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Measurement of energy correlators inside jets and determination of the strong coupling $\alpha_S(m_Z)$

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Abstract

Energy correlators that describe energy-weighted distances between two or three particles in a hadronic jet are measured using an event sample of $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV proton-proton collisions collected by the CMS experiment and corresponding to an integrated luminosity of 36.3 fb^{-1} . The measured distributions are consistent with the trends in the simulation that reveal two key features of the strong interaction: confinement and asymptotic freedom. By comparing the ratio of the measured three- and two-particle energy correlator distributions with theoretical calculations that resum collinear emissions at approximate next-to-next-to-leading logarithmic accuracy matched to a next-to-leading order calculation, the strong coupling is determined at the Z boson mass: $\alpha_S(m_Z) = 0.1229^{+0.0040}_{-0.0050}$, the most precise $\alpha_S(m_Z)$ value obtained using jet substructure observables.

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In high energy proton-proton (pp) collisions, quarks and gluons undergo cascades of radiation and hadronization processes, resulting in the production of hadrons that can cluster in jets. Collisions at the LHC have produced an unprecedented number of events containing jets, spanning a broad range of energies. Studies of jets provide information on the strong interaction, described by quantum chromodynamics (QCD) [1]. Jet substructure has been widely studied at the LHC [2–11]. Comparing high precision measurements of jet substructure observables with Monte Carlo (MC) simulations and perturbative QCD (pQCD) calculations improves our understanding of QCD.

New observables have been recently proposed to describe multiparticle energy correlations within jets [12]. They evolved from the event shape observable energy-energy correlator (EEC) [13], which was extensively studied in e^+e^- experiments [14–17]. The new observables study correlations inside jets, therefore being more sensitive than EEC in the small angle limit [18]. They are derived from energy-flow operators, are collinear- and infrared-safe [19], and can be formulated with correlation functions of light-ray operators [20–23] widely used in conformal field theory. Analytical calculations with all-orders resummation at next-to-leading logarithmic (NLL) [24, 25] and approximate next-to-NLL (NNLL_{approx}) [26] accuracy in pQCD, matched to next-to-leading order (NLO) pQCD calculations, denoted as NLO + NNLL_{approx}, can be achieved for these observables. This allows comparisons between theory and data with 5% accuracy [26]. We focus on the two- and three-particle energy correlators (E2C and E3C, respectively), for which there are predictions with NLO + NNLL_{approx} precision [26].

Studies of jet substructure can be used to determine the strong coupling α_s [27–30]. Among the interaction couplings of the standard model, α_s is the least precisely known [31]. The world average α_s at the Z boson mass is $\alpha_s(m_Z) = 0.1180$, with a 0.8% precision [31]. Methods that mainly rely on fixed-order calculations provide α_s extractions with 1–3% precision at the LHC [32–37]; jet substructure is more sensitive to collinear physics effects, allowing for measurements in complementary phase space regions. In these regions, studies based on event shapes in e^+e^- collisions at LEP [38–40] obtained a value of α_s about 5% lower than the world average, emphasizing the importance of new studies. It has been estimated that a value of α_s with 10% precision could be achieved using the soft-drop groomed jet mass [27]. There are two major difficulties in reaching a high-precision α_s extraction with this observable: its dependence on the relative fraction of quark- and gluon-initiated jets, since a larger gluon jet fraction can be misinterpreted as a larger α_s value; and the large uncertainty in the nonperturbative corrections. A jet substructure measurement using heavy-flavor jets provided an α_s value with $\approx 10\%$ precision [41]. Other approaches have been proposed to tackle the parton-flavor dependence [30]. An approach based on the ratio of multiparticle energy correlators was proposed to solve both problems and improve the precision of jet substructure α_s determinations [12].

Unlike observables such as the jet charge, which provide a single value for each jet, E2C and E3C provide distributions because each jet has many particles and, hence, many pairs and triplets. These distributions depend on x_L , defined as the angular distance between the two particles of the E2C pair, $\sqrt{(\Delta\eta_{ij})^2 + (\Delta\phi_{ij})^2}$, where $\Delta\eta$ and $\Delta\phi$ are the distances in pseudorapidity and azimuthal angle of the particles, respectively, or as the largest angular distance among the three pair combinations of an E3C triplet. A jet with n particles contributes n^2 entries to the E2C x_L distribution, each having a weight $E_i E_j / E^2$, the product of the fractional energy of the jet carried by each of the particles. The entry with $j = i$ adds to the $x_L = 0$ bin, which contributes to the overall normalization of the distribution. Similarly, a jet contributes n^3 entries to the E3C x_L distribution, with weights $E_i E_j E_k / E^3$, where the indices represent the three particles in the triplet. The fractional energy weights ensure that E2C and E3C are insensitive to soft radiation, without the need for jet grooming techniques [12], and that their

distributions are normalized to the number of jets in the event sample. Additionally, taking the ratio of two energy correlators further suppresses nonperturbative effects.

The distinctive shape of the x_L -differential E2C and E3C correlators provides information on the time scale of hadron formation, still an open question in QCD [1]. The different x_L regions probe the dynamics of jet formation, governed by the DGLAP evolution equations [42–45]. Most jet substructure observables are dominated by terms proportional to the coupling α_S , to a large logarithm due to collinear divergences $\ln x_L$, and to a color factor C_i [27]. The quark-gluon composition, essential to extract α_S , can be calculated from parton distribution functions (PDFs), at the price of introducing large uncertainties [27]. The PDF dependence is largely suppressed in the E3C/E2C ratio, which remains sensitive to α_S because E3C and E2C have different dependences on α_S , C_i and its higher order expansion terms. The calculation at leading logarithmic accuracy implies that the ratio is approximately linear in $\alpha_S \ln x_L$ [12], so that measuring its slope with respect to $\ln x_L$, as a function of the jet momentum transverse to the pp collision axis (p_T), gives the dependence of α_S on the jet energy.

In this Letter we report the E2C and E3C distributions versus x_L and the $\alpha_S(m_Z)$ value obtained by comparing their ratio with theoretical predictions at NLO + NNLL_{approx} accuracy [26]. This is the first measurement of E2C at a hadron collider, probing a much higher energy scale than at the e^+e^- experiments, and the first ever measurement of E3C. The analysis is based on an event sample of pp collisions at $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV collected by CMS in 2016 and corresponding to an integrated luminosity of 36.3 fb^{-1} [46]. The CMS detector has been designed [47] to trigger on [48, 49] and identify electrons, muons, photons, and hadrons [50–53]. The particles are reconstructed [54–56] from information provided by a silicon tracker, an electromagnetic calorimeter, and a hadron calorimeter, placed in a 3.8 T superconducting solenoid, and by muon detectors placed outside.

The hadronic jets are clustered with the anti- k_T algorithm [57, 58] with a resolution parameter of 0.4, a value suited for parton shower (PS) studies at relatively small angles [25, 26]. The jet four-momentum is determined as the vectorial sum of all particle four-momenta in the jet. We select the dijet process to measure E2C and E3C because of its large cross section and wide energy range. Background processes beyond those produced by the strong interaction have a negligible contribution [33], allowing for a direct comparison between data and predictions. A series of eight triggers are used, each requiring a leading jet with increasing p_T thresholds, the lowest one being 60 GeV. The events must contain at least two jets, with $p_T > 97$ GeV and $|\eta| < 2.1$. The η selection ensures that the jet constituents are reconstructed with good spatial and momentum resolutions. In addition, the two leading jets are required to be back-to-back in the transverse plane, with $|\Delta\phi| > 2$. Jets with lower p_T are not considered because the corresponding pQCD calculations can only be performed in a limited x_L range, so that the different stages in jet formation cannot be reliably identified. To study the E2C and E3C energy dependence, the two leading jets in each event are binned in eight p_T bins, in the 97–1784 GeV range. The boundaries are optimized so that the corresponding trigger has an efficiency exceeding 99.5% [33]. Weights corresponding to the trigger prescales are applied [48]. All the neutral and charged particles with $p_T > 1$ GeV within the jets are used to compute the energy correlators. Each jet contributes multiple entries to the E2C and E3C distributions and each event provides two leading jets, causing statistical correlations across x_L and p_T bins, amounting to 40% on average. Covariance matrices are calculated for the two distributions. Since the analysis is not statistically limited, we measure the E2C and E3C distributions from two independent data samples, built by splitting the data in two halves, to avoid keeping track of the correlations between the two variables, which would lead to larger matrices and computational challenges.

In order to obtain the E2C and E3C distributions at particle level, we unfold the measured distributions for the detector response, using the iterative D’Agostini unfolding method [59], implemented in ROOUNFOLD [60, 61]. We stop the iterations once the p -value between consecutive unfolded distributions exceeds 0.05, meaning that the distributions become statistically consistent. The reconstructed jets and particles are considered matched to the generated ones if their relative angular distance is smaller than 0.2 and 0.05, respectively. If multiple matches are found, the one with the closest p_T is chosen. The jet matching efficiency is above 99%. The fractions of correctly matched charged particles, photons, and neutral particles are 80–84%, 54–70%, and 20–35%, respectively, corresponding to 88–95%, 80–97%, and 40–92% of the total energy of these particle types. The unmatched objects are considered to be misreconstructed and their contribution is subtracted from the data. After unfolding, bin-by-bin inefficiency corrections are applied, derived from the particle-level unmatched objects. Given the correlations between the variables, the unfolding is performed in three dimensions: x_L , p_T , and the energy weight. Simulations are used to derive the response matrices.

Four samples of simulated events are used to model hadronization effects and to evaluate the detector response. They are generated with PYTHIA8.240 [62], HERWIG7.1.4 [63, 64], and MADGRAPH5_aMC@NLO [65, 66], the latter being interfaced with PYTHIA8 or HERWIG7. Dijet events are generated at leading order (LO) in pQCD, with NNPDF3.1 PDFs [67], and interfaced with GEANT4 [68]. In the MADGRAPH5_aMC@NLO samples, final states with up to four partons are generated at tree level, and the MLM jet matching scheme is applied [66]. Simulated pileup interactions are included, normalized to a total inelastic cross section of 69.2 mb [69]. The unfolding uses the PYTHIA8 event sample, which is the largest one. Other event samples are generated at the particle level to provide predictions that can be directly compared with the (unfolded) measured distributions. They reflect several alternative PS and hadronization models. More details of the simulated samples can be found in Appendix A.

The energy scale uncertainty of the jet constituents, 3% for photons, 5% for neutral particles, and 1% for charged particles, affects the energy of these particles and, hence, the jet p_T . The track reconstruction efficiency uncertainty, 3%, reflects the mismodeling of the efficiency to reconstruct charged-particle tracks in the dense core of the jets [56]. The MC event generators differ in the PS and hadronization modeling, in the tuning of parameters, and in the fixed-order matrix calculation for the hard scattering. These differences are not covered by the renormalization scale uncertainty nor by varying the underlying event (UE) in PYTHIA8. Therefore, we use the differences between the results obtained with the baseline PYTHIA8 MC and the other samples to evaluate one-sided uncertainties in the MC modeling. The (unfolded) particle-level data distributions are recomputed with the responses corresponding to the variations mentioned above, to establish their uncertainty. The variations in MC modeling contribute the largest source of uncertainty, 2–10% depending on x_L and p_T , followed by the neutral particle energy scale, which contributes an uncertainty of 1–2%.

The measured (unfolded) E2C distributions are shown in Fig. 1, in four illustrative jet p_T ranges, together with the predictions of three models: PYTHIA8 (with the CP5 tune and p_T -ordered showers), HERWIG7 (with the CH3 tune and angular-ordered showers), and SHERPA2 (with default settings). The E2C distributions in the other four jet p_T ranges, the E3C distributions, and comparisons with all the considered MC models are collected in Appendix A, while tabulated results are provided in the HEPData record for this analysis [71]. The lower panels show the ratios between the data and the PYTHIA8 reference. The uncertainty in the PYTHIA8 MC prediction (blue band) reflects the following sources. The uncertainties from the missing higher orders in the hard scattering computation and from the PS modeling are obtained by independently varying the renormalization and factorization scales by factors of 0.5 and 2, keeping

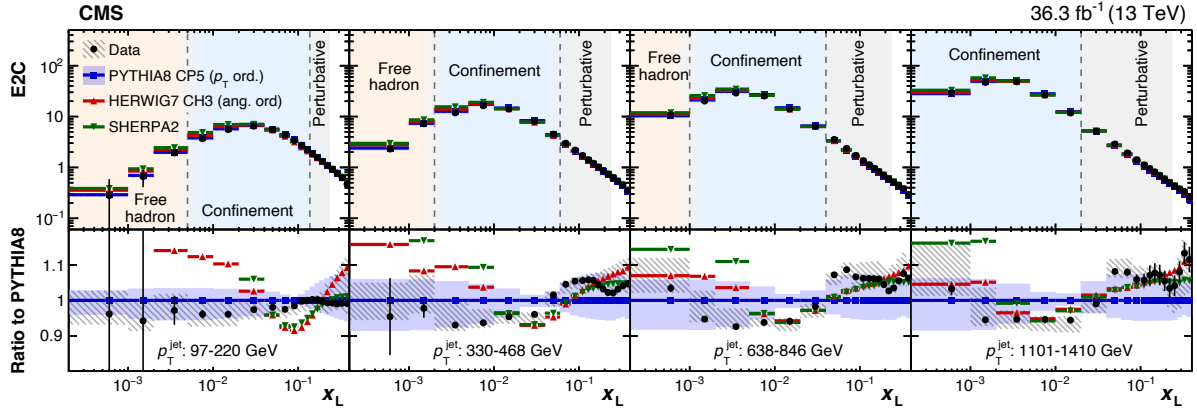


Figure 1: Measured (unfolded) and simulated E2C x_L distributions, in four p_T bins. The lower panels show the ratios to the PYTHIA8 reference. The data statistical (bars) and systematic (boxes) uncertainties are also shown, as is the PYTHIA8 uncertainty (blue band).

their ratio between 0.5 and 2. The PDF uncertainty is evaluated using an envelope of 100 PDF sets, corresponding to the variations of the uncertainty eigenvectors of the default set. The uncertainty in the infrared approximation of the PYTHIA8 PS splitting kernels is evaluated by varying the coefficient of the nonsingular term by ± 2 [72]. The uncertainty in the UE model is evaluated by using the Monash tune [73]. The measured and PYTHIA8 distributions show good agreement, given the uncertainties. The lower panels of Fig. 1 also show the ratios between the HERWIG7 and SHERPA2 MC distributions and the PYTHIA8 reference, to illustrate the level of variation that exists among models.

Since the MC models provide a reasonably good description of the measured x_L dependence of E2C, we can discuss it in terms of three phases in the evolution of the produced jets. The momentum exchange between two particles is proportional to $p_T x_L$ [12], so that x_L reflects the energy scale of the interaction. In the large x_L region, dominated by wide-angle splittings from the emission of additional partons during the PS stage, we see that E2C decreases as x_L increases, as predicted by pQCD [25]. The small x_L region, where we have the opposite trend, reflects a phase dominated by noninteracting hadrons. The intermediate x_L region corresponds to a transition phase, where the partons get confined in the final hadrons. To determine the x_L boundaries, shown as dashed vertical lines in Fig. 1, we fit the x_L distributions in each jet p_T range and identify the regions that follow the quantitative scaling predictions: in the free-hadron region, the E2C and E3C particle-level distributions are expected to increase with x_L as $\exp(2 \ln x_L)$ [74]; in the perturbative region, the E3C/E2C ratio of parton-level distributions is expected to increase with x_L as $\ln x_L$ [26], with small differences at the hadron level. The fits of the parton- and hadron-level distributions are made using the simulated trends, which describe well the shapes of the measured distributions. As the jet p_T increases, the boundaries shift towards smaller x_L , so that the energy scale at which the transition occurs, $Q = a p_T x_L$ [12], remains the same. The constant a is unknown but the boundaries derived from simulation suggest that $Q/a \approx 20$ GeV for the transition between the perturbative and confinement regions and ≈ 0.8 GeV for the transition between the confinement and free-hadron regions. The boundaries are sensitive to α_s . We only compare data and pQCD where the calculations are reliable.

Figure 2 shows the ratio between the E3C and E2C x_L distributions, both measured and predicted at NLO + NNLL_{approx} [26]. The renormalization scale is set to $p_T^{\text{jet}} R/2$ in each region, where $R = 0.4$. This choice approximates the energy scale of the parton splitting and improves the convergence of the pQCD calculation [26]. Hadronization and UE effects are corrected using PYTHIA8 and HERWIG7 simulations, accounting for the 1 GeV threshold on the hadron p_T .

The corrections are applied to the parton-level calculations and are in the 5–40% range for the E2C and E3C distributions, decreasing with increasing x_L and jet p_T ; they largely cancel in the ratio, decreasing to the 0–3% range. The difference between the PYTHIA8 and HERWIG7 correction factors is considered as the nonperturbative theoretical uncertainty [33]. Figure 3 shows the slope of the x_L dependence of the E3C over E2C ratio, defined as $\Delta(\text{E3C}/\text{E2C})/\Delta \log x_L$, accounting for the covariance matrix and systematic uncertainties. Since the slope is approximately proportional to $\alpha_S(Q)$ [12], the trend reflects the running of α_S with jet energy.

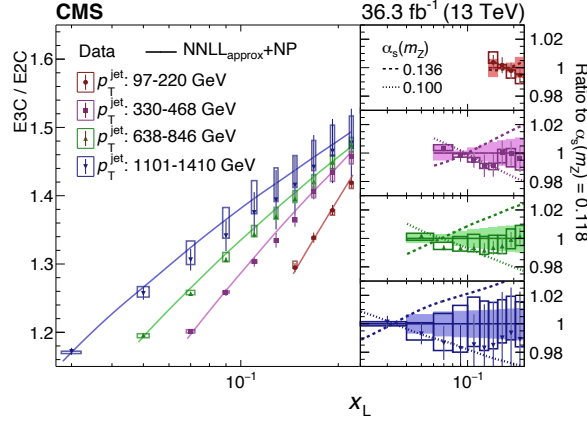


Figure 2: Measured E3C/E2C ratio (left) and their ratio to predictions (right) in the perturbative x_L region and four jet p_T bins. The NLO + NNLL_{approx} predictions [26] are corrected to hadron-level and normalized to the data. The statistical and experimental systematic uncertainties are shown with bars and boxes, respectively.

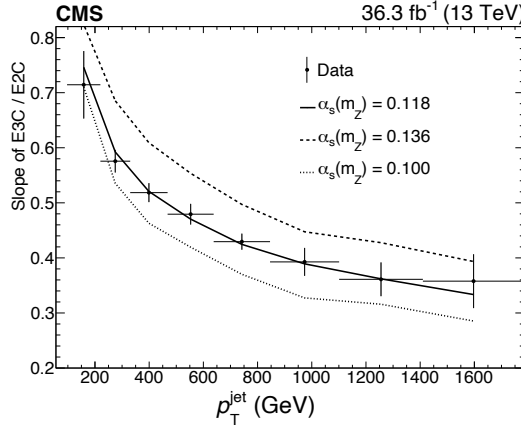


Figure 3: Fitted slopes of the measured E3C/E2C ratios, in the eight jet p_T bins, compared to theoretical predictions for three α_S values.

Comparing the measured E3C/E2C ratio, as a function of x_L , with the corresponding theoretical predictions (using the median value of the predictions in each x_L bin), we obtain χ^2 values as a function of $\alpha_S(m_Z)$. We consider the theoretical uncertainties described above, except that the PS renormalization scale uncertainty is replaced by the NLO + NNLL_{approx} uncertainty [26]. Only the perturbative region is used; the $x_L < 0.234$ selection avoids boundary effects of the jet clustering algorithm [25]. Since the theory normalization is unknown in the perturbative region, a free parameter is introduced in each p_T bin, and we only consider the shape effects of the uncertainties. For each $\alpha_S(m_Z)$ value, the χ^2 is defined as

$$\chi^2 = [\vec{v}_m(\vec{\theta}) - \vec{v}_{th}(\alpha_S, \vec{\theta})]^T V_m^{-1} [\vec{v}_m(\vec{\theta}) - \vec{v}_{th}(\alpha_S, \vec{\theta})] + \sum_j \theta_j^2,$$

where the variables v_m and v_{th} are the measured and predicted differential E3C/E2C ratios, respectively, and V_m is the covariance matrix of the unfolded data. The experimental and theoretical uncertainties are considered through n nuisance parameters, $\vec{\theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)$, where θ_j is the number of standard deviations by which the uncertainty “ j ” is varied. The θ_j variation changes the shapes of the E2C and E3C distributions simultaneously across all the bins.

The best fit value of $\alpha_s(m_Z)$ is $0.1229^{+0.0014}_{-0.0012}(\text{stat})^{+0.0030}_{-0.0033}(\text{theo})^{+0.0023}_{-0.0036}(\text{exp})$, where theo and exp stand for theoretical and experimental systematic uncertainties, respectively. The central value is determined by minimizing the χ^2 with respect to the nuisance parameters, simultaneously varied, and the uncertainties are given by the $\alpha_s(m_Z)$ values that lead to χ^2 values exceeding the minimum by 1. The high precision stems from the cancelation of most E2C and E3C systematic uncertainties in their ratio. The largest sources of uncertainty are the renormalization scale in the theoretical calculation (2.4%) and the energy scales of the jet constituents (2.3%).

In summary, the two- and three-particle jet substructure observables E2C and E3C have been measured using a sample of proton-proton collision events at $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV, collected by the CMS experiment and corresponding to an integrated luminosity of 36.3 fb^{-1} . A multidimensional unfolding has been performed, of the jet p_T , of the (largest) distance between particles in a pair or a triplet, and of the product of their energy weights, to compare the data with distributions simulated with several parton showering and hadronization models. This high-precision measurement of jet properties described by QCD can help validate future higher-order corrections in parton shower algorithms. The strong coupling at the Z boson mass is extracted by comparing the measured E3C/E2C ratio with calculations at approximate next-to-next-to-leading logarithmic accuracy matched to a next-to-leading perturbative QCD order corrected for nonperturbative effects. The result, $\alpha_s(m_Z) = 0.1229^{+0.0040}_{-0.0050}$, is consistent with the world average, 0.1180. This is the most precise determination of α_s using jet substructure techniques. The result benefits from the development of novel jet substructure observables, which reduce the sensitivity to the quark-gluon composition, and from the availability of high-precision theoretical calculations.

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A Additional analysis figures

Figures A.1 and A.2 show the measured (unfolded) E2C and E3C distributions, compared to various MC predictions in the eight p_T regions of the analysis. The MC predictions include PYTHIA8.240 using VINCIA [75] and DIRE [76] showers, with the CP5 tune; HERWIG7.1.4 using dipole showers, with the CH3 tune; and SHERPA2.2 [77], with its default tune. The value of $\alpha_S(m_Z)$ is set to 0.118, with its energy evolution computed at two-loop order. The E3C/E2C ratios are compared with MC predictions in Fig. A.3 and with theoretical predictions in Fig. A.4. The χ^2 values determined from the fit of measured data as a function of $\alpha_S(m_Z)$ are shown in Fig. A.5. The statistical correlation matrices of the unfolded E2C and E3C distributions, and of their ratio, are shown in Figs. A.6–A.8.

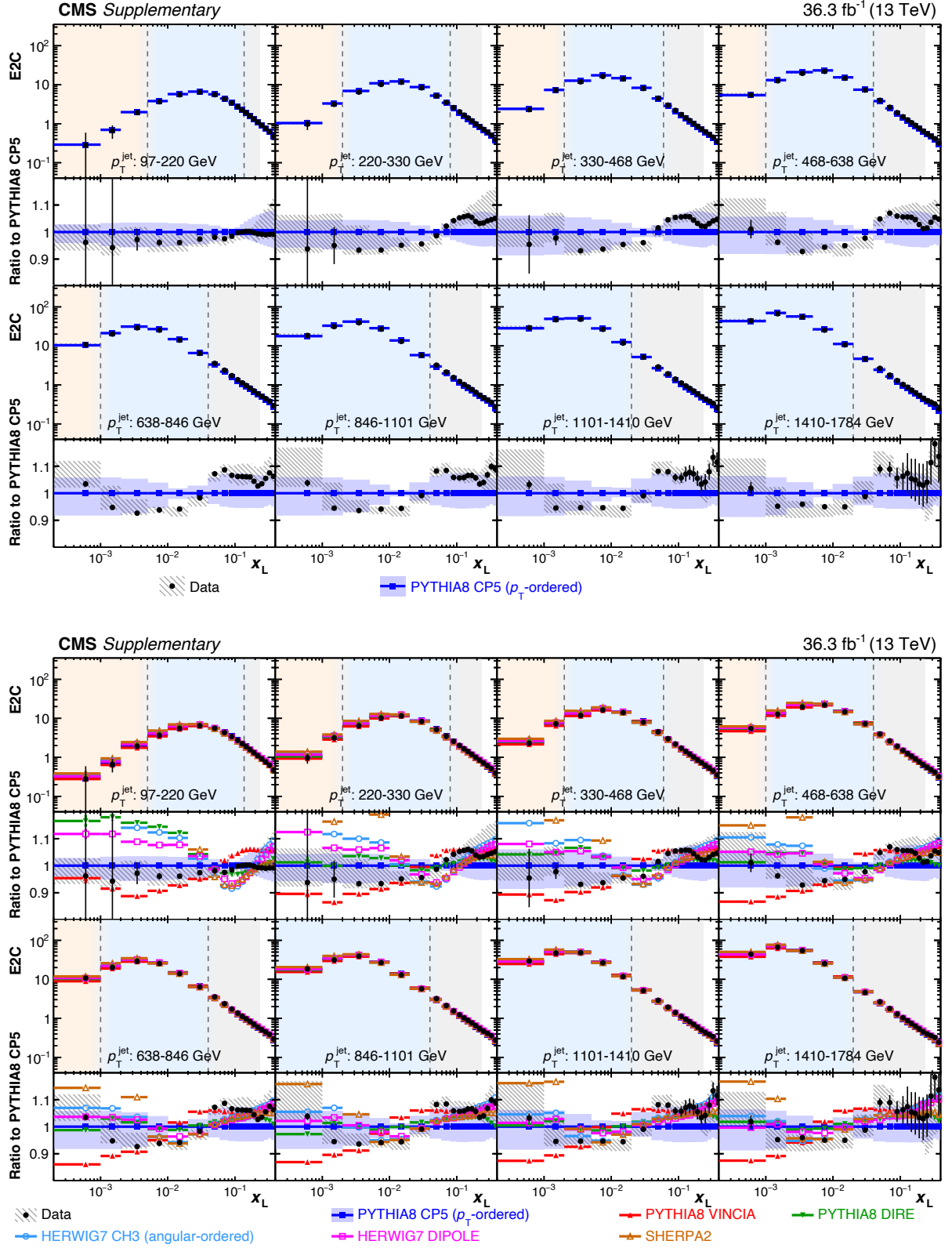


Figure A.1: Measured (unfolded) E2C distributions compared with the PYTHIA8 CP5 prediction (upper) and all the MC predictions (lower) in the eight p_T regions. Statistical and experimental systematic uncertainties are shown with error bars and hatched bands, respectively. The theory uncertainty in the PYTHIA8 CP5 prediction is shown with the blue bands.

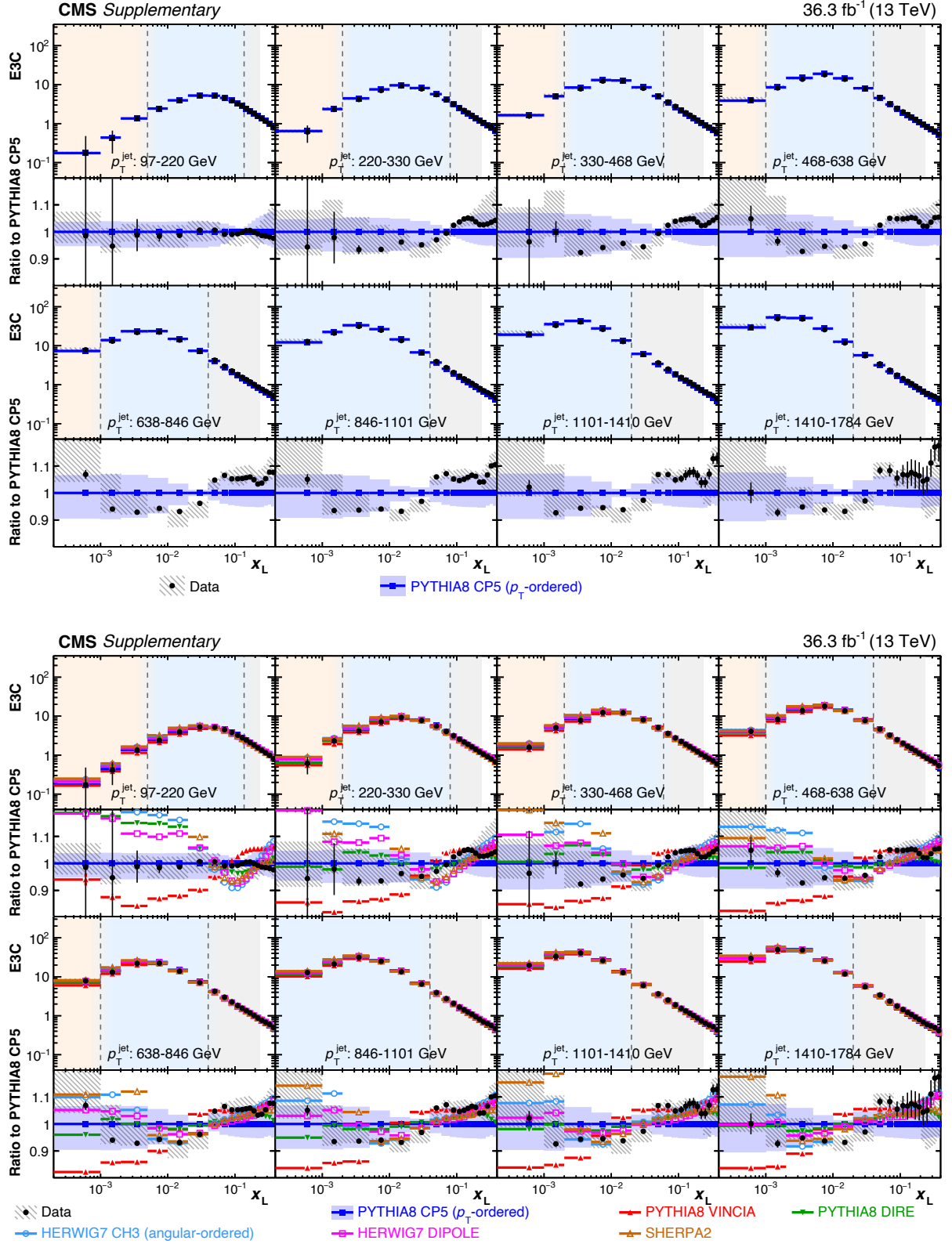


Figure A.2: Measured (unfolded) E3C distributions compared with the PYTHIA8 CP5 prediction (upper) and all the MC predictions (lower) in the eight p_T regions. Statistical and experimental systematic uncertainties are shown with error bars and hatched bands, respectively. The theory uncertainty in the PYTHIA8 CP5 prediction is shown with the blue bands.

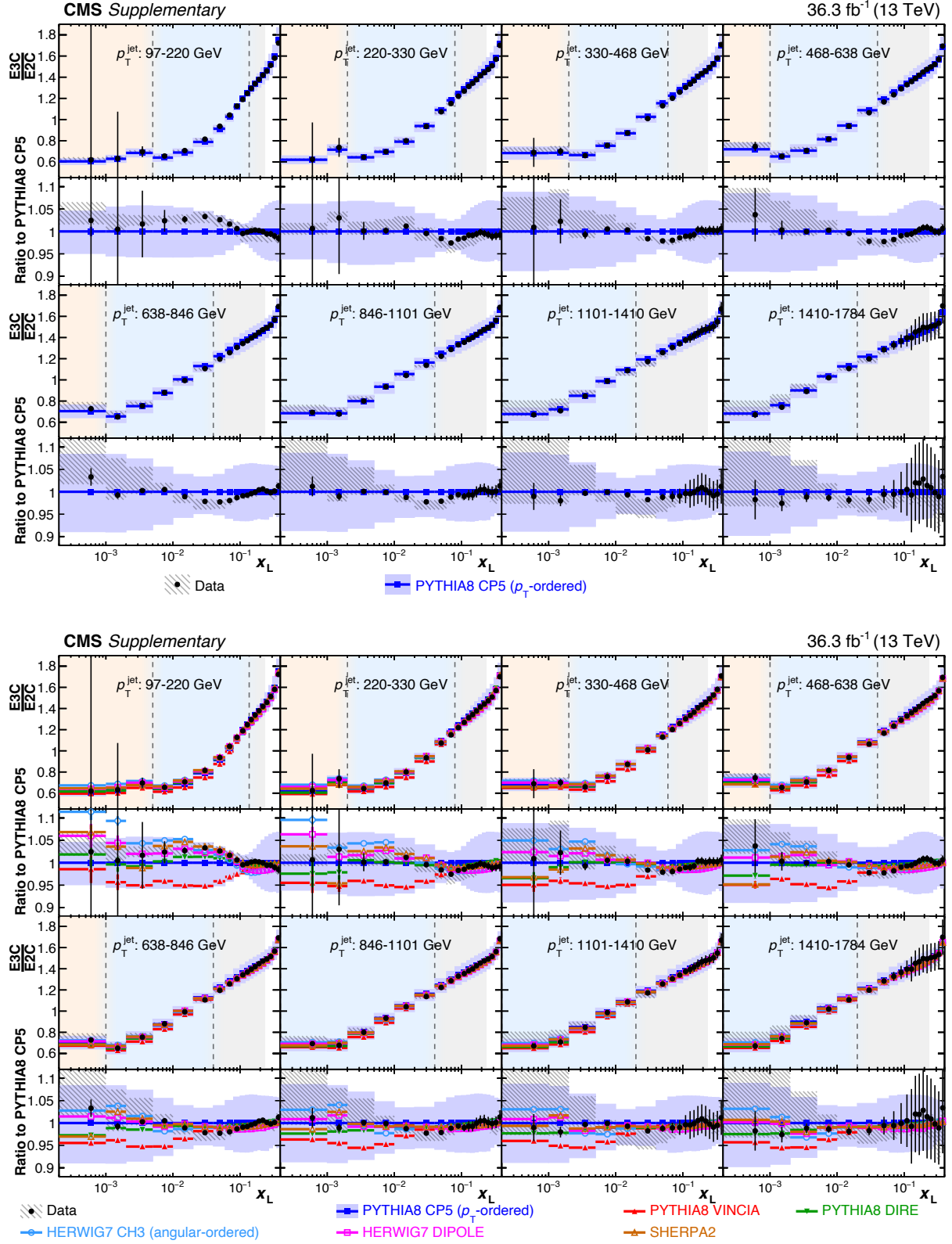


Figure A.3: Ratio of the unfolded E3C and E2C distributions compared with the PYTHIA8 CP5 prediction (upper) and all the MC predictions (lower) in the eight p_T regions. Statistical and experimental systematic uncertainties are shown with error bars and hatched bands, respectively. The theory uncertainty in the PYTHIA8 CP5 prediction is shown with the blue bands.

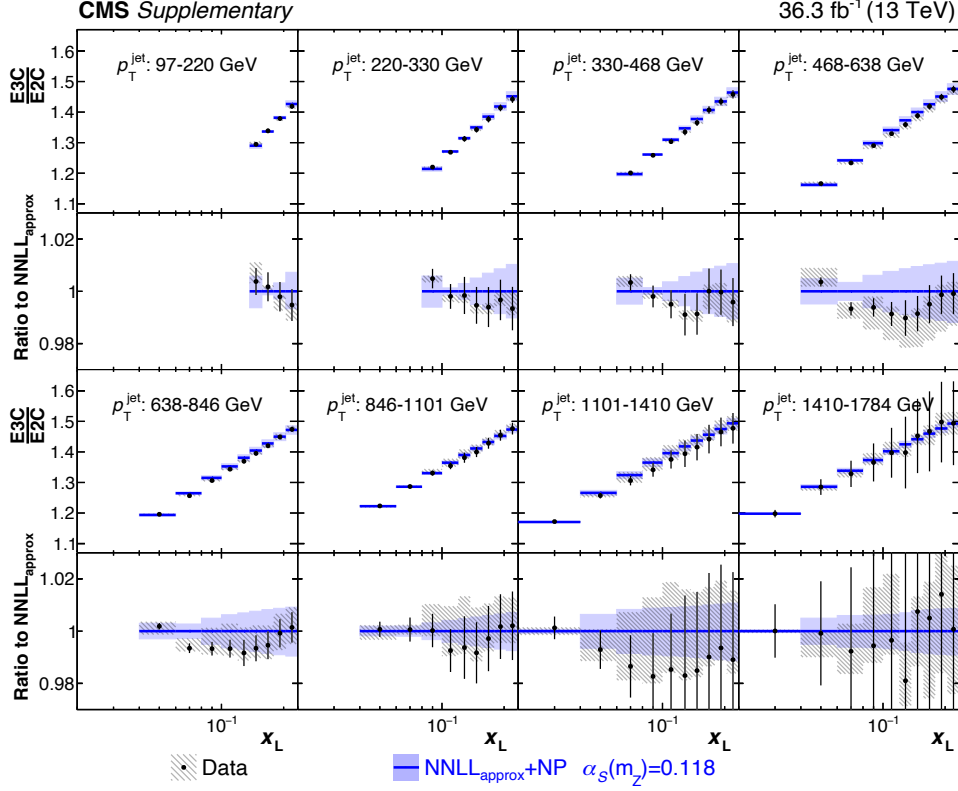


Figure A.4: Ratio of the unfolded E3C and E2C distributions in the eight p_T regions. The NLO + NNLL_{approx} theoretical predictions [26] and the corresponding uncertainties are corrected to hadron-level and normalized to the measured data. The statistical and experimental systematic uncertainties are shown with error bars and boxes, respectively.

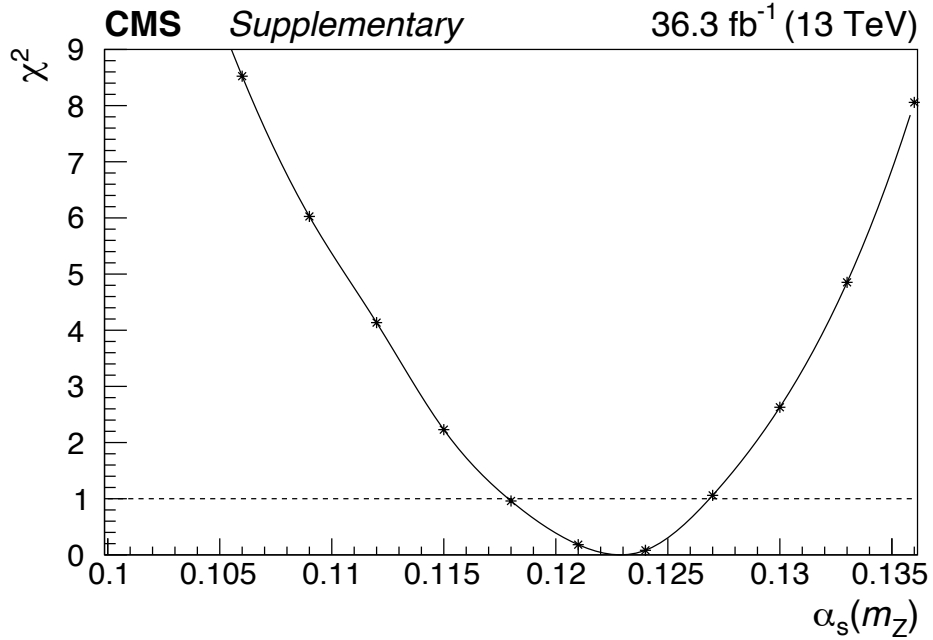


Figure A.5: The χ^2 values determined from the fit of the measured data, as a function of $\alpha_s(m_Z)$.

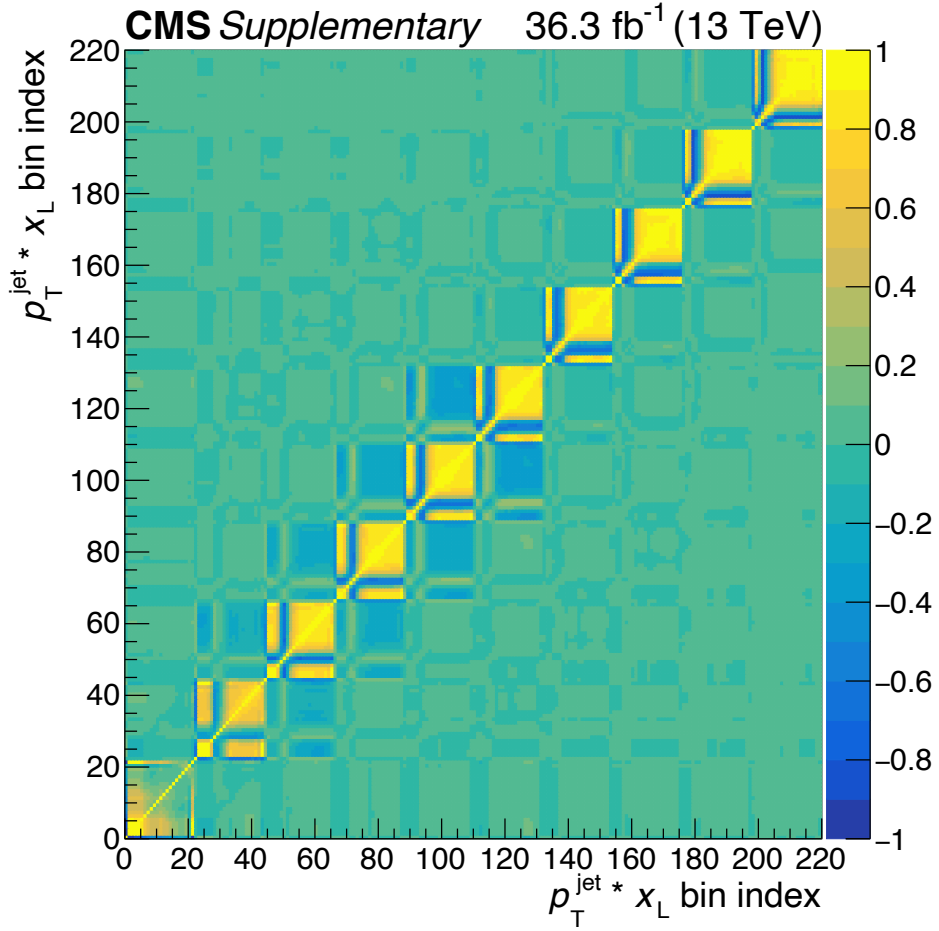


Figure A.6: The statistical correlation matrix of the bins of the unfolded E2C distribution. The bin number n in this figure is defined by $n = 22i_{p_T} + i_{x_L}$, where i_{p_T} and i_{x_L} are the indices of the p_T and x_L bins. In total there are ten p_T bins, the eight presented in the analysis plus the overflow and underflow bins. The number of x_L bins per p_T region is 22.

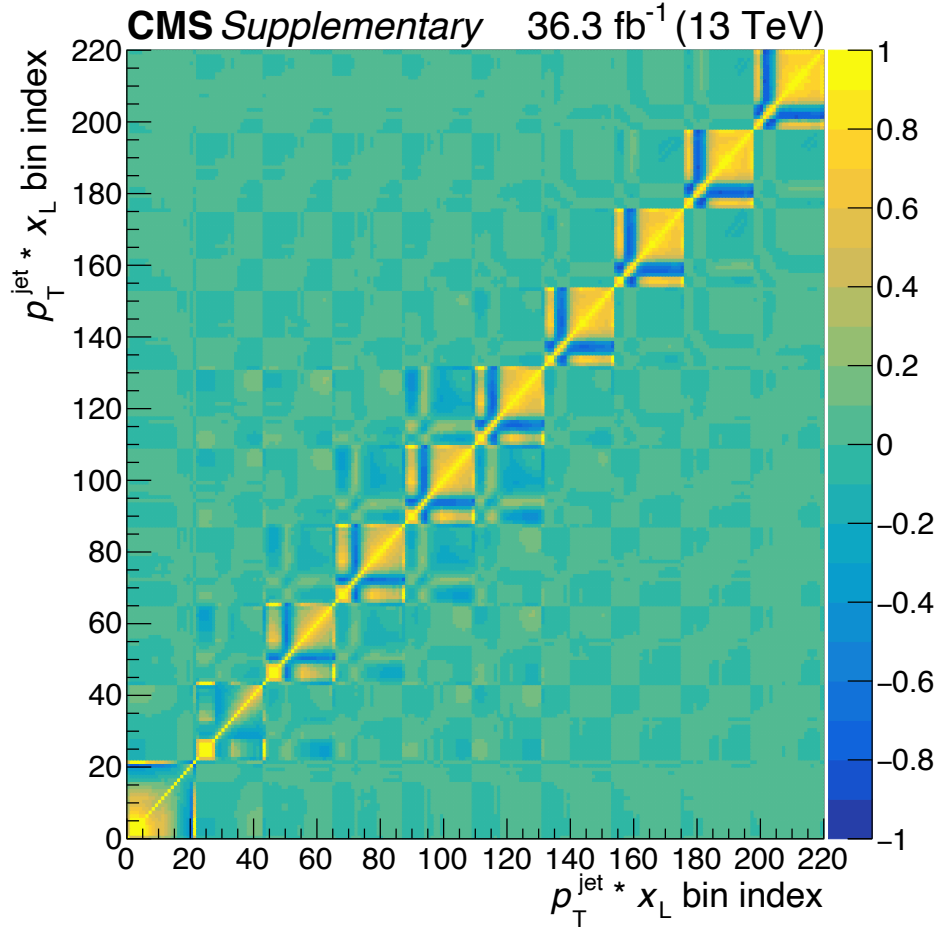


Figure A.7: The statistical correlation matrix of the bins of the unfolded E3C distribution. The bin number n in this figure is defined by $n = 22i_{p_T} + i_{x_L}$, where i_{p_T} and i_{x_L} are the indices of the p_T and x_L bins. In total there are ten p_T bins, the eight presented in the analysis plus the overflow and underflow bins. The number of x_L bins per p_T region is 22.

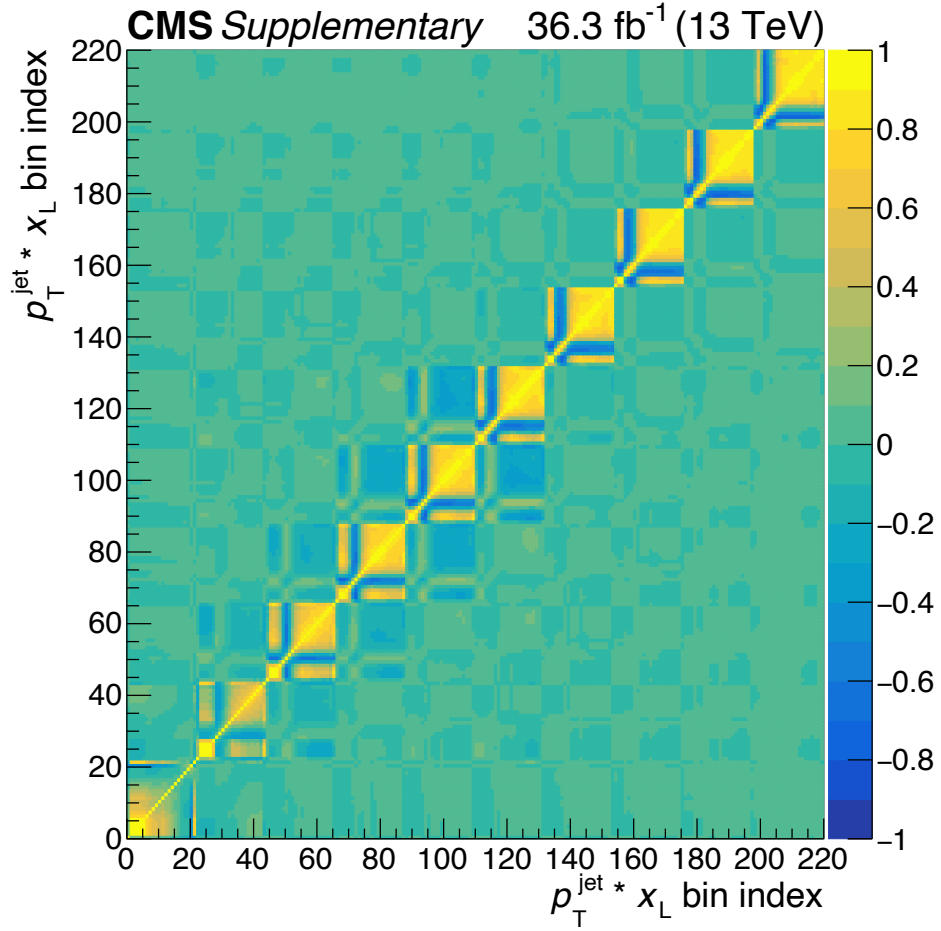


Figure A.8: The statistical correlation matrix of the bins of the unfolded E3C/E2C distribution. The bin number n in this figure is defined by $n = 22i_{p_T} + i_{x_L}$, where i_{p_T} and i_{x_L} are the indices of the p_T and x_L bins. In total there are ten p_T bins, the eight presented in the analysis plus the overflow and underflow bins. The number of x_L bins per p_T region is 22.

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- ¹⁸Now at Cairo University, Cairo, Egypt
- ¹⁹Also at Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA
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- ²¹Also at Department of Physics, Tsinghua University, Beijing, China
- ²²Also at The University of the State of Amazonas, Manaus, Brazil
- ²³Also at Erzincan Binali Yildirim University, Erzincan, Turkey
- ²⁴Also at University of Hamburg, Hamburg, Germany
- ²⁵Also at RWTH Aachen University, III. Physikalisches Institut A, Aachen, Germany
- ²⁶Also at Isfahan University of Technology, Isfahan, Iran
- ²⁷Also at Bergische University Wuppertal (BUW), Wuppertal, Germany
- ²⁸Also at Brandenburg University of Technology, Cottbus, Germany
- ²⁹Also at Forschungszentrum Jülich, Jülich, Germany
- ³⁰Also at CERN, European Organization for Nuclear Research, Geneva, Switzerland
- ³¹Also at Institute of Physics, University of Debrecen, Debrecen, Hungary
- ³²Also at Institute of Nuclear Research ATOMKI, Debrecen, Hungary
- ³³Now at Universitatea Babes-Bolyai - Facultatea de Fizica, Cluj-Napoca, Romania
- ³⁴Also at Physics Department, Faculty of Science, Assiut University, Assiut, Egypt
- ³⁵Also at HUN-REN Wigner Research Centre for Physics, Budapest, Hungary
- ³⁶Also at Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana, India
- ³⁷Also at University of Visva-Bharati, Santiniketan, India
- ³⁸Also at Indian Institute of Science (IISc), Bangalore, India
- ³⁹Also at Birla Institute of Technology, Mesra, Mesra, India
- ⁴⁰Also at IIT Bhubaneswar, Bhubaneswar, India
- ⁴¹Also at Institute of Physics, Bhubaneswar, India
- ⁴²Also at University of Hyderabad, Hyderabad, India
- ⁴³Also at Deutsches Elektronen-Synchrotron, Hamburg, Germany
- ⁴⁴Also at Department of Physics, Isfahan University of Technology, Isfahan, Iran
- ⁴⁵Also at Sharif University of Technology, Tehran, Iran
- ⁴⁶Also at Department of Physics, University of Science and Technology of Mazandaran, Behshahr, Iran
- ⁴⁷Also at Helwan University, Cairo, Egypt
- ⁴⁸Also at Italian National Agency for New Technologies, Energy and Sustainable Economic Development, Bologna, Italy
- ⁴⁹Also at Centro Siciliano di Fisica Nucleare e di Struttura Della Materia, Catania, Italy
- ⁵⁰Also at Università degli Studi Guglielmo Marconi, Roma, Italy
- ⁵¹Also at Scuola Superiore Meridionale, Università di Napoli 'Federico II', Napoli, Italy

- ⁵²Also at Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory, Batavia, Illinois, USA
- ⁵³Also at Ain Shams University, Cairo, Egypt
- ⁵⁴Also at Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche - Istituto Officina dei Materiali, Perugia, Italy
- ⁵⁵Also at Riga Technical University, Riga, Latvia
- ⁵⁶Also at Department of Applied Physics, Faculty of Science and Technology, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, Malaysia
- ⁵⁷Also at Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología, Mexico City, Mexico
- ⁵⁸Also at Trincomalee Campus, Eastern University, Sri Lanka, Nilaveli, Sri Lanka
- ⁵⁹Also at Saegis Campus, Nugegoda, Sri Lanka
- ⁶⁰Also at National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens, Greece
- ⁶¹Also at Ecole Polytechnique Fédérale Lausanne, Lausanne, Switzerland
- ⁶²Also at Universität Zürich, Zurich, Switzerland
- ⁶³Also at Stefan Meyer Institute for Subatomic Physics, Vienna, Austria
- ⁶⁴Also at Laboratoire d'Annecy-le-Vieux de Physique des Particules, IN2P3-CNRS, Annecy-le-Vieux, France
- ⁶⁵Also at Near East University, Research Center of Experimental Health Science, Mersin, Turkey
- ⁶⁶Also at Konya Technical University, Konya, Turkey
- ⁶⁷Also at Izmir Bakircay University, Izmir, Turkey
- ⁶⁸Also at Adiyaman University, Adiyaman, Turkey
- ⁶⁹Also at Bozok Universitetesi Rektörlüğü, Yozgat, Turkey
- ⁷⁰Also at Marmara University, Istanbul, Turkey
- ⁷¹Also at Milli Savunma University, Istanbul, Turkey
- ⁷²Also at Kafkas University, Kars, Turkey
- ⁷³Now at Istanbul Okan University, Istanbul, Turkey
- ⁷⁴Also at Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey
- ⁷⁵Also at Istanbul University - Cerrahpasa, Faculty of Engineering, Istanbul, Turkey
- ⁷⁶Also at Yildiz Technical University, Istanbul, Turkey
- ⁷⁷Also at Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Brussel, Belgium
- ⁷⁸Also at School of Physics and Astronomy, University of Southampton, Southampton, United Kingdom
- ⁷⁹Also at University of Bristol, Bristol, United Kingdom
- ⁸⁰Also at IPPP Durham University, Durham, United Kingdom
- ⁸¹Also at Monash University, Faculty of Science, Clayton, Australia
- ⁸²Also at Università di Torino, Torino, Italy
- ⁸³Also at Bethel University, St. Paul, Minnesota, USA
- ⁸⁴Also at Karamanoğlu Mehmetbey University, Karaman, Turkey
- ⁸⁵Also at California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California, USA
- ⁸⁶Also at United States Naval Academy, Annapolis, Maryland, USA
- ⁸⁷Also at Bingöl University, Bingöl, Turkey
- ⁸⁸Also at Georgian Technical University, Tbilisi, Georgia
- ⁸⁹Also at Sinop University, Sinop, Turkey
- ⁹⁰Also at Erciyes University, Kayseri, Turkey
- ⁹¹Also at Horia Hulubei National Institute of Physics and Nuclear Engineering (IFIN-HH), Bucharest, Romania
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- ⁹⁴Also at Kyungpook National University, Daegu, Korea

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⁹⁶Also at Universiteit Antwerpen, Antwerpen, Belgium

⁹⁷Also at Yerevan Physics Institute, Yerevan, Armenia

⁹⁸Also at Northeastern University, Boston, Massachusetts, USA

⁹⁹Also at Imperial College, London, United Kingdom

¹⁰⁰Also at Institute of Nuclear Physics of the Uzbekistan Academy of Sciences, Tashkent, Uzbekistan