should always tell the reader what the display means first), so the rule follows.

Rule 5.11 Never use `eqnarray`.

It is at the root of most ill-spaced multiline displays. The *amsmath* package provides better alternatives, such as the `align` family

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sin x, \\ g(x) &= \cos x, \end{aligned}$$

and `multline` which copes with excessively long equations:

$$\begin{aligned} &P[X_{t_0} \in (z_0, z_0 + dz_0], \dots, X_{t_n} \in (z_n, z_n + dz_n)] \\ &= \nu(dz_0) K_{t_1}(z_0, dz_1) K_{t_2-t_1}(z_1, dz_2) \cdots K_{t_n-t_{n-1}}(z_{n-1}, dz_n). \end{aligned}$$

5.5 Floats

By default this style provides floating environments for tables and figures. The general structure should be as follows:

```
\begin{figure}
  \centering
  % content goes here
  \caption{A short caption}
  \label{some-short-label}
\end{figure}
```

Note that the label must follow the caption, otherwise the label will refer to the surrounding section instead. Also note that figures should be captioned at the bottom, and tables at the top.

The whole point of floats is that they, well, *float* to a place where they fit without interrupting the text body. This is a frequent source of confusion and changes; please leave it as is.

Rule 5.12 Do not restrict float movement to only ‘here’ (h).

If you are still tempted, you should avoid the float altogether and just show the figure or table inline, similar to a displayed equation.

Chapter 6

Example Chapter

Dummy text.

6.1 Example Section

Dummy text.

6.1.1 Example Subsection

Dummy text.

Example Subsubsection

Dummy text.

Example Paragraph Dummy text.

Example Subparagraph Dummy text.

Appendix A

Dummy Appendix

You can defer lengthy calculations that would otherwise only interrupt the flow of your thesis to an appendix.

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