EUROPEAN ORGANISATION FOR NUCLEAR RESEARCH (CERN)





Observation of quantum entanglement in top-quark pairs using the ATLAS detector

The ATLAS Collaboration

We report the highest-energy observation of entanglement, in top-antitop quark events produced at the Large Hadron Collider, using a proton-proton collision data set with a center-of-mass energy of $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV and an integrated luminosity of 140 fb⁻¹ recorded with the ATLAS experiment. Spin entanglement is detected from the measurement of a single observable D, inferred from the angle between the charged leptons in their parent top-and antitop-quark rest frames. The observable is measured in a narrow interval around the top-antitop quark production threshold, where the entanglement detection is expected to be significant. It is reported in a fiducial phase space defined with stable particles to minimize the uncertainties that stem from limitations of the Monte Carlo event generators and the parton shower model in modelling top-quark pair production. The entanglement marker is measured to be $D = -0.547 \pm 0.002$ (stat.) ± 0.021 (syst.) for $340 < m_{t\bar{t}} < 380$ GeV. The observed result is more than five standard deviations from a scenario without entanglement and hence constitutes both the first observation of entanglement in a pair of quarks and the highest-energy observation of entanglement to date.

Contents

1	Main		3
	1.1	The ATLAS detector and event samples	5
	1.2	Analysis procedure	6
	1.3	Results	8
	1.4	Discussion	9
A	Methods		11
	A .1	Object Identification in the ATLAS detector	11
	A.2	Monte Carlo Simulation	12
	A.3	Reweighting the $\cos \varphi$ distribution	12
	A.4	Background modeling	13
	A.5	Systematic uncertainties	15
	A.6	Parton shower and hadronization effects	19

1 Main

Entanglement is a striking feature of quantum mechanics [1–3], with applications in fields such as metrology, cryptography, quantum information, and quantum computation [4–8]. If two particles are entangled, the quantum state of one particle cannot be described independently of the other. Entanglement has been observed in a wide variety of systems and length scales, ranging from the microscopic [9–13] to the macroscopic [14–16]. However, entanglement remains largely unexplored at the highest accessible energy scales. Particle colliders, such as the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) at CERN, probe fundamental particles and their interactions at the highest energies accessible in a laboratory, exceeded only by astrophysical sources.

Beyond the fundamental interest of exploring quantum entanglement in a novel setting, this observation demonstrates the potential of using high-energy colliders, such as the LHC, as tools for testing our fundamental understanding of quantum mechanics. Hadron colliders offer a truly relativistic environment and provide a rich menu of fundamental interactions and forces whose interactions are rarely considered for experiments in quantum information. Relativistic effects are expected to play a critical role in quantum information [17] and the measurement described here illustrates the potential for novel approaches to exploring these effects and other foundational problems in quantum mechanics using colliders.

Recently, the heaviest fundamental particle known to exist, the top quark, was proposed as a new laboratory to study quantum entanglement and quantum information [18, 19]. Thanks to its high mass and short lifetime, the quantum numbers of the top quark are not shrouded by strong interactions with other particles before it decays and are therefore accessible via its decay products. In this Article, the spin correlation between the top quark and antitop quark is used to probe the effects of quantum entanglement, in proton–proton (pp) collision events recorded with the ATLAS detector at a center-of-mass energy of 13 TeV. Entanglement is observed with a significance of more than five standard deviations for the first time in pairs of quarks.

The simplest example of an entangled system involves a pair of quantum bits (qubits); pieces of quantum information about two particles in the same quantum state which exist in superposition. The spin quantum number of a fermion, a particle whose spin can take values of $\pm 1/2$, is one of the simplest and most fundamental examples of a qubit. Among the fundamental fermions of the Standard Model (SM) of particle physics, the top quark is uniquely suited for high-energy spin measurements because of its unique properties: its immense mass gives it a lifetime ($\sim 10^{-25}$ s) significantly shorter than the timescale needed for a quark's quantum numbers to be shrouded by hadronization ($\sim 10^{-24}$ s) and spin decorrelation ($\sim 10^{-21}$ s) effects [20]. As a result, its spin information is transferred to its decay products. This unique feature provides an opportunity to study a pseudo-bare quark, free of the color-confinement properties of the strong force that shroud other quarks.

Quarks are most commonly produced in hadron collider experiments as matter–antimatter pairs. A pair of top–antitop quarks $(t\bar{t})$ is a two-qubit system whose spin quantum state is described by the spin density matrix ρ :

$$\rho = \frac{1}{4} [I_4 + \sum_i (B_i^+ \sigma^i \otimes I_2 + B_i^- I_2 \otimes \sigma^i) + \sum_{i,j} C_{ij} \sigma^i \otimes \sigma^j].$$

The first term in the linear sum is a normalization constant, where I_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix. The second term describes the intrinsic polarization of the top and the antitop quarks, where σ^i are the corresponding Pauli matrices and the real number B_i^{\pm} characterize the spin polarization of each particle. The third term

describes the spin correlation between the particles, encoded by the spin correlation matrix C_{ij} . In all expressions, an orthogonal coordinate system is represented by the indices i, j = 1, 2, 3.

At hadron colliders, $t\bar{t}$ pairs are produced mainly via the strong interaction and thus have no intrinsic polarization (i.e. $B_i^{\pm} \simeq 0$) because of parity conservation and time invariance in quantum chromodynamics (QCD) [21]. However, their spins are expected to be correlated and this correlation has already been observed by both the ATLAS and CMS experiments at the LHC [22–26]. Entanglement in top-quark pairs can be observed via an increase in the strength of their spin correlations.

Due to their short lifetime, top quarks cannot be detected directly in experiments. In the SM, they decay almost exclusively into a bottom quark and a W boson, and the W boson subsequently decays into either a pair of lighter quarks or a charged lepton and a neutrino. In this measurement, only W bosons decaying into leptons are considered since charged leptons, especially electrons and muons, are readily detected with high precision at collider experiments. To a good approximation, the degree to which the leptons carry the spin information of their parent top quarks is 100% due to the maximally parity-violating nature of the electro-weak charged current. The angular direction of each of these leptons is correlated with the direction of the spin of their parent top quark or antitop quark in such a way that the normalized differential cross-section (σ) of the process may be written as [27]:

$$\frac{1}{\sigma}\frac{\mathrm{d}\sigma}{\mathrm{d}\Omega_{+}\mathrm{d}\Omega_{-}} = \frac{1+\mathbf{B}^{+}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{q}}_{+} - \mathbf{B}^{-}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{q}}_{-} - \hat{\mathbf{q}}_{+}\cdot\mathbf{C}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{q}}_{-}}{(4\pi)^{2}}\;,$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{q}}_+$ ($\hat{\mathbf{q}}_-$) is the antilepton (lepton) direction in its parent antitop (top) quark's rest frame and Ω_+ (Ω_-) is the solid angle associated with the antilepton (lepton). The vectors \mathbf{B}^\pm determine the top-quark and antitop-quark polarizations, while the matrix \mathbf{C} contains their spin correlations. These terms are analogous to those that appear in the general form for ρ . Since the information about the polarizations and spin correlations of the short-lived top quarks is transferred to the decay leptons, their values can be extracted from a measurement of angular observables associated with these leptons, allowing us to reconstruct the $t\bar{t}$ spin quantum state.

At the LHC, $t\bar{t}$ pairs are produced mainly via gluon–gluon fusion. When they are produced close to their production threshold, i.e. when their invariant mass $m_{t\bar{t}}$ is close to twice the mass of the top quark $(m_{t\bar{t}} \sim 2 \cdot m_t \sim 350 \text{ GeV})$, approximately 80% of the production cross-section of $t\bar{t}$ pairs arises from a spin-singlet state [28–30], which is maximally entangled. After averaging over all possible top-quark directions, entanglement only survives at threshold because of the rotational invariance of the spin singlet. This invariance implies that the trace (the sum of all of the diagonal elements) of the correlation matrix C, where each diagonal element corresponds to the spin correlation in a particular direction, is a good entanglement witness. It is an observable that can signal the presence of entanglement, with tr[C] + 1 < 0 as a sufficient condition for entanglement [18].

It is more convenient to define an entanglement marker by using $D = \text{tr}[\mathbb{C}]/3$ [18], which can be experimentally measured as:

$$D = -3 \cdot \langle \cos \varphi \rangle,$$

where $\langle \cos \varphi \rangle$ is the average value of the cosine of the angle (dot product) between the charged-lepton directions after they have been Lorentz boosted into the $t\bar{t}$ rest frame and then their parent top-quark and antitop-quark's rest frames, which can be measured experimentally in an ensemble data set. The existence of an entangled state is demonstrated if the measurement satisfies D < -1/3.

The SM is a quantum theory and entanglement is implicitly present in its predictions. Nevertheless, a demonstration of spin entanglement in $t\bar{t}$ pairs is challenging due to the inability to control the internal

degrees of freedom in the initial state [19]. Currently, entanglement can only be detected with the help of a dedicated analysis in a restricted phase space like the one presented here.

1.1 The ATLAS detector and event samples

The ATLAS experiment [31–33] at the LHC is a multipurpose particle detector with a forward–backward symmetric cylindrical geometry and a solid-angle coverage of almost 4π . It is used to record particles produced in LHC collisions through a combination of particle position and energy measurements. It consists of an inner-tracking detector surrounded by a thin superconducting solenoid providing a 2 T axial magnetic field, electromagnetic and hadronic calorimeters, and a muon spectrometer. The muon spectrometer surrounds the calorimeters and is based on three large superconducting air-core toroidal magnets with eight coils each providing a field integral of between 2.0 and 6.0 T m across the detector. An extensive software suite [34] is used in data simulation, in the reconstruction and analysis of real and simulated data, in detector operations, and in the trigger and data acquisition systems of the experiment. The complete data set of pp collision events at a center-of-mass energy of $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV collected with the ATLAS experiment during 2015–2018 is used, corresponding to an integrated luminosity of 140 fb⁻¹. This analysis focuses on the data sample recorded using single-electron or single-muon triggers [35].

A unique feature of particle physics is that very precise simulations of the SM can be realized through the use of Monte Carlo (MC) event generators. These simulations replicate real collisions and their resultant particles on an event-by-event basis and these events can be passed through sophisticated simulations of the ATLAS detector to produce simulated data. Comparing these simulated events to those actually recorded by the detector is one way to test the predictions of the SM. Another is to use the simulated data to model how the ATLAS detector responds to a particular physics process, such as the pair production of top quarks, and to use this to create corrections to undo the effect of the detector response on real data and then to compare this corrected data to theoretical predictions. This measurement uses the latter strategy.

Three distinct types of real and simulated data are used, each with associated physics objects. Detector level refers to real data before it has been corrected for detector effects and simulated data after they have been passed through simulation of the ATLAS detector. Parton level refers to simulated MC events where the particles arise from the fundamental interaction being simulated, such as quarks and bosons, or to real collision data that has been corrected to this level. Particle level refers to simulated data with physics objects that are built only from the stable particles that remain after the decay of the particles that exist at parton level, i.e. particles that live long enough to interact with the detector, or to data that has been corrected to this level. This measurement relies on the selection and reconstruction of muons, electrons, quarks and gluons as hadronic jets, neutrinos as missing transverse momentum ($\vec{p}_{\rm T}^{\rm miss}$), W bosons and top quarks. These objects are each reconstructed at detector level, particle level, and parton level. Details of how these objects are reconstructed in ATLAS and in MC simulations are provided in Methods A.1.

MC event simulations are used to model the $t\bar{t}$ signal and the expected SM background processes. The production of $t\bar{t}$ events was modeled using the Powheg Box v2 heavy-quark (hvq) [36–39] generator at next-to-leading order (NLO) precision in QCD and the events were interfaced to either РУТНІА 8.230 [40]

¹ ATLAS uses a right-handed coordinate system with its origin at the nominal interaction point in the center of the detector and the *z*-axis along the beam pipe. The *x*-axis points from the interaction point to the center of the LHC ring, and the *y*-axis points upwards. Cylindrical coordinates (r, ϕ) are used in the transverse plane, where ϕ is the azimuth angle around the *z*-axis. The pseudorapidity is defined in terms of the polar angle θ as $\eta = -\ln\tan(\theta/2)$. Angular distance is measured in units of $\Delta R \equiv \sqrt{(\Delta \eta)^2 + (\Delta \phi)^2}$.

or Herwig 7.2.1 [41, 42] to model the parton shower and hadronization. The decays of the top quarks, including their spin correlations, were modeled at leading-order (LO) precision in QCD. An additional sample that generates $t\bar{t}$ events at full NLO accuracy in production and decay was generated using the Powheg Box Res [43, 44] ($bb4\ell$) generator, interfaced to Pythia. Further details of the setup and tuning of these generators are provided in Methods A.2. An important difference between Pythia and Herwig is that the former uses a $p_{\rm T}$ -ordered shower, while the latter uses an angular-ordered shower (see Methods A.6). Another important consideration is that full information on the spin density matrix is not passed to the parton shower programs and therefore is not fully preserved during the shower.

The SM background processes which contribute to the analysis are the production of a single top quark with a W boson (tW), pair production of top quarks with an additional boson $t\bar{t} + X$ (X = H, W, Z) production, and the production of dileptonic events from either one or two massive gauge bosons (W, Z bosons). The generators for the hard-scatter processes and the showering are listed in Methods A.2. The procedure for identifying and reconstructing detector-level objects are the same for data and MC events.

1.2 Analysis procedure

Only events taken during stable-beam conditions, and for which all relevant components of the detector were operational, are considered. To be selected, events must have exactly one electron and one muon with opposite-sign electric charges. A minimum of two jets is required, and at least one of them must be identified to originate from a *b*-hadron (*b*-tagged).

The background contribution of events with reconstructed objects that are misidentified as leptons, referred to as the "fake-lepton" background, is estimated using a combination of MC prediction and correction based on data. This data-driven correction is obtained from a control region dominated by fake leptons. It is defined by using the same selection criteria as above, except that the two leptons must have same-sign electric charges. The difference between the numbers of observed events and predicted events in this region is taken as a scale factor and applied to predicted fake-lepton events in the signal region.

Events that pass the event selection are separated into three analysis regions, based on either the detector-level, particle-level, or parton-level $m_{t\bar{t}}$, depending on the region. The signal region is constructed to be dominated by events that are as close to the production threshold as the resolution of the reconstruction method will allow, as this is the region where the entanglement of the top quarks is expected to be maximized.

The optimal mass window for the signal region was determined to be $340 < m_{t\bar{t}} < 380$ GeV. Two additional validation regions are defined in order to validate the method used for the measurement. Firstly, a region is defined close to the limit where entanglement is not expected to be observable, and also with significant dilution from misreconstructed events from non-entangled regions, by requiring $380 < m_{t\bar{t}} < 500$ GeV. Secondly, a region in which no signal of entanglement is expected is defined with $m_{t\bar{t}} > 500$ GeV. Each of the regions has a $t\bar{t}$ -event purity of about 90%. The dominant sources of background processes arise from the production of a single top quark via electroweak interactions and the production of a Z boson with additional jets, each of which accounts for approximately 40% of the background in the signal region. The remaining 20% of background events arise from events containing misidentified leptons and from the production of two electroweak bosons. The distribution of $\cos \varphi$ in the signal region and the reconstruction-level D value after background subtraction are shown in the left and right panels of Figure 1, respectively.

In order to compare the data with calculations and correct for detector effects, we must also define an event selection using the "truth" information in the MC event record. This selection uses particle-level objects to match as closely as possible the selection at detector level and is called a *fiducial* particle-level selection. Particle-level events are required to contain exactly one electron and one muon with opposite-sign electric charges and at least two particle-level jets, one of which must contain a b-hadron. The $\cos \varphi$ distribution is then constructed from the particle-level top quarks and charged leptons in the same manner as at detector level.

The response of the detector, the event selections, and the top-quark reconstruction distort the shape of the $\cos \varphi$ distribution. The observed distribution is corrected for these effects with a simple method: a simulation-based calibration curve which connects any value at the detector level to the corresponding particle-level value. We correct the data for detector effects by using a unique calibration curve built for each signal and validation region based on the expected signal model, after subtracting the expected contribution from background processes. Due to limited resolution of the reconstructed mass of the $t\bar{t}$ system, some events that truly belong to the validation regions can enter the signal region at detector level. These events are treated as detector effects.

To build these curves, MC event samples are created with alternative values of D by reweighting the events, following the procedure described in Methods A.3. The calibration curve corrects the value D_{detector} measured at the detector level to a corresponding value D_{particle} at particle level. To construct the calibration curve, several hypotheses for different values of D, denoted by D'_{particle} with a corresponding D'_{detector} value, are created corresponding to changes in the expected value of entanglement.

The pairs of D'_{detector} and D'_{particle} are plotted in Figure 2(a). A straight line interpolates between the points. With this calibration curve, any value for D_{detector} can be calibrated to the particle level.

Three categories of uncertainties are included in the calibration curves: uncertainties in modeling $t\bar{t}$ production and decay, uncertainties in modeling the backgrounds, and detector-related uncertainties for both the $t\bar{t}$ signal and the SM background processes. Each source of systematic uncertainty can result in a different calibration curve because it changes the shape of the $\cos\varphi$ distribution at particle level and/or detector level. For each source of systematic uncertainty, the data are corrected using this new calibration curve and the resultant deviation from the data corrected by the nominal curve is taken as the systematic uncertainty of the data due to that source. Systematic uncertainties from all sources are summed in quadrature to determine the final uncertainty in the result.

For all of the detector-related uncertainties, the particle-level quantity is not affected and only detector-level values change. For signal modeling uncertainties, the effects at particle level propagate to detector level, resulting in shifts in both. Uncertainties in modeling the background processes affect how much background is subtracted from the expected or observed data and can therefore cause changes in the calibration curve. These uncertainties are treated as fully correlated between the signal and background (i.e. if a source of systematic uncertainty is expected affect both the signal and background processes, this is estimated simultaneously and not separately).

A summary of the different sources of systematic uncertainty and their impact on the result is given in Table 1. The size of each systematic uncertainty depends on the value of *D* and is given in Table 1 for the SM prediction, calculated with Powheg+Pythia. The systematic uncertainties considered in the analysis are described in detail in Method A.5.

To compare the particle-level result with the parton-level entanglement limit D < -1/3, the limit must be folded to the particle level. A second calibration curve is constructed to relate the value of D_{parton} to

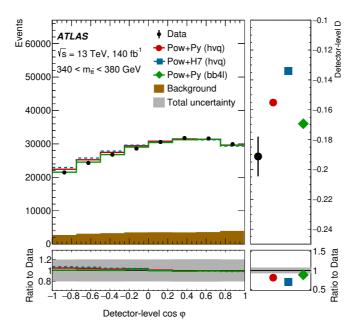


Figure 1: The left panel shows the $\cos\varphi$ observable in the signal region at detector level and the right panel shows the entanglement marker D, calculated from the detector-level distributions, from three different MC generators; the Powheg+Pythia and Powheg+Herwig heavy-quark models, labelled "Pow+Py (hvq)" and "Pow+H7 (hvq)", respectively, and the Powheg+Pythia $bb4\ell$ model, labelled "Pow+Py ($bb4\ell$)", are shown after background processes are subtracted. The uncertainty band shows the uncertainties from all sources added in quadrature. The ratios of the predictions to the data are shown at the bottom of the figure. The quoted value for D for the $bb4\ell$ model also includes a subtraction of the single-top-quark background.

the corresponding D_{particle} . The definitions of parton-level top quarks and leptons in the MC generator follow Ref. [24] and correspond approximately to those of stable top quarks and leptons in a fixed-order calculation. Only systematic uncertainties related to the modeling of the $t\bar{t}$ production and decay process are considered when building this calibration curve. The migration of parton level events from the signal region into the validation regions at particle level and vice versa is very small.

1.3 Results

The calibration procedure is performed in the signal region and the two validation regions to correct the data to a *fiducial* phase space at particle level, as described in Section 1.2. All systematic uncertainties are included in the three regions. The observed (expected) results are:

$$D = -0.547 \pm 0.002 \text{ [stat.]} \pm 0.021 \text{ [syst.]} (-0.470 \pm 0.002 \text{ [stat.]} \pm 0.018 \text{ [syst.]}),$$

in the signal region of $340 < m_{t\bar{t}} < 380 \text{ GeV}$ and:

$$D = -0.222 \pm 0.001 \text{ [stat.]} \pm 0.027 \text{ [syst.]} (-0.258 \pm 0.001 \text{ [stat.]} \pm 0.026 \text{ [syst.]}),$$

$$D = -0.098 \pm 0.001 \text{ [stat.]} \pm 0.021 \text{ [syst.]} (-0.103 \pm 0.001 \text{ [stat.]} \pm 0.021 \text{ [syst.]}),$$

Source of uncertainty	$\Delta D_{\text{observed}}(D = -0.547)$	$\Delta D~[\%]$	$\Delta D_{\text{expected}}(D = -0.470)$	ΔD [%]
Signal modeling	0.017	3.2	0.015	3.2
Electrons	0.002	0.4	0.002	0.4
Muons	0.001	0.1	0.001	0.1
Jets	0.004	0.7	0.004	0.8
b-tagging	0.002	0.4	0.002	0.4
Pile-up	< 0.001	< 0.1	< 0.001	< 0.1
$E_{ m T}^{ m miss}$	0.002	0.3	0.002	0.4
Backgrounds	0.010	1.8	0.009	1.8
Total statistical uncertainty	0.002	0.3	0.002	0.4
Total systematic uncertainty	0.021	3.8	0.018	3.9
Total uncertainty	0.021	3.8	0.018	3.9

Table 1: A summary of the effect of the groups of uncertainties at the expected SM value of $D_{\rm expected} = -0.470$, corresponding to the Powheg+Pythia modeling, and the observed value $D_{\rm observed} = -0.547$, both in the signal region. $E_{\rm T}^{\rm miss}$ denotes the magnitude of the missing transverse momentum. The total systematic uncertainty is calculated as the sum in quadrature of the individual groups of systematic uncertainties.

in the validation regions of $380 < m_{t\bar{t}} < 500$ GeV and $m_{t\bar{t}} > 500$ GeV, respectively. The expected values are those predicted by Powheg+Pythia. The calibration curve for the signal region and a summary of the results in all regions are presented in Figure 2.

The observed values of the entanglement marker D are compared with the entanglement limit in Figure 2(b). The parton-level bound D = -1/3 is converted to a particle-level bound by folding the limit to particle level to better highlight the differences between predictions using different parton shower orderings. For Powheg+Pythia, this yields -0.322 ± 0.009 , where the uncertainty includes all uncertainties in the Powheg+Pythia model except the parton shower uncertainty (for more details of these uncertainties, see Methods A.5). Similarly, for Powheg+Herwig, with an angular-ordered parton shower, a value of -0.27 is obtained. No uncertainties are assigned in this case since it is merely used as an alternative model.

1.4 Discussion

In both of the validation regions, with no entanglement signal, the measurements are found to agree with the predictions from different MC setups within the uncertainties. This serves as a consistency check to validate the method used for the measurement.

Even though the different models yield different predictions, the current precision of the measurements in the validation regions does not allow us to rule out any of the MC setups that were used. It is important to note that close to the threshold, non-relativistic QCD processes, such as Coulomb bound state effects, affect the production of $t\bar{t}$ events [28] and are not accounted for in the MC generators. However, other effects that result in similar changes to $\cos\varphi$ and $m_{t\bar{t}}$ are included in the systematic uncertainties. These systematic uncertainties are, at their largest, only a 1% effect on the final measurement and therefore the

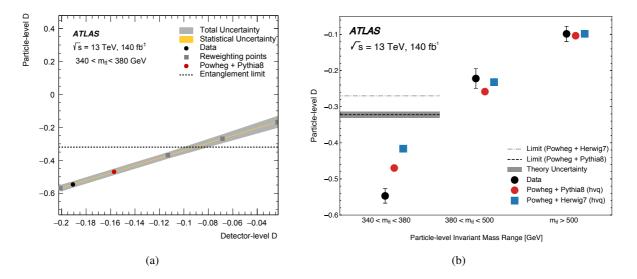


Figure 2: (a): Calibration curve for the dependence between the particle-level value of D and the detector-level value of D, in the signal region. The yellow band represents the statistical uncertainty, while the grey band represents the total uncertainty obtained by adding the statistical and systematic uncertainties in quadrature. The measured values and expected values from Powheg + Pythia8 (hvq) are marked with black and red circles, respectively, and the entanglement limit is shown as a dashed line. (b): The particle-level D results in the signal and validation regions compared with various MC models. The entanglement limit shown is a conversion from its parton-level value of D = -1/3 to the corresponding value at particle level, and the uncertainties which are considered for the band are described in the text.

absence of these effects in the MC simulation used to derive the calibration curve is expected to be minimal. Additionally, the impact of the enhancement of the cross-section due to pseudo-bound-state effects on the calibration curve and particle-level measurement has been assessed in a stress test, and found to be small compared to the modelling uncertainties already included in the measurement.

In the signal region the PowheG+Pythia and PowheG+Herwig generators yield different predictions. The size of the observed difference is consistent with changing the method of shower ordering and is discussed in detail in Methods A.6.

In the signal region, the observed and expected significances with respect to the entanglement limit are well beyond five standard deviations, independently of the MC model used to correct the entanglement limit to account for the *fiducial* phase space of the measurement. This is illustrated in Figure 2(b), where the hypothesis of no entanglement is shown. The observed result in the region with $340 < m_{t\bar{t}} < 380$ GeV establishes the formation of entangled $t\bar{t}$ states. This constitutes the first observation of entanglement in a quark–antiquark pair.

Apart from the fundamental interest in testing quantum entanglement in a new environment, this measurement in top quarks paves the way to use high-energy colliders, such as the LHC, as a laboratory to study quantum information and foundational problems in quantum mechanics. From a quantum information perspective, high energy colliders are particularly interesting due to their relativistic nature, and the richness of the interactions and symmetries that can be probed there. Furthermore, highly demanding measurements, such as measuring quantum discord and reconstructing the steering ellipsoid, can be naturally implemented at the LHC due to the vast number of available $t\bar{t}$ events [45]. From a high-energy physics perspective,

borrowing concepts from quantum information theory inspires new approaches and observables that can be used to search for physics beyond the SM [46–49].

A Methods

A.1 Object Identification in the ATLAS detector

Reconstructed (detector level) objects are defined as follows. Electron candidates are required to satisfy the "tight" likelihood-based identification requirement as well as calorimeter- and track- based isolation criteria [50], and have pseudorapidity $|\eta| < 1.37$ or $1.52 < |\eta| < 2.47$. Muon candidates are required to satisfy the "medium" identification requirement as well as track-based isolation criteria [51–53], and have $|\eta| < 2.5$. Electrons and muons must have a minimum transverse momentum (p_T) of 25–28 GeV, depending on the data-taking period. Showers of particles (jets) that arise from the hadronization of quarks and gluons [54] are reconstructed from particle-flow objects [55], using the anti- k_t algorithm [56, 57] with a radius parameter R = 0.4, a $p_{\rm T}$ threshold of 25 GeV, and a $|\eta| < 2.5$ requirement. A Jet-Vertex-Tagger requirement is applied to jets with $p_T < 60$ GeV and $|\eta| < 2.4$ to suppress jets originating from additional interactions in the same or neighbouring bunch crossings (pile-up) [58]. Jets are tagged as containing b-hadrons using the DL1r tagger [59] with a b-tagging efficiency of 85%. Missing transverse momentum $(\vec{p}_{T}^{\text{miss}})$ [60, 61] is determined from the imbalance in the transverse momenta of all reconstructed objects. In order to measure D, the top quarks must be reconstructed from their measured decay products. In the $t\bar{t}$ dileptonic decay, in addition to charged leptons and jets, there are two neutrinos which are not measured by the detector. Several methods are available to reconstruct the top quarks from the detector-level charged leptons, jets and $\vec{p}_{T}^{\text{miss}}$. The main method used in this work is the Ellipse method [62], which is a geometric approach to analytically calculate the neutrino momenta. This method yields at least one real solution in 85% of events. If this method fails (e.g. the resultant solutions are all complex), the Neutrino Weighting method [63] is used; it assigns a weight to each possible solution by assessing the compatibility of the neutrino momenta and the $\vec{p}_{\mathrm{T}}^{\mathrm{miss}}$ in the event, after scanning possible values of the pseudorapidities of the neutrinos. If both methods fail, a simple pairing of each lepton with its closest b-tagged jet is used. If a second b-tagged jet is not present in the event, the leading (highest) $p_{\rm T}$ untagged jet is used instead. In all cases, a W boson mass of 80.4 GeV and a top-quark mass of 172.5 GeV are used as input parameters.

In simulated events, parton-level objects are taken directly from the MC history information and are required to have status code of 1, indicating that they are the fundamental particles (partons) of the interaction. Top quarks are required to be partons that decay to a W boson and a b quark, whereas charged leptons are required to be the immediate decay parton from the W boson from the top quark. Particle-level objects are reconstructed using simulated stable particles in the MC simulation before their reconstruction in the detector, but after hadronization. A particle is defined as stable if it has a mean lifetime greater than 30 ps, within the pseudorapidity acceptance of the detector. The selection criteria for the particle-level objects are chosen to correspond as closely as possible to the criteria applied to the detector-level objects. Electrons, muons and neutrinos are required to come from the electroweak decay of a top quark, and are discarded if they arise from the decay of a hadron or a τ -lepton. Electrons and muons are then "dressed" by summing their four-momenta with any prompt photons within $\Delta R = 0.1$; they must then lie within $\Delta R > 0.4$ from a jet to avoid being removed from the event. Leptons are also required to have $p_T > 10$ GeV and $|\eta| < 2.5$, and at least one lepton must have $p_T > 25$ GeV. Jets are built by clustering all stable particles, using the anti- k_t algorithm with a radius parameter of R = 0.4, and are tagged as containing b-hadrons if they have at least one ghost-matched b-hadron [64, 65] with $p_T > 5$ GeV. Jets are also required to have $p_T > 25$ GeV

and $|\eta| < 2.5$. Each W boson is reconstructed by combining an available electron and electron neutrino or muon and muon neutrino. The top quark and antitop quark are reconstructed by pairing the two leading b-tagged jets, or the b-tagged jet and the highest- p_T untagged jet in events with only one b-tag, with the reconstructed W bosons. Both potential jet-lepton combinations are formed and the one which minimizes $|m_t - m(W_1 + b_{1/2})| + |m_t - m(W_2 + b_{2/1})|$ is taken as the correct pairing, where m_t denotes the mass of the top quark, $b_{1/2}$ denotes the two jets selected for the reconstruction, $W_{1/2}$ refers to the reconstructed W bosons, and m is the invariant mass of the objects in brackets.

A.2 Monte Carlo Simulation

The production of $t\bar{t}$ events was modeled using the Powheg Box v2 heavy-quark (hvq) [36–39] event generator. This generator uses matrix elements calculated at next-to-leading-order (NLO) precision in a strong coupling constant power expansion in QCD with the NNPDF3.0NLO [66] parton distribution function (PDF) set and the $h_{\rm damp}$ parameter² set to 1.5 m_t [67]. The decays of the top quarks, including their spin correlations, were modeled at leading-order (LO) precision in QCD. As an alternative, the Powheg Box Res [43, 44] event generator, developed to treat decaying resonances within the Powheg Box framework and including off-shell and non-resonant effects in the matrix element calculation, was used to produce an additional event sample, labelled as $bb4\ell$ in the following.³

In the $bb4\ell$ event sample, spin correlations are calculated at NLO, and full NLO accuracy in $t\bar{t}$ production and decays is attained. To model the parton shower, hadronization, and underlying event, the events from both Powheg Box v2 and Powheg Box Res were interfaced to Pythia 8.230 [40], with parameters set according to the A14 set of tuned parameters [68] and using the NNPDF2.3Lo set of PDFs [69]. Similarly, the events from Powheg Box v2 (hvq) were also interfaced to Herwig 7.2.1 [41, 42], using the Herwig 7.2.1 default set of tuned parameters. The decays of bottom and charm hadrons were performed by EvtGen 1.6.0 [70]. The spin information from the matrix element calculation is not passed to the parton shower programs and therefore is not fully preserved during the shower.

All simulated event samples include pile-up interactions, and the events are reweighted to reproduce the observed distribution of the average number of collisions per bunch crossing.

A.3 Reweighting the $\cos \varphi$ distribution

In order to construct the calibration curve, templates for alternative scenarios with different degrees of entanglement, and therefore with different values of D, must be extracted. The degree of entanglement is intrinsic in the calculations of the MC event generators and cannot be changed. However, the effects of entanglement can be directly accessed via D, measured from the average of the $\cos \varphi$ distribution in the event. Therefore, an event-by-event reweighting based on D is used to vary the degree of entanglement. Although the measurement uses detector-level and particle-level objects, the observable D is changed at parton level, where it is directly related to the entanglement in the entanglement between the top and

² The h_{damp} parameter is a resummation damping factor and one of the parameters that controls the matching of Powheg matrix elements to the parton shower and thus effectively regulates the high- p_{T} radiation against which the $t\bar{t}$ system recoils.

³ Although *bb4t* is the higher-precision MC sample, it cannot be compared directly with the data after they are corrected for detector effects as it is not possible to remove its off-shell component in a formally correct way. However, the effect of using this model was tested in an approximate way and was found to not significantly change the conclusions of the measurement.

antitop spins. Therefore, each event is reweighted according to its parton-level values of $m_{t\bar{t}}$ and $\cos \varphi$, as described below.

The entanglement variable D is extracted at parton level from the $\cos \varphi$ distribution by using either the mean of the distribution $D = -3 \cdot \langle \cos \varphi \rangle$ or the slope of the normalized differential cross-section $(1/\sigma) d\sigma/d \cos \varphi = (1/2)(1 - D \cos \varphi)$.

For simplicity, the analysis always uses the mean of the distribution, although the two methods are equivalent. Thus for the purpose of reweighting, one must change the slope of the $\cos \varphi$ distribution at parton level. Each event is reweighted according to this slope, which in turn changes the distributions at particle level and detector level.

The observable D depends on the invariant mass of the $t\bar{t}$ system, $m_{t\bar{t}}$. To perform the reweighting, the differential value of D per mass unit as a function of $m_{t\bar{t}}$, $D_{\Omega}(m_{t\bar{t}})$, has to be calculated. This is achieved by fitting a third-order polynomial of the form:

$$D_{\Omega}(m_{t\bar{t}}) = x_0 + x_1 \cdot m_{t\bar{t}}^{-1} + x_2 \cdot m_{t\bar{t}}^{-2} + x_3 \cdot m_{t\bar{t}}^{-3} ,$$

where x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3 are constants. The values of the parameters of $D_{\Omega}(m_{t\bar{t}})$ depend on the MC event generator and have to be calculated for the nominal sample and for the effect of each of the $t\bar{t}$ theory systematic uncertainties, since they change the parton-level $\cos \varphi$ values and thus $D_{\Omega}(m_{t\bar{t}})$.

The reweighting method is a simple scaling of the $\cos \varphi$ distribution according to the desired new value of D. This is done by assigning a weight w to each event at parton level as:

$$w = \frac{1 - D_{\Omega}(m_{t\bar{t}}) \cdot X \cdot \cos \varphi}{1 - D_{\Omega}(m_{t\bar{t}}) \cdot \cos \varphi} ,$$

with X as the scaling hypothesis of D. If, for example, X = 1.2, it means that D is scaled up by 20% relative to its nominal value. In order to build the calibration curve, four alternative values of D are considered, with X = 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.2, in addition to the nominal value without reweighting (X = 1.0). It is important to note that these X values change D across the entire $m_{t\bar{t}}$ spectrum. In Figure 3 the parton-level distribution of D is shown in the signal region before and after reweighting.

A.4 Background modeling

Simulated data in the form of MC samples were produced using either the full ATLAS detector simulation [71] based on the Geant4 framework [72] or, for the estimation of some of the systematic uncertainties, a faster simulation with parameterized showers in the calorimeters [73]. The effect of pile-up was modeled by overlaying each hard-scattering event with inelastic pp collisions generated with Pythia 8.186 [74] using the NNPDF2.3Lo set of PDFs [69] and the A3 set of tuned parameters [75]. Except for the events simulated with Sherpa, the EvtGen program was used to simulate bottom and charm hadron decays. If not mentioned otherwise, the top-quark mass was set to $m_t = 172.5$ GeV. All event samples that were interfaced with Pythia used the A14 set of tuned parameters [68] and the NNPDF2.3Lo PDF set.

Single-top quark tW associated production was modeled using the Powheg Box v2 [37–39, 76] event generator, which provides matrix elements at NLO in the strong coupling constant α_s in the five-flavor scheme with the NNPDF3.0NLO [66] PDF set. The functional form of the renormalization and factorization scales was set to the default scale, which is equal to the top-quark mass. The diagram-removal scheme [77] was employed to handle the interference with $t\bar{t}$ production [67]. The inclusive cross-section was corrected

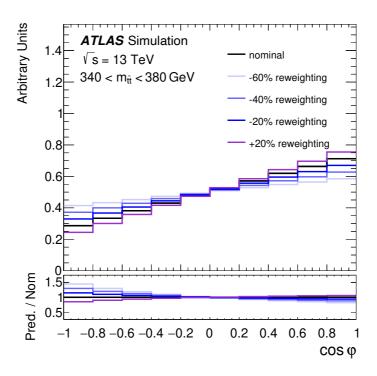


Figure 3: Example of the nominal $\cos \varphi$ distribution and the results of applying the reweighting technique with X = 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.2 in the signal region at parton level. The lower panel shows the ratio of each D value after reweighting ("Pred.") to the nominal D value ("Nom.").

to the theory prediction calculated at NLO in QCD with next-to-next-leading-logarithm (NNLL) soft-gluon corrections [78, 79]. For pp collisions at a center-of-mass energy of $\sqrt{s}=13$ TeV, this cross-section corresponds to $\sigma(tW)_{\rm NLO+NNLL}=71.7\pm3.8$ pb. The uncertainty in the cross-section due to the PDF was estimated using the MSTW2008NNLO 90% CL [80, 81] PDF set, and was added in quadrature to the effect of the scale uncertainty.

Samples of diboson final states (VV), where V denotes a W or Z boson, were simulated with the Sherpa 2.2.2 [82] event generator, including off-shell effects and Higgs boson contributions, where appropriate. Fully leptonic final states and semileptonic final states, where one boson decays leptonically and the other hadronically, were generated using matrix elements at NLO accuracy in QCD for up to one additional parton and at LO accuracy for up to three additional parton emissions. Samples for the loop-induced processes $gg \to VV$ were generated using LO-accurate matrix elements for up to one additional parton emission for both the cases of fully leptonic and semileptonic final states. The matrix element calculations were matched and merged with the Sherpa parton shower based on Catani–Seymour dipole factorization [83, 84] using the MEPS@NLO prescription [85–88]. The virtual QCD corrections were provided by the OpenLoops library [89–91]. The NNPDF3.0nnlo set of PDFs was used [66], along with the dedicated set of tuned parton-shower parameters developed by the Sherpa authors.

The production of *V*+ jets events was simulated with the Sherpa 2.2.11 [82] event generator using NLO matrix elements for up to two partons, and LO matrix elements for up to five partons, calculated with the Comix [83] and OpenLoops 2 [89–92] libraries. They were matched with the Sherpa parton shower [84] using the MEPS@NLO prescription [85–88]. The set of tuned parameters developed by the Sherpa authors was used, along with the NNPDF3.0nnlo set of PDFs [66].

The production of $t\bar{t}V$ events was modeled using the MadGraph5_aMC@NLO 2.3.3 [93] event generator, which provides matrix elements at NLO in the strong coupling constant α_s with the NNPDF3.0NLO [66] PDFs. The functional form of the renormalization and factorization scales was set to $0.5 \times \sum_i \sqrt{m_i^2 + p_{T,i}^2}$, where the sum runs over all the particles generated from the matrix element calculation. Top quarks were decayed at LO using MadSpin [94, 95] to preserve spin correlations. The events were interfaced with Pythia 8.210 [40] for the simulation of parton showering and hadronization. The cross-sections were calculated at NLO QCD and NLO EW accuracy using MadGraph5_aMC@NLO as reported in Ref. [96]. For $t\bar{t}\ell\ell$ events, the cross-section was scaled by an off-shell correction estimated at one-loop level in α_s .

The production of $t\bar{t}H$ events was modeled using the Powheg Box v2 [36–39, 97] event generator, which provides matrix elements at NLO in the strong coupling constant α_s in the five-flavor scheme with the NNPDF3.0NLO [66] PDF set. The functional form of the renormalization and factorization scales was set to $\sqrt[3]{m_T(t) \cdot m_T(\bar{t}) \cdot m_T(H)}$. The events were interfaced with Pythia 8.230. The cross-section was calculated at NLO QCD and NLO EW accuracy using MadGraph5_aMC@NLO as reported in Ref. [96]. The predicted value at $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV is 507^{+35}_{-50} fb, where the uncertainties were estimated from variations of both α_s and the renormalization and factorization scales.

The background from non-prompt or fake leptons was modeled using simulated MC events to describe the shape of the kinematic distributions. MC event generator information is used to distinguish events with prompt leptons from events with non-prompt or fake leptons. The normalization of this background was obtained from data by using a dedicated control region. This control region uses the same basic event selection as the signal and validation regions, the only difference being that the electric charges of the electron and muon must have the same sign. Within this control region, the number of simulated prompt-lepton events is subtracted from the observed number of data events. The number of events remaining is then divided by the number of simulated fake-lepton events, resulting in a normalization factor of 1.4. This scale factor is then applied to the simulated fake-lepton events in the signal and validation regions.

A.5 Systematic uncertainties

The systematic uncertainties can be divided into three separate categories: signal modeling uncertainties, which stem from the theory prediction of $t\bar{t}$ production; object systematic uncertainties, which arise from the uncertainty in the detector response to objects used in the analysis; and background modeling systematic uncertainties, which are related to the theory prediction of the SM backgrounds. All systematic uncertainties, grouped according to their sources, are described in the following sections. The signal modeling uncertainties were found to dominate the overall uncertainty of this measurement.

For each source of systematic uncertainty, a new calibration curve is created and the simulated (or observed) data are corrected, resulting in a shifted corrected result. In most cases the systematic uncertainty is taken to be the difference between the nominal expected/observed result and the systematically shifted result. In cases where a systematic shift only effects the background model (e.g. background cross-section uncertainties), the systematically shifted background sample is subtracted from the data instead before the calibration is performed. In cases where the systematic uncertainty is one-sided, the uncertainty is symmetrized. In cases where uncertainties are asymmetric, the larger of the two variations is symmetrized. The signal modeling uncertainties dominate the measurement and their estimated sizes are presented in Table 2.

A.5.1 Signal modeling uncertainties

Signal modeling uncertainties are those related to the choice of Powheg Box + Pythia as the nominal MC setup as well as those affecting the theoretical calculation itself. These systematic uncertainties are considered in two forms: alternative event generators, and weights. For the alternative-generator uncertainties, the difference between the calibrated values of D is taken as the systematic uncertainty. For the systematic uncertainties involving weights, the difference between the calibrated D values for the nominal sample and the weight-shifted sample is taken as the uncertainty. These uncertainties are enumerated as follows:

- **pThard setting**: The region of phase space that is vetoed in the showering when matched to a parton shower is varied by changing the internal **pThard** parameter of Powheg Box from 0 to 1, following the prescription described in Ref. [98].
- **Top-quark decay**: The uncertainty in the decay of the top quarks is estimated by comparing the nominal decay in Powheg Box with the decays modeled with MadSpin [94, 95].
- **NNLO reweighting**: The uncertainty due to missing higher-order corrections is estimated by reweighting the $p_{\rm T}$ of the top quarks, the $p_{\rm T}$ of the $t\bar{t}$ system, and the $m_{t\bar{t}}$ spectra at parton level to match the predicted NNLO differential cross-sections [99].
- **Parton shower and hadronization**: This uncertainty is estimated by comparing two different parton-shower and hadronization algorithms, Pythia and Herwig, interfaced to the same matrix element event generator (Powheg Box).
- **Recoil scheme**: The nominal sample uses a recoil scheme where partons recoil against *b*-quarks. This recoil scheme changes the modeling of second and subsequent gluon emissions from quarks produced by colored resonance decays, such as the *b*-quark in a top-quark decay, and therefore affects how the momentum is rearranged between the *W* boson and the *b*-quark. An alternative sample is produced in which the recoil is set to be against the top quark itself for the second and subsequent emissions [100].
- Scale uncertainties: The renormalization and factorization scales are raised and lowered by a factor of 2 in the nominal Powheg setup, including simultaneous variations in the same direction. The envelope of results from all of these variations is taken as the final uncertainty.
- **Initial-state radiation**: The uncertainty due to initial-state radiation is estimated by choosing the Var3c up/down variations of the A14 tune as described in Ref. [101].
- **Final-state radiation**: The impact of final-state radiation is evaluated by doubling or halving the renormalization scale for emissions from the parton shower.
- Parton distribution function (PDF): The systematic uncertainty due to the choice of PDF is assessed using the PDF4LHC15 eigenvector decomposition [102]. The full difference between the results from the nominal PDF and the varied PDF is taken and symmetrised for each of the 30 eigenvectors. The quadrature sum of all result variations is quoted in Table 2.
- h_{damp} setting: The h_{damp} parameter is a resummation damping factor and one of the parameters that controls the matching of Powheg Box matrix elements to the parton shower and thus effectively regulates the high- p_{T} radiation against which the $t\bar{t}$ system recoils. The systematic uncertainty due

to the chosen value of the h_{damp} parameter is assessed by comparing the nominal Powheg+Pythia result with one where the h_{damp} parameter is increased by a factor of two.

• **Top-quark mass**: The effect of the top-quark mass uncertainty is examined by comparing the nominal sample with alternative samples that use $m_t = 172$ or 173 GeV in the simulation.

Systematic uncertainty source	Relative size (for SM D value)
Top-quark decay	1.6%
Parton distribution function	1.2%
Recoil scheme	1.1%
Final-state radiation	1.1%
Scale uncertainties	1.1%
NNLO reweighting	1.1%
pThard setting	0.8%
Top-quark mass	0.7%
Initial-state radiation	0.2%
Parton shower and hadronization	0.2%
$h_{\rm damp}$ setting	0.1%

Table 2: Relative sizes of the signal modeling uncertainties at the SM expectation point $D_{\text{particle}} = -0.47$ for the nominal Powheg Box sample.

A.5.2 Object systematic uncertainties

Systematic uncertainties which originate from the uncertainty in the detector response to the objects used in the analysis are estimated.

- Electrons: The systematic uncertainties considered for electrons arise mainly from uncertainties in their trigger, reconstruction, identification, and isolation efficiencies, and are estimated using tagand-probe measurements in Z and J/ψ decays [50, 103]. Electron-related systematic uncertainties have a negligible impact on the final measurement, with a total contribution of about 0.2%.
- Muons: The systematic uncertainties considered for muons arise from uncertainties in their trigger, identification, and isolation efficiencies, and their energy scale and resolution, and are estimated using tag-and-probe measurements in Z and J/ψ decays [51–53]. Muon-related systematic uncertainties have a negligible impact on the final measurement, with a total contribution of about 0.3%.
- **Jets:** The systematic uncertainties associated with jets are separated into those related to the jet-energy scale and resolution (JES and JER) [54] and those related to the jet-vertex tagger (JVT) algorithm [58]. The JES (JER) uncertainty consists of 31 (13) individual components that are added in quadrature with the JVT uncertainty to obtain the total jet uncertainty. The largest contribution from a single source is 0.2%.
- **b-tagging:** The estimation of these uncertainties is described in Ref. [104]. A total of 17 independent systematic variations are considered: 9 related to *b*-hadrons, 4 related to *c*-hadrons, and 4 related to light-jet misidentification. In addition, two high- p_T extrapolation uncertainties are taken into account. The largest contribution from a single systematic variation is 0.4%.

- $E_{\mathrm{T}}^{\mathrm{miss}}$: All object-based uncertainties are fully correlated with the reconstruction of the event's $E_{\mathrm{T}}^{\mathrm{miss}}$ object, the magnitude of the $\vec{p}_{\mathrm{T}}^{\mathrm{miss}}$ vector. However, there are some uncertainties specific to the reconstruction of $E_{\mathrm{T}}^{\mathrm{miss}}$ which concern soft tracks not matched to leptons or jets. These uncertainties are divided into parallel and perpendicular response components as well as a scale uncertainty [60]. These have a negligible effect on the measurement.
- **Pile-up:** The effect of pile-up was modeled by overlaying the simulated hard-scattering events with inelastic *pp* events. In order to assess the systematic uncertainty due to pile-up, the reweighing performed to match simulation to data is varied within its uncertainty [58]. The resulting uncertainty has an effect of less than 0.1%.
- Luminosity: The luminosity uncertainty only changes the normalization of the signal and background samples. The value of D is calculated from the normalized $\cos \varphi$ distribution and therefore is not affected by varying the sample normalization. However, the total expected statistical uncertainty can be affected by the luminosity uncertainty. This analysis uses the latest integrated luminosity estimate of 140.1 ± 1.2 fb⁻¹ [105]. Its uncertainty affects the measurement by less than 0.1%.

A.5.3 Background modeling systematic uncertainties

Background events are a relatively small source of uncertainty in this measurement since the event selection and top-quark reconstruction, especially the $m_{t\bar{t}}$ constraint, tend to suppress them. The uncertainties and their sources are listed in the following.

- Single top quark: Two uncertainties are considered for the single-top quark background: a cross-section uncertainty of 5.3% based on the NNLO cross-section uncertainty [79], and an uncertainty for the choice of scheme used to remove higher-order diagrams that overlap with the $t\bar{t}$ process. For the latter, the nominal Powheg+Pythia sample, generated with the diagram-removal scheme [77], was compared with an alternative sample generated using the diagram-subtraction scheme [67, 77]. The cross-section uncertainty has a 0.4% effect on the measurement, whereas the choice of diagram scheme has less than a 0.1% effect on the measurement.
- $t\bar{t} + X$: A normalization uncertainty is considered for each of the $t\bar{t} + X$ backgrounds: a cross-section uncertainty of $^{+10\%}_{-12\%}$ for $t\bar{t} + Z$, and $^{+13\%}_{-12\%}$ for $t\bar{t} + W$. Both are based on the NLO cross-section uncertainty derived from renormalization and factorization scale variations and PDF uncertainties in the matrix element calculation. These uncertainties have a negligible effect on the measurement, since the $t\bar{t} + X$ processes make a very small contribution in the signal region.
- **Diboson:** A normalization uncertainty of $\pm 10\%$ is considered for the diboson process to account for the difference between the NLO precision of the Sherpa event generator and precision of the theoretical cross-sections calculated to NNLO in QCD with NLO EW corrections. This simple K-factor approach is taken, rather than a more elaborate prescription, because the diboson background is small and the phase space selected by the analysis ($m_{t\bar{t}} < 380 \text{ GeV}$) is unlikely to be sensitive to shape effects in the EW corrections, typically observed in high- p_T tails. This uncertainty has less than a 0.1% effect on the measurement.
- $Z \rightarrow \tau \tau$: A conservative cross-section uncertainty of $\pm 20\%$ is applied to the $Z \rightarrow \tau \tau$ background in order to account for the uncertainty in the cross-section prediction (which is significantly smaller than this variation) as well as to account for some mismodeling of the rate of associated heavy-flavor production, which is typically seen in ee and $\mu\mu$ dileptonic $t\bar{t}$ analyses and was estimated to be

a 5% (3%) effect in previous iterations of this analysis that included the ee ($\mu\mu$) channel. This assumption is conservative as it is not possible to isolate a pure $Z \to \tau\tau$ control region in which to estimate this effect, and therefore additional lepton-flavor-related effects present in the ee and $\mu\mu$ channels are also being included. This uncertainty has a noticeable impact on the final measurement, becoming the largest background-related uncertainty. It becomes large, despite this background being relatively small, because the reconstruction-level $Z \to \tau\tau$ cos φ distribution is quite flat and therefore subtracting even a relatively small amount of $Z \to \tau\tau$ background can noticeably affect the mean of the overall $\cos\varphi$ distribution and therefore the D observable. This uncertainty has an impact of 1.5% on the measurement.

• Fake and non-prompt leptons: A normalization uncertainty of ±50% is assigned to account for the uncertainty in the total yield of fake or non-prompt leptons in the signal region compared to the same-sign control region in order to ensure adequate coverage for our understanding of the rates of these types of events. It is a conservative uncertainty based on the observed level of data–MC agreement in the same-sign region. The uncertainty has only a 0.1% effect on the final measurement.

The majority of systematic uncertainties that are considered are inconsequential to the measurement, and the dominant systematic uncertainties arise mostly from the signal modeling and the $Z \to \tau\tau$ cross-section uncertainty. These findings are true for the validation regions as well.

A.6 Parton shower and hadronization effects

The studies described in the following were performed to gain a more detailed understanding of why the different parton-shower and hadronization algorithms yield different values for the entanglement- and spin-correlation-related observables. The nominal MC sample was produced with the NLO matrix element implemented in Powheg Box (hvq). The four-momenta produced with Powheg Box were interfaced with either Pythia or Herwig for the parton shower, hadronization and underlying-event model.

At parton level, the two predictions are nearly identical, while at the stable-particle and detector levels the two predictions show larger differences in the shape of the $\cos \varphi$ distributions. A parton-level measurement would therefore suffer from the ambiguity in $\cos \varphi$, while the particle-level measurement presented in this paper does not. An extensive suite of studies was performed to understand the origin of this difference.

Apart from using different parameter-tuning strategies, there are two main differences between the two parton-shower algorithms: their hadronization model and the shower ordering. While Pythia is based on the Lund string model and uses a $p_{\rm T}$ -ordered dipole shower [106–108], Herwig is based on a cluster model and uses an angular-ordered shower as the default [109].

A comparison between MC simulations with different hadronization models has shown that these have a negligible effect on the $\cos \varphi$ distribution, both when not placing a cut on $m_{t\bar{t}}$ and when using a smaller part of phase space close to the signal region of the analysis, with $m_{t\bar{t}} < 380$ GeV. Instead, most of the differences seem to originate from the different orderings in the parton shower. To illustrate this, different event generator setups were used for simulation and the corresponding $\cos \varphi$ distributions were compared at particle level. The $\cos \varphi$ distributions for the Powheg+Pythia and Powheg+Herwig samples used in the analysis are shown in Figure 4(a), together with distributions for two different setups of Herwig 7 in Figure 4(b). In these setups, Herwig 7 was used both for the production of the $t\bar{t}$ events and for the parton shower, hadronization and underlying event. The samples were produced at LO, using either a dipole shower or an angular-ordered shower. All distributions are normalized to unity. A difference of up to 6%

is observed when examining the ratio of Powheg+Herwig to Powheg+Pythia distributions. The same behavior is observed when comparing the two different showering orders for Herwig.

The similarities between the samples used in this analysis and the Herwig samples with different showering orders implies that the ordering of the shower is the main cause of the observed differences. It has to be noted, however, that Powheg does not pass the spin correlation information to the parton shower algorithms, while this is done in the LO Herwig setup used to study these hadronisation effects.

These findings lead to the conclusion that performing the measurement at particle level is more attractive, since the overall uncertainties are smaller. In the validation regions, the level of agreement between either Powheg+Pythia or Powheg+Herwig and the data is similar. Since the measurement is performed at the stable-particle level, the parton-level prediction for the entanglement limit was folded to the particle level as well, using a special calibration curve for this step. The prediction for the entanglement limit with Powheg+Herwig is further away from the data measurement than the one for Powheg+Pythia. This difference is not symmetrized. All uncertainties in the Powheg+Pythia prediction itself are folded to particle level as well and are included in the grey uncertainty band in Figure 2.

The procedure used in MC event generators to combine the matrix element with a parton-shower algorithm requires special attention in future higher-precision quantum information studies at the LHC.

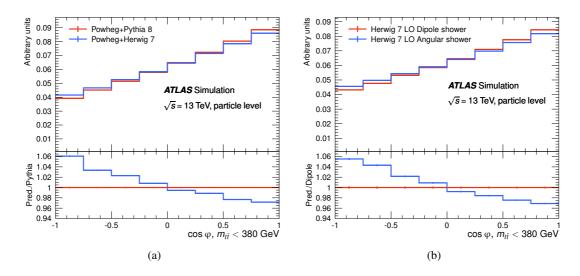


Figure 4: Comparison between $\cos \varphi$ distributions in the signal region with $m_{t\bar{t}} < 380$ GeV for different MC event generator setups at stable-particle level. Figure (a) compares events simulated with Powheg Box which are interfaced with either Pythia (red line, $p_{\rm T}$ -ordered dipole shower) or Herwig (blue line, angular-ordered shower) while figure (b) compares events simulated with Herwig using either a dipole-ordered shower (red line) or an angular-ordered shower (blue line).

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The ATLAS Collaboration

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G. Aad 10102, B. Abbott 10120, K. Abeling 1055, N.J. Abicht 1049, S.H. Abidi 1029, A. Aboulhorma 1035e,
H. Abramowicz 151, H. Abreu 150, Y. Abulaiti 117, B.S. Acharya 169a,69b,n, C. Adam Bourdarios 4,
L. Adamczyk 686a, S.V. Addepalli 626, M.J. Addison 6101, J. Adelman 6115, A. Adiguzel 621c,
T. Adye 134, A.A. Affolder 136, Y. Afik 39, M.N. Agaras 13, J. Agarwala 73a,73b, A. Aggarwal 100,
C. Agheorghiesei \bigcirc^{27c}, A. Ahmad \bigcirc^{36}, F. Ahmadov \bigcirc^{38,aa}, W.S. Ahmed \bigcirc^{104}, S. Ahuja \bigcirc^{95}, X. Ai \bigcirc^{62e},
G. Aielli 676a,76b, A. Aikot 6163, M. Ait Tamlihat 635e, B. Aitbenchikh 635a, I. Aizenberg 6169,
M. Akbiyik ^{100}, T.P.A. Åkesson ^{109}, A.V. Akimov ^{1037}, D. Akiyama ^{168}, N.N. Akolkar ^{1024},
S. Aktas (D<sup>21a</sup>, K. Al Khoury (D<sup>41</sup>, G.L. Alberghi (D<sup>23b</sup>, J. Albert (D<sup>165</sup>, P. Albicocco (D<sup>53</sup>, G.L. Albouy (D<sup>60</sup>),
S. Alderweireldt <sup>652</sup>, Z.L. Alegria <sup>6121</sup>, M. Aleksa <sup>636</sup>, I.N. Aleksandrov <sup>638</sup>, C. Alexa <sup>627b</sup>,
T. Alexopoulos (10, F. Alfonsi (123b), M. Algren (156, M. Alhroob (120, B. Ali (132), H.M.J. Ali (1991),
S. Ali 6148, S.W. Alibocus 692, M. Aliev 633c, G. Alimonti 671a, W. Alkakhi 655, C. Allaire 666,
B.M.M. Allbrooke <sup>146</sup>, J.F. Allen <sup>52</sup>, C.A. Allendes Flores <sup>137f</sup>, P.P. Allport <sup>20</sup>, A. Aloisio <sup>72a,72b</sup>,
F. Alonso 690, C. Alpigiani 6138, M. Alvarez Estevez 699, A. Alvarez Fernandez 6100,
M. Alves Cardoso 656, M.G. Alviggi 672a,72b, M. Aly 6101, Y. Amaral Coutinho 83b, A. Ambler 6104,
C. Amelung<sup>36</sup>, M. Amerl <sup>101</sup>, C.G. Ames <sup>109</sup>, D. Amidei <sup>106</sup>, S.P. Amor Dos Santos <sup>130</sup>a,
K.R. Amos 163, V. Ananiev 125, C. Anastopoulos 139, T. Andeen 11, J.K. Anders 136,
S.Y. Andrean (D<sup>47a,47b</sup>), A. Andreazza (D<sup>71a,71b</sup>), S. Angelidakis (D<sup>9</sup>), A. Angerami (D<sup>41,ad</sup>),
A.V. Anisenkov (1037), A. Annovi (1074a), C. Antel (1056), M.T. Anthony (10139), E. Antipov (10145),
M. Antonelli 653, F. Anulli 675a, M. Aoki 684, T. Aoki 6153, J.A. Aparisi Pozo 6163, M.A. Aparo 6146,
L. Aperio Bella 648, C. Appelt 618, A. Apyan 626, S.J. Arbiol Val 687, C. Arcangeletti 653,
A.T.H. Arce <sup>1051</sup>, E. Arena <sup>1092</sup>, J-F. Arguin <sup>10108</sup>, S. Argyropoulos <sup>1054</sup>, J.-H. Arling <sup>1048</sup>, O. Arnaez <sup>1048</sup>,
H. Arnold © 114, G. Artoni © 75a,75b, H. Asada © 111, K. Asai © 118, S. Asai © 153, N.A. Asbah © 61,
K. Assamagan <sup>©29</sup>, R. Astalos <sup>©28a</sup>, S. Atashi <sup>©159</sup>, R.J. Atkin <sup>©33a</sup>, M. Atkinson <sup>162</sup>, H. Atmani <sup>35f</sup>,
P.A. Atmasiddha (D<sup>128</sup>, K. Augsten (D<sup>132</sup>, S. Auricchio (D<sup>72a,72b</sup>, A.D. Auriol (D<sup>20</sup>, V.A. Austrup (D<sup>101</sup>),
G. Avolio 636, K. Axiotis 556, G. Azuelos 6108, h. D. Babal 628b, H. Bachacou 6135, K. Bachas 6152, r.
A. Bachiu •34, F. Backman •47a,47b, A. Badea •39, T.M. Baer •106, P. Bagnaia •75a,75b,
M. Bahmani (D18), D. Bahner (D54), A.J. Bailey (D163), V.R. Bailey (D162), J.T. Baines (D134), L. Baines (D94),
O.K. Baker 172, E. Bakos 15, D. Bakshi Gupta 8, V. Balakrishnan 120, R. Balasubramanian 114,
E.M. Baldin (5)37, P. Balek (5)86a, E. Ballabene (5)23b,23a, F. Balli (5)135, L.M. Baltes (5)63a, W.K. Balunas (5)32,
J. Balz 100, E. Banas 187, M. Bandieramonte 129, A. Bandyopadhyay 124, S. Bansal 124,
L. Barak (151), M. Barakat (148), E.L. Barberio (105), D. Barberis (157), M. Barbero (102),
M.Z. Barel 114, K.N. Barends 33a, T. Barillari 110, M-S. Barisits 36, T. Barklow 143, P. Baron 122,
D.A. Baron Moreno (b101), A. Baroncelli (b62a), G. Barone (b29), A.J. Barr (b126), J.D. Barr (b96),
F. Barreiro (1999), J. Barreiro Guimarães da Costa (1914a), U. Barron (19151), M.G. Barros Teixeira (19130a),
S. Barsov ^{\odot 37}, F. Bartels ^{\odot 63a}, R. Bartoldus ^{\odot 143}, A.E. Barton ^{\odot 91}, P. Bartos ^{\odot 28a}, A. Basan ^{\odot 100},
M. Baselga <sup>1049</sup>, A. Bassalat <sup>1066,b</sup>, M.J. Basso <sup>10156a</sup>, C.R. Basson <sup>1010</sup>, R.L. Bates <sup>1059</sup>, S. Batlamous <sup>35e</sup>,
J.R. Batley (1032), B. Batool (10141), M. Battaglia (10136), D. Battulga (1018), M. Bauce (1075a,75b), M. Bauer (1036),
P. Bauer (5<sup>24</sup>, L.T. Bazzano Hurrell (5<sup>30</sup>, J.B. Beacham (5<sup>51</sup>, T. Beau (5<sup>127</sup>, J.Y. Beaucamp (5<sup>90</sup>, P.H. Beauchemin (5<sup>158</sup>, P. Bechtle (5<sup>24</sup>, H.P. Beck (5<sup>19,q</sup>, K. Becker (5<sup>167</sup>, A.J. Beddall (5<sup>82</sup>,
V.A. Bednyakov <sup>©38</sup>, C.P. Bee <sup>©145</sup>, L.J. Beemster <sup>15</sup>, T.A. Beermann <sup>©36</sup>, M. Begalli <sup>©83d</sup>, M. Begel <sup>©29</sup>,
A. Behera <sup>145</sup>, J.K. Behr <sup>48</sup>, J.F. Beirer <sup>36</sup>, F. Beisiegel <sup>24</sup>, M. Belfkir <sup>116b</sup>, G. Bella <sup>151</sup>,
L. Bellagamba (D<sup>23b</sup>, A. Bellerive (D<sup>34</sup>, P. Bellos (D<sup>20</sup>, K. Beloborodov (D<sup>37</sup>, D. Benchekroun (D<sup>35a</sup>,
F. Bendebba (^{035a}, Y. Benhammou (^{0151}, L. Beresford (^{048}, M. Beretta (^{053}, E. Bergeaas Kuutmann (^{0161},
N. Berger <sup>64</sup>, B. Bergmann <sup>6132</sup>, J. Beringer <sup>617a</sup>, G. Bernardi <sup>65</sup>, C. Bernius <sup>6143</sup>,
```

```
F.U. Bernlochner (D<sup>24</sup>, F. Bernon (D<sup>36,102</sup>, A. Berrocal Guardia (D<sup>13</sup>, T. Berry (D<sup>95</sup>, P. Berta (D<sup>133</sup>),
A. Berthold 650, I.A. Bertram 691, S. Bethke 6110, A. Betti 675a,75b, A.J. Bevan 694, N.K. Bhalla 654,
M. Bhamjee 633c, S. Bhatta 6145, D.S. Bhattacharya 6166, P. Bhattarai 6143, K.D. Bhide 654,
V.S. Bhopatkar (D121), R.M. Bianchi (D129), G. Bianco (D23b,23a), O. Biebel (D109), R. Bielski (D123),
M. Biglietti (1077a), C.S. Billingsley<sup>44</sup>, M. Bindi (1055), A. Bingul (1021b), C. Bini (1075a,75b), A. Biondini (1092),
C.J. Birch-sykes (101), G.A. Bird (132,134), M. Birman (169), M. Biros (133), S. Biryukov (146),
T. Bisanz (D<sup>49</sup>, E. Bisceglie (D<sup>43b,43a</sup>, J.P. Biswal (D<sup>134</sup>, D. Biswas (D<sup>141</sup>, K. Bjørke (D<sup>125</sup>, I. Bloch (D<sup>48</sup>),
A. Blue <sup>659</sup>, U. Blumenschein <sup>694</sup>, J. Blumenthal <sup>6100</sup>, G.J. Bobbink <sup>6114</sup>, V.S. Bobrovnikov <sup>637</sup>,
M. Boehler <sup>©54</sup>, B. Boehm <sup>©166</sup>, D. Bogavac <sup>©36</sup>, A.G. Bogdanchikov <sup>©37</sup>, C. Bohm <sup>©47a</sup>,
V. Boisvert (1995), P. Bokan (1936), T. Bold (1986a), M. Bomben (1956), M. Bona (1994), M. Boonekamp (19135),
C.D. Booth 695, A.G. Borbély 659, I.S. Bordulev 637, H.M. Borecka-Bielska 6108, G. Borissov 691,
D. Bortoletto 6126, D. Boscherini 623b, M. Bosman 613, J.D. Bossio Sola 636, K. Bouaouda 635a,
N. Bouchhar 163, J. Boudreau 129, E.V. Bouhova-Thacker 191, D. Boumediene 140, R. Bouquet 165,
A. Boveia 6119, J. Boyd 636, D. Boye 629, I.R. Boyko 638, J. Bracinik 620, N. Brahimi 62d,
G. Brandt (171), O. Brandt (132), F. Braren (148), B. Brau (1013), J.E. Brau (123), R. Brener (1169),
L. Brenner 114, R. Brenner 161, S. Bressler 169, D. Britton 159, D. Britzger 110, I. Brock 124,
G. Brooijmans <sup>64</sup>, W.K. Brooks <sup>6137f</sup>, E. Brost <sup>629</sup>, L.M. Brown <sup>6165</sup>, L.E. Bruce <sup>661</sup>,
T.L. Bruckler (126), P.A. Bruckman de Renstrom (187), B. Brüers (148), A. Bruni (123b), G. Bruni (125b),
M. Bruschi (10<sup>23b</sup>, N. Bruscino (10<sup>75a,75b</sup>, T. Buanes (10<sup>16</sup>, Q. Buat (10<sup>138</sup>, D. Buchin (10<sup>110</sup>, A.G. Buckley (10<sup>59</sup>),
O. Bulekov \bigcirc^{37}, B.A. Bullard \bigcirc^{143}, S. Burdin \bigcirc^{92}, C.D. Burgard \bigcirc^{49}, A.M. Burger \bigcirc^{36},
B. Burghgrave <sup>68</sup>, O. Burlayenko <sup>654</sup>, J.T.P. Burr <sup>632</sup>, C.D. Burton <sup>611</sup>, J.C. Burzvnski <sup>6142</sup>.
E.L. Busch 641, V. Büscher 6100, P.J. Bussey 659, J.M. Butler 625, C.M. Buttar 659,
J.M. Butterworth <sup>696</sup>, W. Buttinger <sup>6134</sup>, C.J. Buxo Vazquez <sup>6107</sup>, A.R. Buzykaev <sup>637</sup>,
S. Cabrera Urbán (163), L. Cadamuro (166), D. Caforio (158), H. Cai (129), Y. Cai (14a,14e), Y. Cai (14c),
V.M.M. Cairo (D<sup>36</sup>, O. Cakir (D<sup>3a</sup>, N. Calace (D<sup>36</sup>, P. Calafiura (D<sup>17a</sup>, G. Calderini (D<sup>127</sup>, P. Calfayan (D<sup>68</sup>),
G. Callea 659, L.P. Caloba<sup>83b</sup>, D. Calvet 640, S. Calvet 640, M. Calvetti 674a,74b, R. Camacho Toro 6127,
S. Camarda 636, D. Camarero Munoz 626, P. Camarri 676a,76b, M.T. Camerlingo 672a,72b,
D. Cameron <sup>1036</sup>, C. Camincher <sup>10165</sup>, M. Campanelli <sup>1096</sup>, A. Camplani <sup>1042</sup>, V. Canale <sup>1072a,72b</sup>,
J. Cantero (163), Y. Cao (162), F. Capocasa (164), M. Capua (164), A. Carbone (167), A. Carbone (167),
R. Cardarelli 676a, J.C.J. Cardenas 8, F. Cardillo 6163, G. Carducci 643b,43a, T. Carli 636,
G. Carlino (D<sup>72a</sup>, J.I. Carlotto (D<sup>13</sup>, B.T. Carlson (D<sup>129,s</sup>, E.M. Carlson (D<sup>165,156a</sup>, L. Carminati (D<sup>71a,71b</sup>).
A. Carnelli (135), M. Carnesale (175a,75b), S. Caron (113), E. Carquin (137f), S. Carrá (171a,71b),
G. Carratta (D<sup>23b,23a</sup>, A.M. Carroll (D<sup>123</sup>, J.W.S. Carter (D<sup>155</sup>, T.M. Carter (D<sup>52</sup>, M.P. Casado (D<sup>13,i</sup>,
M. Caspar (D<sup>48</sup>, F.L. Castillo (D<sup>4</sup>, L. Castillo Garcia (D<sup>13</sup>), V. Castillo Gimenez (D<sup>163</sup>, N.F. Castro (D<sup>130a,130e</sup>).
A. Catinaccio (D<sup>36</sup>, J.R. Catmore (D<sup>125</sup>, T. Cavaliere (D<sup>4</sup>, V. Cavaliere (D<sup>29</sup>, N. Cavalli (D<sup>23b,23a</sup>,
V. Cavasinni ©<sup>74a,74b</sup>, Y.C. Cekmecelioglu ©<sup>48</sup>, E. Celebi ©<sup>21a</sup>, F. Celli ©<sup>126</sup>, M.S. Centonze ©<sup>70a,70b</sup>,
V. Cepaitis <sup>56</sup>, K. Cerny <sup>122</sup>, A.S. Cerqueira <sup>83a</sup>, A. Cerri <sup>146</sup>, L. Cerrito <sup>76a,76b</sup>, F. Cerutti <sup>17a</sup>,
B. Cervato 141, A. Cervelli 23b, G. Cesarini 53, S.A. Cetin 82, D. Chakraborty 115, J. Chan 170,
W.Y. Chan 6153, J.D. Chapman 632, E. Chapon 6135, B. Chargeishvili 6149b, D.G. Charlton 620,
M. Chatterjee 19, C. Chauhan 133, Y. Che 14c, S. Chekanov 6, S.V. Chekulaev 156a,
G.A. Chelkov (D<sup>38</sup>,a), A. Chen (D<sup>106</sup>, B. Chen (D<sup>151</sup>, B. Chen (D<sup>165</sup>, H. Chen (D<sup>14c</sup>, H. Chen (D<sup>29</sup>),
J. Chen 62c, J. Chen 142, M. Chen 126, S. Chen 153, S.J. Chen 14c, X. Chen 162c, 135,
X. Chen (14b, ag, Y. Chen (16a, C.L. Cheng (170), H.C. Cheng (16a, S. Cheong (16a, A. Cheplakov (16a, S. Cheong (16a, A. Cheplakov (16a, S. Cheong (16a, S. Ch
E. Cheremushkina <sup>648</sup>, E. Cherepanova <sup>6114</sup>, R. Cherkaoui El Moursli <sup>635e</sup>, E. Cheu <sup>67</sup>, K. Cheung <sup>65</sup>,
L. Chevalier 135, V. Chiarella 53, G. Chiarelli 74a, N. Chiedde 112, G. Chiodini 70a,
A.S. Chisholm <sup>©20</sup>, A. Chitan <sup>©27b</sup>, M. Chitishvili <sup>©163</sup>, M.V. Chizhov <sup>©38</sup>, K. Choi <sup>©11</sup>, Y. Chou <sup>©138</sup>,
E.Y.S. Chow 6113, K.L. Chu<sup>169</sup>, M.C. Chu 64a, X. Chu 614a, 14e, J. Chudoba 6131, J.J. Chwastowski 687,
```

```
D. Cieri 10110, K.M. Ciesla 1086a, V. Cindro 1093, A. Ciocio 1017a, F. Cirotto 1072a,72b, Z.H. Citron 10169,1,
M. Citterio (D<sup>71a</sup>, D.A. Ciubotaru<sup>27b</sup>, A. Clark (D<sup>56</sup>, P.J. Clark (D<sup>52</sup>, C. Clarry (D<sup>155</sup>),
J.M. Clavijo Columbie <sup>648</sup>, S.E. Clawson <sup>648</sup>, C. Clement <sup>647a,47b</sup>, J. Clercx <sup>648</sup>, Y. Coadou <sup>6102</sup>,
M. Cobal 69a,69c, A. Coccaro 57b, R.F. Coelho Barrue 130a, R. Coelho Lopes De Sa 10103,
S. Coelli <sup>1071a</sup>, B. Cole <sup>1041</sup>, J. Collot <sup>1060</sup>, P. Conde Muiño <sup>130a,130g</sup>, M.P. Connell <sup>1033c</sup>.
S.H. Connell <sup>33c</sup>, I.A. Connelly <sup>59</sup>, E.I. Conroy <sup>126</sup>, F. Conventi <sup>72a,ai</sup>, H.G. Cooke <sup>20</sup>,
A.M. Cooper-Sarkar (126), A. Cordeiro Oudot Choi (127), L.D. Corpe (140), M. Corradi (175a,75b),
F. Corriveau ©104,y, A. Cortes-Gonzalez ©18, M.J. Costa ©163, F. Costanza ©4, D. Costanzo ©139,
B.M. Cote 119, G. Cowan 95, K. Cranmer 170, D. Cremonini 23b,23a, S. Crépé-Renaudin 66,
F. Crescioli 127, M. Cristinziani 141, M. Cristoforetti 78a,78b, V. Croft 114, J.E. Crosby 121,
G. Crosetti 643b,43a, A. Cueto 699, T. Cuhadar Donszelmann 6159, H. Cui 614a,14e, Z. Cui 67,
W.R. Cunningham <sup>©59</sup>, F. Curcio <sup>©43b,43a</sup>, P. Czodrowski <sup>©36</sup>, M.M. Czurylo <sup>©63b</sup>,
M.J. Da Cunha Sargedas De Sousa 657b,57a, J.V. Da Fonseca Pinto 683b, C. Da Via 6101,
W. Dabrowski 686a, T. Dado 649, S. Dahbi 633g, T. Dai 6106, D. Dal Santo 619, C. Dallapiccola 6103,
M. Dam (b42, G. D'amen (b29, V. D'Amico (b109, J. Damp (b100, J.R. Dandoy (b34, M. Danninger (b142,
V. Dao 636, G. Darbo 6576, S. Darmora 66, S.J. Das 629, ak, S. D'Auria 671a, 716, C. David 633a,
T. Davidek 133, B. Davis-Purcell 34, I. Dawson 94, H.A. Day-hall 132, K. De 8,
R. De Asmundis <sup>1072a</sup>, N. De Biase <sup>1048</sup>, S. De Castro <sup>1023b,23a</sup>, N. De Groot <sup>1113</sup>, P. de Jong <sup>1114</sup>,
H. De la Torre (115), A. De Maria (14c), A. De Salvo (175a), U. De Sanctis (176a,76b), F. De Santis (170a,70b),
A. De Santo 6146, J.B. De Vivie De Regie 60, D.V. Dedovich38, J. Degens 6114, A.M. Deiana 644,
F. Del Corso (D<sup>23b,23a</sup>, J. Del Peso (D<sup>99</sup>, F. Del Rio (D<sup>63a</sup>, L. Delagrange (D<sup>127</sup>, F. Deliot (D<sup>135</sup>),
C.M. Delitzsch <sup>1049</sup>, M. Della Pietra <sup>1072a,72b</sup>, D. Della Volpe <sup>1056</sup>, A. Dell'Acqua <sup>1036</sup>,
L. Dell'Asta 671a,71b, M. Delmastro 64, P.A. Delsart 660, S. Demers 6172, M. Demichev 638,
S.P. Denisov 637, L. D'Eramo 640, D. Derendarz 687, F. Derue 6127, P. Dervan 692, K. Desch 624,
C. Deutsch 624, F.A. Di Bello 57b,57a, A. Di Ciaccio 76a,76b, L. Di Ciaccio 64,
A. Di Domenico (10,75a,75b), C. Di Donato (10,72a,72b), A. Di Girolamo (10,36), G. Di Gregorio (10,36),
A. Di Luca <sup>1078a,78b</sup>, B. Di Micco <sup>1077a,77b</sup>, R. Di Nardo <sup>1077a,77b</sup>, M. Diamantopoulou <sup>1034</sup>, F.A. Dias <sup>1014</sup>,
T. Dias Do Vale (10)142, M.A. Diaz (10)137a,137b, F.G. Diaz Capriles (10)24, M. Didenko (10)163, E.B. Diehl (10)106,
L. Diehl 654, S. Díez Cornell 648, C. Diez Pardos 6141, C. Dimitriadi 6161,24, A. Dimitrievska 617a,
J. Dingfelder 624, I-M. Dinu 6276, S.J. Dittmeier 636, F. Dittus 636, F. Djama 6102, T. Djobava 61496,
C. Doglioni (101,98), A. Dohnalova (128a), J. Dolejsi (133), Z. Dolezal (133), K.M. Dona (139),
M. Donadelli <sup>1083c</sup>, B. Dong <sup>107</sup>, J. Donini <sup>1040</sup>, A. D'Onofrio <sup>1072a,72b</sup>, M. D'Onofrio <sup>1092</sup>,
J. Dopke <sup>134</sup>, A. Doria <sup>72a</sup>, N. Dos Santos Fernandes <sup>130a</sup>, P. Dougan <sup>101</sup>, M.T. Dova <sup>199</sup>, A.T. Doyle <sup>59</sup>, M.A. Draguet <sup>126</sup>, E. Dreyer <sup>169</sup>, I. Drivas-koulouris <sup>100</sup>, M. Drnevich <sup>117</sup>,
M. Drozdova 656, D. Du 62a, T.A. du Pree 6114, F. Dubinin 637, M. Dubovsky 628a, E. Duchovni 6169,
G. Duckeck 109, O.A. Ducu 127b, D. Duda 152, A. Dudarev 136, E.R. Duden 1526, M. D'uffizi 15101,
L. Duflot 66, M. Dührssen 36, A.E. Dumitriu 627b, M. Dunford 63a, S. Dungs 649, K. Dunne 647a,47b,
A. Duperrin <sup>10102</sup>, H. Duran Yildiz <sup>103a</sup>, M. Düren <sup>1058</sup>, A. Durglishvili <sup>10149b</sup>, B.L. Dwyer <sup>10115</sup>,
G.I. Dyckes © 17a, M. Dyndal © 86a, B.S. Dziedzic © 87, Z.O. Earnshaw © 146, G.H. Eberwein © 126,
B. Eckerova <sup>©28a</sup>, S. Eggebrecht <sup>©55</sup>, E. Egidio Purcino De Souza <sup>©127</sup>, L.F. Ehrke <sup>©56</sup>, G. Eigen <sup>©16</sup>,
K. Einsweiler 17a, T. Ekelof 161, P.A. Ekman 98, S. El Farkh 35b, Y. El Ghazali 35b,
H. El Jarrari <sup>©36</sup>, A. El Moussaouy <sup>©108</sup>, V. Ellajosyula <sup>©161</sup>, M. Ellert <sup>©161</sup>, F. Ellinghaus <sup>©171</sup>,
N. Ellis (1)36, J. Elmsheuser (1)29, M. Elsing (1)36, D. Emeliyanov (1)134, Y. Enari (1)153, I. Ene (1)17a,
S. Epari 1013, P.A. Erland 1087, M. Errenst 10171, M. Escalier 1066, C. Escobar 10163, E. Etzion 10151,
G. Evans (D130a), H. Evans (D68), L.S. Evans (D95), M.O. Evans (D146), A. Ezhilov (D37), S. Ezzarqtouni (D35a),
F. Fabbri (D<sup>59</sup>, L. Fabbri (D<sup>23b,23a</sup>, G. Facini (D<sup>96</sup>, V. Fadeyev (D<sup>136</sup>, R.M. Fakhrutdinov (D<sup>37</sup>,
D. Fakoudis 100, S. Falciano 75a, L.F. Falda Ulhoa Coelho 36, P.J. Falke 24, J. Faltova 133,
```

```
C. Fan 6162, Y. Fan 614a, Y. Fang 614a, 14e, M. Fanti 671a, 71b, M. Faraj 69a, 69b, Z. Farazpay 697,
A. Farbin <sup>68</sup>, A. Farilla <sup>677a</sup>, T. Farooque <sup>6107</sup>, S.M. Farrington <sup>652</sup>, F. Fassi <sup>635e</sup>, D. Fassouliotis <sup>69</sup>,
M. Faucci Giannelli (D<sup>76a,76b</sup>, W.J. Fawcett (D<sup>32</sup>, L. Fayard (D<sup>66</sup>, P. Federic (D<sup>133</sup>, P. Federicova (D<sup>131</sup>),
O.L. Fedin <sup>1037</sup>, a, G. Fedotov <sup>1037</sup>, M. Feickert <sup>10170</sup>, L. Feligioni <sup>10102</sup>, D.E. Fellers <sup>10123</sup>, C. Feng <sup>1062b</sup>,
M. Feng (14b), Z. Feng (114), M.J. Fenton (159), L. Ferencz (148), R.A.M. Ferguson (159),
S.I. Fernandez Luengo <sup>137f</sup>, P. Fernandez Martinez <sup>13</sup>, M.J.V. Fernoux <sup>102</sup>, J. Ferrando <sup>91</sup>,
A. Ferrari (1016), P. Ferrari (1014,113), R. Ferrari (1073a), D. Ferrere (1056), C. Ferretti (10106), F. Fiedler (10100),
P. Fiedler 132, A. Filipčič 93, E.K. Filmer 1, F. Filthaut 113, M.C.N. Fiolhais 130a,130c,c,
L. Fiorini 6163, W.C. Fisher 6107, T. Fitschen 6101, P.M. Fitzhugh 135, I. Fleck 6141, P. Fleischmann 6106,
T. Flick 171, M. Flores 133d,ae, L.R. Flores Castillo 164a, L. Flores Sanz De Acedo 156,
F.M. Follega (D<sup>78a,78b</sup>, N. Fomin (D<sup>16</sup>, J.H. Foo (D<sup>155</sup>, A. Formica (D<sup>135</sup>, A.C. Forti (D<sup>101</sup>, E. Fortin (D<sup>36</sup>,
A.W. Fortman 17a, M.G. Foti 17a, L. Fountas 19,k, D. Fournier 166, H. Fox 19, P. Francavilla 174a, 74b,
S. Francescato <sup>661</sup>, S. Franchellucci <sup>56</sup>, M. Franchini <sup>623b,23a</sup>, S. Franchino <sup>63a</sup>, D. Francis<sup>36</sup>,
L. Franco 113, V. Franco Lima 36, L. Franconi 48, M. Franklin 61, G. Frattari 26,
A.C. Freegard 694, W.S. Freund 683b, Y.Y. Frid 6151, J. Friend 659, N. Fritzsche 650, A. Froch 654,
D. Froidevaux 636, J.A. Frost 6126, Y. Fu 662a, S. Fuenzalida Garrido 6137f, M. Fujimoto 6102,
K.Y. Fung 664a, E. Furtado De Simas Filho 683b, M. Furukawa 6153, J. Fuster 6163, A. Gabrielli 623b,23a,
A. Gabrielli 6155, P. Gadow 636, G. Gagliardi 57b,57a, L.G. Gagnon 17a, E.J. Gallas 126,
B.J. Gallop (D134), K.K. Gan (D119), S. Ganguly (D153), Y. Gao (D52), F.M. Garay Walls (D137a,137b),
B. Garcia<sup>29,ak</sup>, C. García <sup>6</sup> <sup>163</sup>, A. Garcia Alonso <sup>6</sup> <sup>114</sup>, A.G. Garcia Caffaro <sup>6</sup> <sup>172</sup>.
J.E. García Navarro 16163, M. Garcia-Sciveres 1717a, G.L. Gardner 1728, R.W. Gardner 1839,
N. Garelli 6 158, D. Garg 6 80, R.B. Garg 6 143,0, J.M. Gargan 5 2, C.A. Garner 155, C.M. Garvey 6 33a,
P. Gaspar 683b, V.K. Gassmann 158, G. Gaudio 673a, V. Gautam 13, P. Gauzzi 675a,75b, I.L. Gavrilenko 637,
A. Gavrilyuk ^{\circ} C. Gay ^{\circ} C. Gaycken ^{\circ} E.N. Gazis ^{\circ} A.A. Geanta ^{\circ} C.M. Gee ^{\circ} C.M. Gee
A. Gekow<sup>119</sup>, C. Gemme <sup>657b</sup>, M.H. Genest <sup>600</sup>, S. Gentile <sup>675a,75b</sup>, A.D. Gentry <sup>6112</sup>, S. George <sup>695</sup>,
W.F. George <sup>©20</sup>, T. Geralis <sup>©46</sup>, P. Gessinger-Befurt <sup>©36</sup>, M.E. Geyik <sup>©171</sup>, M. Ghani <sup>©167</sup>,
M. Ghneimat \bigcirc^{141}, K. Ghorbanian \bigcirc^{94}, A. Ghosal \bigcirc^{141}, A. Ghosh \bigcirc^{159}, A. Ghosh \bigcirc^{7}, B. Giacobbe \bigcirc^{236},
S. Giagu <sup>1075a,75b</sup>, T. Giani <sup>114</sup>, P. Giannetti <sup>1074a</sup>, A. Giannini <sup>1062a</sup>, S.M. Gibson <sup>1095</sup>, M. Gignac <sup>10136</sup>,
D.T. Gil <sup>686</sup>, A.K. Gilbert <sup>686</sup>a, B.J. Gilbert <sup>641</sup>, D. Gillberg <sup>634</sup>, G. Gilles <sup>6114</sup>, L. Ginabat <sup>6127</sup>,
D.M. Gingrich (D<sup>2</sup>,ah), M.P. Giordani (D<sup>6</sup>9a,69c), P.F. Giraud (D<sup>135</sup>), G. Giugliarelli (D<sup>6</sup>9a,69c), D. Giugni (D<sup>7</sup>1a),
F. Giuli <sup>636</sup>, I. Gkialas <sup>69,k</sup>, L.K. Gladilin <sup>637</sup>, C. Glasman <sup>699</sup>, G.R. Gledhill <sup>6123</sup>, G. Glemža <sup>648</sup>,
M. Glisic<sup>123</sup>, I. Gnesi <sup>©</sup><sup>43b,f</sup>, Y. Go <sup>©</sup><sup>29</sup>, M. Goblirsch-Kolb <sup>©</sup><sup>36</sup>, B. Gocke <sup>©</sup><sup>49</sup>, D. Godin<sup>108</sup>,
B. Gokturk ©<sup>21a</sup>, S. Goldfarb ©<sup>105</sup>, T. Golling ©<sup>56</sup>, M.G.D. Gololo<sup>33g</sup>, D. Golubkov ©<sup>37</sup>,
J.P. Gombas ©107, A. Gomes ©130a,130b, G. Gomes Da Silva ©141, A.J. Gomez Delegido ©163,
R. Gonçalo 130a,130c, L. Gonella 20, A. Gongadze 149c, F. Gonnella 20, J.L. Gonski 41,
R.Y. González Andana 652, S. González de la Hoz 6163, R. Gonzalez Lopez 692,
C. Gonzalez Renteria 617a, M.V. Gonzalez Rodrigues 648, R. Gonzalez Suarez 6161,
S. Gonzalez-Sevilla 656, G.R. Gonzalvo Rodriguez 6163, L. Goossens 636, B. Gorini 636,
E. Gorini <sup>1070a,70b</sup>, A. Gorišek <sup>1093</sup>, T.C. Gosart <sup>10128</sup>, A.T. Goshaw <sup>1051</sup>, M.I. Gostkin <sup>1038</sup>,
S. Goswami <sup>121</sup>, C.A. Gottardo <sup>36</sup>, S.A. Gotz <sup>109</sup>, M. Gouighri <sup>35b</sup>, V. Goumarre <sup>48</sup>,
A.G. Goussiou 138, N. Govender 33c, I. Grabowska-Bold 86a, K. Graham 34, E. Gramstad 125,
S. Grancagnolo (10<sup>70a,70b</sup>, C.M. Grant<sup>1,135</sup>, P.M. Gravila (10<sup>27f</sup>, F.G. Gravili (10<sup>70a,70b</sup>, H.M. Gray (10<sup>17a</sup>,
M. Greco (D<sup>70a,70b</sup>, C. Grefe (D<sup>24</sup>, I.M. Gregor (D<sup>48</sup>, P. Grenier (D<sup>143</sup>, S.G. Grewe (110), C. Grieco (D<sup>13</sup>),
A.A. Grillo 136, K. Grimm 31, S. Grinstein 13, J.-F. Grivaz 66, E. Gross 169,
J. Grosse-Knetter <sup>55</sup>, J.C. Grundy <sup>126</sup>, L. Guan <sup>106</sup>, W. Guan <sup>29</sup>, C. Gubbels <sup>164</sup>,
J.G.R. Guerrero Rojas (1016), G. Guerrieri (1069a,69c), F. Guescini (10110), R. Gugel (1010), J.A.M. Guhit (10106),
A. Guida (18), E. Guilloton (167,134), S. Guindon (18), F. Guo (144,14e), J. Guo (162c), L. Guo (1848),
```

```
Y. Guo 6106, R. Gupta 648, R. Gupta 6129, S. Gurbuz 624, S.S. Gurdasani 654, G. Gustavino 636,
M. Guth 656, P. Gutierrez 6120, L.F. Gutierrez Zagazeta 6128, M. Gutsche 650, C. Gutschow 696,
C. Gwenlan (D126), C.B. Gwilliam (D92), E.S. Haaland (D125), A. Haas (D117), M. Habedank (D48),
C. Haber • 17a, H.K. Hadavand • 8, A. Hadef • 50, S. Hadzic • 110, A.I. Hagan 1, J.J. Hahn • 141, E.H. Haines • 4. Haleem • 166, J. Haley • 121, J.J. Hall • 139, G.D. Hallewell • 102, L. Halser • 19,
K. Hamano (165), M. Hamer (124), G.N. Hamity (152), E.J. Hampshire (195), J. Han (162b), K. Han (162a),
L. Han 614c, L. Han 662a, S. Han 617a, Y.F. Han 6155, K. Hanagaki 684, M. Hance 6136,
D.A. Hangal (D<sup>41</sup>, H. Hanif (D<sup>142</sup>, M.D. Hank (D<sup>128</sup>, J.B. Hansen (D<sup>42</sup>, P.H. Hansen (D<sup>42</sup>, K. Hara (D<sup>157</sup>,
D. Harada <sup>©</sup> <sup>56</sup>, T. Harenberg <sup>©</sup> <sup>171</sup>, S. Harkusha <sup>©</sup> <sup>37</sup>, M.L. Harris <sup>©</sup> <sup>103</sup>, Y.T. Harris <sup>©</sup> <sup>126</sup>, J. Harrison <sup>©</sup> <sup>13</sup>,
N.M. Harrison <sup>119</sup>, P.F. Harrison <sup>167</sup>, N.M. Hartman <sup>110</sup>, N.M. Hartmann <sup>100</sup>, Y. Hasegawa <sup>140</sup>,
R. Hauser \bigcirc^{107}, C.M. Hawkes \bigcirc^{20}, R.J. Hawkings \bigcirc^{36}, Y. Hayashi \bigcirc^{153}, S. Hayashida \bigcirc^{111},
D. Hayden 10, C. Hayes 10, R.L. Hayes 11, C.P. Hays 12, J.M. Hays 10, Hayward 10, Hayward 10, Hayward 10, Hayward 10, L. Hayward 10, Hayward 10, L. Hayward 10, Ha
F. He (1062a), M. He (1014a, 14e), Y. He (10154), Y. He (1048), Y. He (1096), N.B. Heatley (1094), V. Hedberg (1098),
A.L. Heggelund © 125, N.D. Hehir © 94, C. Heidegger © 54, K.K. Heidegger © 54, W.D. Heidorn © 81,
J. Heilman 634, S. Heim 648, T. Heim 617a, J.G. Heinlein 6128, J.J. Heinrich 6123, L. Heinrich 6110, af,
J. Hejbal (131), A. Held (170), S. Hellesund (161), C.M. Helling (164), S. Hellman (170), S. Hellesund (170), T. Helling (170), S. Hellesund (170), T. Helling (170), S. Hellesund (170), T. Helling (170), S. Hellesund (170), S. Hellesund (170), T. Helling (170), S. Hellesund (170), S. H
Y. Hernández Jiménez 1145, L.M. Herrmann 24, T. Herrmann 50, G. Herten 54, R. Hertenberger 109,
L. Hervas 636, M.E. Hesping 6100, N.P. Hessey 6156a, E. Hill 6155, S.J. Hillier 620, J.R. Hinds 6107,
F. Hinterkeuser \mathbb{D}^{24}, M. Hirose \mathbb{D}^{124}, S. Hirose \mathbb{D}^{157}, D. Hirschbuehl \mathbb{D}^{171}, T.G. Hitchings \mathbb{D}^{101},
B. Hiti • <sup>93</sup>, J. Hobbs • <sup>145</sup>, R. Hobincu • <sup>27e</sup>, N. Hod • <sup>169</sup>, M.C. Hodgkinson • <sup>139</sup>, B.H. Hodkinson • <sup>32</sup>, A. Hoecker • <sup>36</sup>, D.D. Hofer • <sup>106</sup>, J. Hofer • <sup>48</sup>, T. Holm • <sup>24</sup>, M. Holzbock • <sup>110</sup>,
L.B.A.H. Hommels (5)32, B.P. Honan (5)101, J. Hong (5)62c, T.M. Hong (5)129, B.H. Hooberman (5)162,
W.H. Hopkins <sup>6</sup>, Y. Horii <sup>111</sup>, S. Hou <sup>148</sup>, A.S. Howard <sup>93</sup>, J. Howarth <sup>59</sup>, J. Hoya <sup>6</sup>,
M. Hrabovsky 122, A. Hrynevich 48, T. Hryn'ova 4, P.J. Hsu 65, S.-C. Hsu 138, Q. Hu 62a,
Y.F. Hu 1014a,14e, S. Huang 1064b, X. Huang 1014c, X. Huang 1014a,14e, Y. Huang 10139, Y. Huang 1014a,
Z. Huang 1010, Z. Hubacek 10132, M. Huebner 1024, F. Huegging 1024, T.B. Huffman 10126, C.A. Hugli 1048,
M. Huhtinen 636, S.K. Huiberts 616, R. Hulsken 6104, N. Huseynov 612, J. Huston 6107, J. Huth 661,
R. Hyneman <sup>143</sup>, G. Iacobucci <sup>56</sup>, G. Iakovidis <sup>29</sup>, I. Ibragimov <sup>141</sup>, L. Iconomidou-Fayard <sup>66</sup>,
J.P. Iddon 636, P. Iengo 672a,72b, R. Iguchi 6153, T. Iizawa 6126, Y. Ikegami 684, N. Ilic 6155,
H. Imam (D<sup>35a</sup>, M. Ince Lezki (D<sup>56</sup>, T. Ingebretsen Carlson (D<sup>47a,47b</sup>, G. Introzzi (D<sup>73a,73b</sup>, M. Iodice (D<sup>77a</sup>,
V. Ippolito (D<sup>75a,75b</sup>, R.K. Irwin (D<sup>92</sup>, M. Ishino (D<sup>153</sup>, W. Islam (D<sup>170</sup>, C. Issever (D<sup>18,48</sup>, S. Istin (D<sup>21a,am</sup>,
H. Ito 168, R. Iuppa 178a,78b, A. Ivina 169, J.M. Izen 1645, V. Izzo 172a, P. Jacka 1731,132, P. Jackson 174, B.P. Jaeger 1742, C.S. Jagfeld 1750, G. Jain 1750, P. Jain 1750, R. Jakobs 1750, T. Jakobs 1750,
J. Jamieson (D<sup>59</sup>, K.W. Janas (D<sup>86a</sup>, M. Javurkova (D<sup>103</sup>, L. Jeanty (D<sup>123</sup>, J. Jejelava (D<sup>149a,ab</sup>, P. Jenni (D<sup>54,g</sup>,
C.E. Jessiman (5)34, C. Jia (5)45, J. Jia (5)145, X. Jia (5)61, X. Jia (5)14a,14e, Z. Jia (5)14c, S. Jiggins (5)48,
J. Jimenez Pena <sup>13</sup>, S. Jin <sup>14c</sup>, A. Jinaru <sup>27b</sup>, O. Jinnouchi <sup>154</sup>, P. Johansson <sup>139</sup>, K.A. Johns <sup>7</sup>,
J.W. Johnson 136, D.M. Jones 32, E. Jones 48, P. Jones 32, R.W.L. Jones 91, T.J. Jones 92,
H.L. Joos 655,36, R. Joshi 6119, J. Jovicevic 615, X. Ju 617a, J.J. Junggeburth 6103, T. Junkermann 663a,
A. Juste Rozas <sup>13,u</sup>, M.K. Juzek <sup>87</sup>, S. Kabana <sup>137e</sup>, A. Kaczmarska <sup>87</sup>, M. Kado <sup>110</sup>,
H. Kagan (D<sup>119</sup>, M. Kagan (D<sup>143</sup>, A. Kahn<sup>41</sup>, A. Kahn (D<sup>128</sup>, C. Kahra (D<sup>100</sup>, T. Kaji (D<sup>153</sup>),
E. Kajomovitz <sup>150</sup>, N. Kakati <sup>169</sup>, I. Kalaitzidou <sup>54</sup>, C.W. Kalderon <sup>29</sup>, A. Kamenshchikov <sup>155</sup>,
N.J. Kang © 136, D. Kar © 33g, K. Karava © 126, M.J. Kareem © 156b, E. Karentzos © 54, I. Karkanias © 152,
O. Karkout <sup>114</sup>, S.N. Karpov <sup>38</sup>, Z.M. Karpova <sup>38</sup>, V. Kartvelishvili <sup>91</sup>, A.N. Karyukhin <sup>37</sup>,
E. Kasimi <sup>152</sup>, J. Katzy <sup>48</sup>, S. Kaur <sup>34</sup>, K. Kawade <sup>140</sup>, M.P. Kawale <sup>120</sup>, C. Kawamoto <sup>88</sup>,
T. Kawamoto (1062a), E.F. Kay (1036), F.I. Kaya (10158), S. Kazakos (1017), V.F. Kazanin (1037), Y. Ke (10145),
J.M. Keaveney (1)33a, R. Keeler (1)165, G.V. Kehris (1)61, J.S. Keller (1)34, A.S. Kelly (1)96, J.J. Kempster (1)146,
```

```
P.D. Kennedy (100), O. Kepka (131), B.P. Kerridge (147), S. Kersten (171), B.P. Kerševan (1993),
S. Keshri 66, L. Keszeghova 628a, S. Ketabchi Haghighat 615, R.A. Khan<sup>129</sup>, A. Khanov 6121,
A.G. Kharlamov (D<sup>37</sup>, T. Kharlamova (D<sup>37</sup>, E.E. Khoda (D<sup>138</sup>, M. Kholodenko (D<sup>37</sup>, T.J. Khoo (D<sup>18</sup>),
G. Khoriauli 6166, J. Khubua 61496, Y.A.R. Khwaira 666, B. Kibirige 33g, A. Kilgallon 6123,
D.W. Kim (D47a,47b), Y.K. Kim (D39), N. Kimura (D96), M.K. Kingston (D55), A. Kirchhoff (D55), C. Kirfel (D24),
F. Kirfel 624, J. Kirk 6134, A.E. Kiryunin 6110, C. Kitsaki 610, O. Kivernyk 624, M. Klassen 63a,
C. Klein 634, L. Klein 6166, M.H. Klein 644, S.B. Klein 556, U. Klein 692, P. Klimek 636,
A. Klimentov (D<sup>29</sup>, T. Klioutchnikova (D<sup>36</sup>, P. Kluit (D<sup>114</sup>, S. Kluth (D<sup>110</sup>, E. Kneringer (D<sup>79</sup>),
T.M. Knight (155), A. Knue (149), R. Kobayashi (188), D. Kobylianskii (169), S.F. Koch (1812),
M. Kocian (143), P. Kodyš (133), D.M. Koeck (123), P.T. Koenig (124), T. Koffas (134), O. Kolay (150),
I. Koletsou <sup>64</sup>, T. Komarek <sup>6122</sup>, K. Köneke <sup>654</sup>, A.X.Y. Kong <sup>61</sup>, T. Kono <sup>6118</sup>, N. Konstantinidis <sup>696</sup>,
P. Kontaxakis <sup>656</sup>, B. Konya <sup>698</sup>, R. Kopeliansky <sup>668</sup>, S. Koperny <sup>686a</sup>, K. Korcyl <sup>687</sup>, K. Kordas <sup>6152,e</sup>,
A. Korn (5)6, S. Korn (5)5, I. Korolkov (5)13, N. Korotkova (5)37, B. Kortman (5)14, O. Kortner (5)110,
S. Kortner 110, W.H. Kostecka 1115, V.V. Kostyukhin 1141, A. Kotsokechagia 115, A. Kotwal 151,
A. Koulouris <sup>©36</sup>, A. Kourkoumeli-Charalampidi <sup>©73a,73b</sup>, C. Kourkoumelis <sup>©9</sup>, E. Kourlitis <sup>©110,af</sup>,
O. Kovanda 6146, R. Kowalewski 6165, W. Kozanecki 6135, A.S. Kozhin 637, V.A. Kramarenko 637,
G. Kramberger (1093), P. Kramer (1010), M.W. Krasny (1127), A. Krasznahorkay (1136), J.W. Kraus (1171),
J.A. Kremer <sup>648</sup>, T. Kresse <sup>50</sup>, J. Kretzschmar <sup>692</sup>, K. Kreul <sup>18</sup>, P. Krieger <sup>155</sup>,
S. Krishnamurthy \bigcirc^{103}, M. Krivos \bigcirc^{133}, K. Krizka \bigcirc^{20}, K. Kroeninger \bigcirc^{49}, H. Kroha \bigcirc^{110}, J. Kroll \bigcirc^{131},
J. Kroll 6128, K.S. Krowpman 6107, U. Kruchonak 638, H. Krüger 624, N. Krumnack 1, M.C. Kruse 651,
O. Kuchinskaia 637, S. Kuday 63a, S. Kuehn 636, R. Kuesters 654, T. Kuhl 648, V. Kukhtin 638,
Y. Kulchitsky (D<sup>37</sup>,a, S. Kuleshov (D<sup>137d</sup>,137b), M. Kumar (D<sup>33g</sup>, N. Kumari (D<sup>48</sup>, P. Kumari (D<sup>48</sup>), P
A. Kupco 131, T. Kupfer<sup>49</sup>, A. Kupich 37, O. Kuprash 54, H. Kurashige 58, L.L. Kurchaninov 156a,
O. Kurdysh 66, Y.A. Kurochkin 37, A. Kurova 37, M. Kuze 154, A.K. Kvam 1013, J. Kvita 122,
T. Kwan 10104, N.G. Kyriacou 10106, L.A.O. Laatu 10102, C. Lacasta 10163, F. Lacava 1075a,75b,
H. Lacker 18, D. Lacour 18, N.N. Lad 196, E. Ladygin 18, B. Laforge 127, T. Lagouri 18, T. Lagouri 18, T. Lagouri 18, T. Lagouri 18, Laforge 18, D. Laforge 18, D. Laforge 18, D. Laforge 18, D. Lacour 18, D. Lacouri 1
F.Z. Lahbabi (D<sup>35a</sup>, S. Lai (D<sup>55</sup>, I.K. Lakomiec (D<sup>86a</sup>, N. Lalloue (D<sup>60</sup>, J.E. Lambert (D<sup>165</sup>, S. Lammers (D<sup>68</sup>),
W. Lampl <sup>107</sup>, C. Lampoudis <sup>152</sup>, A.N. Lancaster <sup>115</sup>, E. Lançon <sup>129</sup>, U. Landgraf <sup>154</sup>,
M.P.J. Landon <sup>694</sup>, V.S. Lang <sup>654</sup>, R.J. Langenberg <sup>6103</sup>, O.K.B. Langrekken <sup>6125</sup>, A.J. Lankford <sup>6159</sup>,
F. Lanni <sup>©36</sup>, K. Lantzsch <sup>©24</sup>, A. Lanza <sup>©73a</sup>, A. Lapertosa <sup>©57b,57a</sup>, J.F. Laporte <sup>©135</sup>, T. Lari <sup>©71a</sup>,
F. Lasagni Manghi (D<sup>23b</sup>, M. Lassnig (D<sup>36</sup>, V. Latonova (D<sup>131</sup>, A. Laudrain (D<sup>100</sup>, A. Laurier (D<sup>150</sup>),
S.D. Lawlor (139), Z. Lawrence (1011), R. Lazaridou (167), M. Lazzaroni (1712,716), B. Le (1011),
E.M. Le Boulicaut <sup>51</sup>, B. Leban <sup>93</sup>, A. Lebedev <sup>81</sup>, M. LeBlanc <sup>101</sup>, F. Ledroit-Guillon <sup>60</sup>,
A.C.A. Lee<sup>96</sup>, S.C. Lee 148, S. Lee 47a,47b, T.F. Lee 92, L.L. Leeuw 33c, H.P. Lefebvre 95,
M. Lefebvre <sup>165</sup>, C. Leggett <sup>17a</sup>, G. Lehmann Miotto <sup>36</sup>, M. Leigh <sup>56</sup>, W.A. Leight <sup>103</sup>,
W. Leinonen <sup>113</sup>, A. Leisos <sup>152</sup>, M.A.L. Leite <sup>83c</sup>, C.E. Leitgeb <sup>18</sup>, R. Leitner <sup>133</sup>,
K.J.C. Leney 644, T. Lenz 624, S. Leone 674a, C. Leonidopoulos 552, A. Leopold 6144, C. Leroy 6108,
R. Les 107, C.G. Lester 32, M. Levchenko 37, J. Levêque 4, L.J. Levinson 169, G. Levrini 35,23a,
M.P. Lewicki <sup>1087</sup>, D.J. Lewis <sup>104</sup>, A. Li <sup>105</sup>, B. Li <sup>1062b</sup>, C. Li <sup>102a</sup>, C-Q. Li <sup>10110</sup>, H. Li <sup>1062a</sup>, H. Li <sup>1062b</sup>,
H. Li \bigcirc^{14c}, H. Li \bigcirc^{14b}, H. Li \bigcirc^{62b}, J. Li \bigcirc^{62c}, K. Li \bigcirc^{138}, L. Li \bigcirc^{62c}, M. Li \bigcirc^{14a,14e}, Q.Y. Li \bigcirc^{62a},
S. Li 614a,14e, S. Li 62d,62c,d, T. Li 5, X. Li 6104, Z. Li 6126, Z. Li 6104, Z. Li 614a,14e, S. Liang 14a,14e,
Z. Liang 14a, M. Liberatore 135, B. Liberti 76a, K. Lie 64c, J. Lieber Marin 83b, H. Lien 68,
K. Lin 10107, R.E. Lindley 107, J.H. Lindon 102, E. Lipeles 10128, A. Lipniacka 1016, A. Lister 10164,
J.D. Little 64, B. Liu 614a, B.X. Liu 6142, D. Liu 62d,62c, J.B. Liu 62a, J.K.K. Liu 632, K. Liu 62d,62c,
M. Liu 62a, M.Y. Liu 62a, P. Liu 14a, Q. Liu 62d, 138,62c, X. Liu 62a, X. Liu 62b, Y. Liu 614d,14e,
Y.L. Liu 62b, Y.W. Liu 62a, J. Llorente Merino 142, S.L. Lloyd 94, E.M. Lobodzinska 48,
P. Loch <sup>107</sup>, T. Lohse <sup>18</sup>, K. Lohwasser <sup>139</sup>, E. Loiacono <sup>148</sup>, M. Lokajicek <sup>131,*</sup>, J.D. Lomas <sup>20</sup>,
```

```
J.D. Long (162), I. Longarini (159), L. Longo (170a,70b), R. Longo (162), I. Lopez Paz (167),
A. Lopez Solis <sup>648</sup>, N. Lorenzo Martinez <sup>64</sup>, A.M. Lory <sup>6109</sup>, G. Löschcke Centeno <sup>6146</sup>, O. Loseva <sup>637</sup>,
X. Lou (D47a,47b), X. Lou (D14a,14e), A. Lounis (D66), J. Love (D6), P.A. Love (D91), G. Lu (D14a,14e), M. Lu (D80),
S. Lu 128, Y.J. Lu 1665, H.J. Lubatti 138, C. Luci 1575a,75b, F.L. Lucio Alves 1614c, F. Luchring 168,
I. Luise 145, O. Lukianchuk 666, O. Lundberg 144, B. Lund-Jensen 144, N.A. Luongo 66,
M.S. Lutz (5)36, A.B. Lux (5)25, D. Lynn (5)29, R. Lysak (5)131, E. Lytken (5)98, V. Lyubushkin (5)38,
T. Lyubushkina (538, M.M. Lyukova (5145, H. Ma (529, K. Ma<sup>62a</sup>, L.L. Ma (562b, W. Ma (562a, Y. Ma (5121),
D.M. Mac Donell 6165, G. Maccarrone 653, J.C. MacDonald 6100, P.C. Machado De Abreu Farias 683b,
R. Madar <sup>©40</sup>, W.F. Mader <sup>©50</sup>, T. Madula <sup>©96</sup>, J. Maeda <sup>©85</sup>, T. Maeno <sup>©29</sup>, H. Maguire <sup>©139</sup>,
V. Maiboroda (D135), A. Maio (D130a,130b,130d), K. Maj (D86a), O. Majersky (D48), S. Majewski (D123),
N. Makovec 66, V. Maksimovic 515, B. Malaescu 5127, Pa. Malecki 587, V.P. Maleev 537,
F. Malek 60,p, M. Mali 93, D. Malito 95, U. Mallik 80, S. Maltezos 10, S. Malyukov 38,
J. Mamuzic 13, G. Mancini 53, M.N. Mancini 26, G. Manco 73a,73b, J.P. Mandalia 94,
I. Mandić <sup>1</sup>
<sup>93</sup>, L. Manhaes de Andrade Filho <sup>1</sup>
<sup>83a</sup>, I.M. Maniatis <sup>169</sup>, J. Manjarres Ramos <sup>102,ac</sup>,
D.C. Mankad 6169, A. Mann 6109, S. Manzoni 636, L. Mao 662c, X. Mapekula 633c, A. Marantis 6152,t,
G. Marchiori <sup>5</sup>, M. Marcisovsky <sup>131</sup>, C. Marcon <sup>71a,71b</sup>, M. Marinescu <sup>20</sup>, S. Marium <sup>48</sup>,
M. Marjanovic (D120), E.J. Marshall (D91), Z. Marshall (D17a), S. Marti-Garcia (D163), T.A. Martin (D167),
V.J. Martin (D<sup>52</sup>, B. Martin dit Latour (D<sup>16</sup>, L. Martinelli (D<sup>75a,75b</sup>, M. Martinez (D<sup>13,u</sup>,
P. Martinez Agullo (163), V.I. Martinez Outschoorn (103), P. Martinez Suarez (113), S. Martin-Haugh (1134),
V.S. Martoiu (D<sup>27b</sup>, A.C. Martyniuk (D<sup>96</sup>, A. Marzin (D<sup>36</sup>, D. Mascione (D<sup>78a,78b</sup>, L. Masetti (D<sup>100</sup>),
T. Mashimo 153, J. Masik 1011, A.L. Maslennikov 137, P. Massarotti 172a,72b, P. Mastrandrea 174a,74b,
A. Mastroberardino (D43b,43a), T. Masubuchi (D153), T. Mathisen (D161), J. Matousek (D133), N. Matsuzawa (153),
J. Maurer (D<sup>27b</sup>, B. Maček (D<sup>93</sup>, D.A. Maximov (D<sup>37</sup>, R. Mazini (D<sup>148</sup>, I. Maznas (D<sup>152</sup>, M. Mazza (D<sup>107</sup>),
S.M. Mazza 136, E. Mazzeo 71a,71b, C. Mc Ginn 29, J.P. Mc Gowan 104, S.P. Mc Kee 106,
C.C. McCracken <sup>164</sup>, E.F. McDonald <sup>105</sup>, A.E. McDougall <sup>114</sup>, J.A. Mcfayden <sup>146</sup>,
R.P. McGovern <sup>128</sup>, G. Mchedlidze <sup>149b</sup>, R.P. Mckenzie <sup>33g</sup>, T.C. Mclachlan <sup>48</sup>,
D.J. Mclaughlin 696, S.J. McMahon 6134, C.M. Mcpartland 692, R.A. McPherson 6165, y,
S. Mehlhase 109, A. Mehta 192, D. Melini 163, B.R. Mellado Garcia 133g, A.H. Melo 155,
F. Meloni <sup>648</sup>, A.M. Mendes Jacques Da Costa <sup>6101</sup>, H.Y. Meng <sup>6155</sup>, L. Meng <sup>691</sup>, S. Menke <sup>6110</sup>,
M. Mentink (10<sup>36</sup>, E. Meoni (10<sup>43b,43a</sup>, G. Mercado (10<sup>115</sup>, C. Merlassino (10<sup>69a,69c</sup>, L. Merola (10<sup>72a,72b</sup>),
C. Meroni (10,71a,71b), J. Metcalfe (10,6), A.S. Mete (10,6), C. Meyer (10,6), J-P. Meyer (10,135), R.P. Middleton (10,134),
L. Mijović ^{\circ}<sup>52</sup>, G. Mikenberg ^{\circ}<sup>169</sup>, M. Mikestikova ^{\circ}<sup>131</sup>, M. Mikuž ^{\circ}<sup>93</sup>, H. Mildner ^{\circ}<sup>100</sup>, A. Milic ^{\circ}<sup>36</sup>,
D.W. Miller (10<sup>39</sup>), L.S. Miller (10<sup>34</sup>), A. Milov (10<sup>169</sup>), D.A. Milstead (17<sup>47</sup>a, 47<sup>47</sup>b), T. Min (10<sup>40</sup>c), A.A. Minaenko (10<sup>37</sup>),
I.A. Minashvili (149b), L. Mince (159), A.I. Mincer (117), B. Mindur (186a), M. Mineev (138), Y. Mino (188),
L.M. Mir 13, M. Miralles Lopez 59, M. Mironova 17a, A. Mishima 153, M.C. Missio 113,
A. Mitra 16167, V.A. Mitsou 16163, Y. Mitsumori 16111, O. Miu 16155, P.S. Miyagawa 1694,
T. Mkrtchyan 663a, M. Mlinarevic 696, T. Mlinarevic 696, M. Mlynarikova 636, S. Mobius 619,
P. Mogg <sup>109</sup>, M.H. Mohamed Farook <sup>112</sup>, A.F. Mohammed <sup>14a,14e</sup>, S. Mohapatra <sup>41</sup>,
G. Mokgatitswane <sup>©33g</sup>, L. Moleri <sup>©169</sup>, B. Mondal <sup>©141</sup>, S. Mondal <sup>©132</sup>, K. Mönig <sup>©48</sup>,
E. Monnier (102), L. Monsonis Romero (163), J. Montejo Berlingen (113), M. Montella (119),
F. Montereali <sup>1077a,77b</sup>, F. Monticelli <sup>1090</sup>, S. Monzani <sup>1069a,69c</sup>, N. Morange <sup>1066</sup>,
A.L. Moreira De Carvalho (130a), M. Moreno Llácer (163), C. Moreno Martinez (156), P. Morettini (157b),
S. Morgenstern (5)36, M. Morii (5)61, M. Morinaga (5)153, F. Morodei (5)75a,75b, L. Morvaj (5)36,
P. Moschovakos <sup>©36</sup>, B. Moser <sup>©36</sup>, M. Mosidze <sup>149b</sup>, T. Moskalets <sup>©54</sup>, P. Moskvitina <sup>©113</sup>,
J. Moss (1031,m), E.J.W. Moyse (10103), O. Mtintsilana (1033g), S. Muanza (10102), J. Mueller (10129),
D. Muenstermann [6], R. Müller [6], G.A. Mullier [6], A.J. Mullin<sup>32</sup>, J.J. Mullin<sup>128</sup>, D.P. Mungo [6],
J.R. Muñoz De Nova <sup>[D]</sup>, D. Munoz Perez <sup>[D]</sup>, F.J. Munoz Sanchez <sup>[D]</sup>, M. Murin <sup>[D]</sup>,
```

```
W.J. Murray (167,134), M. Muškinja (17a), C. Mwewa (129), A.G. Myagkov (137,a), A.J. Myers (18),
G. Myers 68, M. Myska 6132, B.P. Nachman 617a, O. Nackenhorst 649, K. Nagai 6126, K. Nagano 684,
J.L. Nagle ©29,ak, E. Nagy ©102, A.M. Nairz ©36, Y. Nakahama ©84, K. Nakamura ©84, K. Nakkalil ©5,
H. Nanjo 124, R. Narayan 144, E.A. Narayanan 112, I. Naryshkin 137, M. Naseri 134, S. Nasri 16b,
C. Nass ©<sup>24</sup>, G. Navarro ©<sup>22a</sup>, J. Navarro-Gonzalez ©<sup>163</sup>, R. Nayak ©<sup>151</sup>, A. Nayaz ©<sup>18</sup>,
P.Y. Nechaeva (D<sup>37</sup>, F. Nechansky (D<sup>48</sup>, L. Nedic (D<sup>126</sup>, T.J. Neep (D<sup>20</sup>, A. Negri (D<sup>73a,73b</sup>, M. Negrini (D<sup>23b</sup>,
C. Nellist 114, C. Nelson 104, K. Nelson 106, S. Nemecek 131, M. Nessi 136, M.S. Neubauer 162,
F. Neuhaus 6100, J. Neundorf 648, R. Newhouse 6164, P.R. Newman 620, C.W. Ng 6129, Y.W.Y. Ng 648,
B. Ngair 6116a, H.D.N. Nguyen 6108, R.B. Nickerson 6126, R. Nicolaidou 6135, J. Nielsen 6136,
M. Niemeyer <sup>55</sup>, J. Niermann <sup>55,36</sup>, N. Nikiforou <sup>36</sup>, V. Nikolaenko <sup>37,a</sup>, I. Nikolic-Audit <sup>127</sup>
K. Nikolopoulos ©20, P. Nilsson ©29, I. Ninca ©48, H.R. Nindhito ©56, G. Ninio ©151, A. Nisati ©75a,
N. Nishu ©2, R. Nisius ©110, J-E. Nitschke ©50, E.K. Nkadimeng ©33g, T. Nobe ©153, D.L. Noel ©32,
T. Nommensen 147, M.B. Norfolk 139, R.R.B. Norisam 696, B.J. Norman 34, M. Noury 535a,
J. Novak 693, T. Novak 648, L. Novotny 6132, R. Novotny 6112, L. Nozka 6122, K. Ntekas 6159,
N.M.J. Nunes De Moura Junior <sup>683b</sup>, E. Nurse<sup>96</sup>, J. Ocariz <sup>6127</sup>, A. Ochi <sup>685</sup>, I. Ochoa <sup>6130a</sup>,
S. Oerdek (D<sup>48</sup>, J.T. Offermann (D<sup>39</sup>, A. Ogrodnik (D<sup>133</sup>, A. Oh (D<sup>101</sup>, C.C. Ohm (D<sup>144</sup>, H. Oide (D<sup>84</sup>,
R. Oishi 6153, M.L. Ojeda 648, Y. Okumura 6153, L.F. Oleiro Seabra 6130a, S.A. Olivares Pino 6137d,
D. Oliveira Damazio (D<sup>29</sup>, D. Oliveira Goncalves (D<sup>83a</sup>, J.L. Oliver (D<sup>159</sup>, Ö.O. Öncel (D<sup>54</sup>),
A.P. O'Neill (1919), A. Onofre (19130a,130e), P.U.E. Onyisi (1911), M.J. Oreglia (1939), G.E. Orellana (1990),
D. Orestano (577a,77b), N. Orlando (513, R.S. Orr (5155), V. O'Shea (559), L.M. Osojnak (5128),
R. Ospanov 62a, G. Otero y Garzon 630, H. Otono 689, P.S. Ott 63a, G.J. Ottino 617a, M. Ouchrif 635d,
F. Ould-Saada 125, M. Owen 59, R.E. Owen 134, K.Y. Oyulmaz 21a, V.E. Ozcan 21a, F. Ozturk 87,
N. Ozturk <sup>68</sup>, S. Ozturk <sup>682</sup>, H.A. Pacey <sup>6126</sup>, A. Pacheco Pages <sup>613</sup>, C. Padilla Aranda <sup>613</sup>,
G. Padovano <sup>6</sup>75a,75b, S. Pagan Griso <sup>6</sup>17a, G. Palacino <sup>6</sup>8, A. Palazzo <sup>6</sup>70a,70b, J. Pan <sup>6</sup>172, T. Pan <sup>6</sup>4a,
D.K. Panchal <sup>11</sup>, C.E. Pandini <sup>114</sup>, J.G. Panduro Vazquez <sup>95</sup>, H.D. Pandya <sup>14</sup>, H. Pang <sup>14b</sup>,
P. Pani 648, G. Panizzo 669a,69c, L. Paolozzi 656, S. Parajuli 6162, A. Paramonov 66,
C. Paraskevopoulos <sup>©53</sup>, D. Paredes Hernandez <sup>©64b</sup>, K.R. Park <sup>©41</sup>, T.H. Park <sup>©155</sup>, M.A. Parker <sup>©32</sup>,
F. Parodi D<sup>57b,57a</sup>, E.W. Parrish D<sup>115</sup>, V.A. Parrish D<sup>52</sup>, J.A. Parsons D<sup>41</sup>, U. Parzefall D<sup>54</sup>,
B. Pascual Dias 108, L. Pascual Dominguez 151, E. Pasqualucci 157a, S. Passaggio 157b, F. Pastore 1595,
P. Patel 687, U.M. Patel 51, J.R. Pater 5101, T. Pauly 536, J. Pearkes 5143, M. Pedersen 5125,
R. Pedro (130a), S.V. Peleganchuk (137), O. Penc (136), E.A. Pender (152), G.D. Penn (172), K.E. Penski (150),
M. Penzin 637, B.S. Peralva 683d, A.P. Pereira Peixoto 660, L. Pereira Sanchez 647a,47b,
D.V. Perepelitsa (D<sup>29</sup>,ak), E. Perez Codina (D<sup>156a</sup>, M. Perganti (D<sup>10</sup>), H. Pernegger (D<sup>36</sup>), O. Perrin (D<sup>40</sup>),
K. Peters ©<sup>48</sup>, R.F.Y. Peters ©<sup>101</sup>, B.A. Petersen ©<sup>36</sup>, T.C. Petersen ©<sup>42</sup>, E. Petit ©<sup>102</sup>, V. Petousis ©<sup>132</sup>,
C. Petridou (D152,e), A. Petrukhin (D141), M. Pettee (D17a), N.E. Pettersson (D36), A. Petukhov (D37),
K. Petukhova 133, R. Pezoa 137f, L. Pezzotti 36, G. Pezzullo 172, T.M. Pham 170, T. Pham 105,
P.W. Phillips © 134, G. Piacquadio © 145, E. Pianori © 17a, F. Piazza © 123, R. Piegaia © 30, D. Pietreanu © 27b,
A.D. Pilkington <sup>101</sup>, M. Pinamonti <sup>69a,69c</sup>, J.L. Pinfold <sup>62</sup>, B.C. Pinheiro Pereira <sup>130a</sup>,
A.E. Pinto Pinoargote 100,135, L. Pintucci 69a,69c, K.M. Piper 146, A. Pirttikoski 56, D.A. Pizzi 34,
L. Pizzimento 664b, A. Pizzini 6114, M.-A. Pleier 629, V. Plesanovs 54, V. Pleskot 6133, E. Plotnikova 38,
G. Poddar <sup>64</sup>, R. Poettgen <sup>698</sup>, L. Poggioli <sup>6127</sup>, I. Pokharel <sup>655</sup>, S. Polacek <sup>6133</sup>, G. Polesello <sup>673a</sup>,
A. Poley (142,156a), A. Polini (123b), C.S. Pollard (167), Z.B. Pollock (119), E. Pompa Pacchi (175a,75b),
D. Ponomarenko 113, L. Pontecorvo 36, S. Popa 27a, G.A. Popeneciu 27d, A. Poreba 36,
D.M. Portillo Quintero 156a, S. Pospisil 132, M.A. Postill 139, P. Postolache 27c, K. Potamianos 167,
P.A. Potepa (1086a, I.N. Potrap (1038, C.J. Potter (1032, H. Potti (1011, T. Poulsen (1048, J. Poveda (10163,
M.E. Pozo Astigarraga 636, A. Prades Ibanez 6163, J. Pretel 54, D. Price 6101, M. Primavera 670a,
M.A. Principe Martin <sup>1099</sup>, R. Privara <sup>122</sup>, T. Procter <sup>159</sup>, M.L. Proffitt <sup>138</sup>, N. Proklova <sup>128</sup>,
```

```
K. Prokofiev 64c, G. Proto 110, J. Proudfoot 66, M. Przybycien 86a, W.W. Przygoda 68b,
A. Psallidas <sup>646</sup>, J.E. Puddefoot <sup>6139</sup>, D. Pudzha <sup>637</sup>, D. Pyatiizbyantseva <sup>637</sup>, J. Qian <sup>6106</sup>,
D. Qichen 1010, Y. Qin 1010, T. Qiu 1052, A. Quadt 1055, M. Queitsch-Maitland 10101, G. Quetant 1056,
R.P. Quinn 6164, G. Rabanal Bolanos 61, D. Rafanoharana 54, F. Ragusa 71a,71b, J.L. Rainbolt 39,
J.A. Raine ^{\odot}56, S. Rajagopalan ^{\odot}29, E. Ramakoti ^{\odot}37, I.A. Ramirez-Berend ^{\odot}34, K. Ran ^{\odot}48,14e,
N.P. Rapheeha (D<sup>33g</sup>, H. Rasheed (D<sup>27b</sup>, V. Raskina (D<sup>127</sup>, D.F. Rassloff (D<sup>63a</sup>, A. Rastogi (D<sup>17a</sup>,
S. Rave 600, B. Ravina 655, I. Ravinovich 6169, M. Raymond 636, A.L. Read 6125, N.P. Readioff 6139,
D.M. Rebuzzi (D<sup>73a,73b</sup>, G. Redlinger (D<sup>29</sup>, A.S. Reed (D<sup>110</sup>, K. Reeves (D<sup>26</sup>, J.A. Reidelsturz (D<sup>171</sup>,
D. Reikher (151), A. Rej (149), C. Rembser (153), M. Renda (157), M.B. Rendel (110), F. Renner (154),
A.G. Rennie 6159, A.L. Rescia 648, S. Resconi 671a, M. Ressegotti 657b,57a, S. Rettie 636,
J.G. Reyes Rivera 10<sup>107</sup>, E. Reynolds 10<sup>17a</sup>, O.L. Rezanova 10<sup>37</sup>, P. Reznicek 10<sup>133</sup>, N. Ribaric 10<sup>91</sup>,
E. Ricci (578a,78b), R. Richter (5110), S. Richter (547a,47b), E. Richter-Was (586b), M. Ridel (5127),
S. Ridouani (D<sup>35d</sup>, P. Rieck (D<sup>117</sup>, P. Riedler (D<sup>36</sup>, E.M. Riefel (D<sup>47a,47b</sup>, J.O. Rieger (D<sup>114</sup>,
M. Rijssenbeek 145, A. Rimoldi 73a,73b, M. Rimoldi 36, L. Rinaldi 23b,23a, T.T. Rinn 29,
M.P. Rinnagel <sup>109</sup>, G. Ripellino <sup>161</sup>, I. Riu <sup>13</sup>, P. Rivadeneira <sup>148</sup>, J.C. Rivera Vergara <sup>165</sup>,
F. Rizatdinova <sup>121</sup>, E. Rizvi <sup>94</sup>, B.A. Roberts <sup>167</sup>, B.R. Roberts <sup>17a</sup>, S.H. Robertson <sup>104</sup>, y,
D. Robinson <sup>©32</sup>, C.M. Robles Gajardo <sup>137f</sup>, M. Robles Manzano <sup>©100</sup>, A. Robson <sup>©59</sup>, A. Rocchi <sup>©76a,76b</sup>,
C. Roda (5<sup>74a,74b</sup>, S. Rodriguez Bosca (5<sup>63a</sup>, Y. Rodriguez Garcia (5<sup>22a</sup>, A. Rodriguez Rodriguez (5<sup>54</sup>),
A.M. Rodríguez Vera <sup>156b</sup>, S. Roe<sup>36</sup>, J.T. Roemer <sup>159</sup>, A.R. Roepe-Gier <sup>136</sup>, J. Roggel <sup>171</sup>,
O. Røhne (125), R.A. Rojas (103), C.P.A. Roland (127), J. Roloff (129), A. Romaniouk (137),
E. Romano (D<sup>73a,73b</sup>, M. Romano (D<sup>23b</sup>, A.C. Romero Hernandez (D<sup>162</sup>, N. Rompotis (D<sup>92</sup>, L. Roos (D<sup>127</sup>,
S. Rosati (1075a), B.J. Rosser (1039), E. Rossi (1072a,72b), L.P. Rossi (1057b), L. Rossini (1054),
R. Rosten (119), M. Rotaru (1276), B. Rottler (154), C. Rougier (102,ac), D. Rousseau (166), D. Rousso (132),
A. Roy 162, S. Roy-Garand 155, A. Rozanov 102, Z.M.A. Rozario 59, Y. Rozen 150,
A. Rubio Jimenez <sup>163</sup>, A.J. Ruby <sup>92</sup>, V.H. Ruelas Rivera <sup>18</sup>, T.A. Ruggeri <sup>1</sup>, A. Ruggiero <sup>126</sup>,
A. Ruiz-Martinez 163, A. Rummler 163, Z. Rurikova 154, N.A. Rusakovich 163, H.L. Russell 165,
G. Russo (^{075a,75b}, J.P. Rutherfoord (^{07}, S. Rutherford Colmenares (^{032}, K. Rybacki<sup>91</sup>, M. Rybar (^{0133},
E.B. Rye 125, A. Ryzhov 144, J.A. Sabater Iglesias 156, P. Sabatini 1513, H.F-W. Sadrozinski 15136,
F. Safai Tehrani <sup>1075a</sup>, B. Safarzadeh Samani <sup>10134</sup>, M. Safdari <sup>10143</sup>, S. Saha <sup>10165</sup>, M. Sahinsoy <sup>1010</sup>,
A. Saibel 6163, M. Saimpert 6135, M. Saito 6153, T. Saito 6153, D. Salamani 636, A. Salnikov 6143,
J. Salt <sup>163</sup>, A. Salvador Salas <sup>151</sup>, D. Salvatore <sup>143b,43a</sup>, F. Salvatore <sup>146</sup>, A. Salzburger <sup>36</sup>,
D. Sammel 654, D. Sampsonidis 6152,e, D. Sampsonidou 6123, J. Sánchez 6163,
V. Sanchez Sebastian 163, H. Sandaker 125, C.O. Sander 48, J.A. Sandesara 1013, M. Sandhoff 171,
C. Sandoval (D<sup>22b</sup>, D.P.C. Sankey (D<sup>134</sup>, T. Sano (D<sup>88</sup>, A. Sansoni (D<sup>53</sup>, L. Santi (D<sup>75a,75b</sup>, C. Santoni (D<sup>40</sup>),
H. Santos (130a,130b), A. Santra (169), K.A. Saoucha (160), J.G. Saraiva (130a,130d), J. Sardain (170),
O. Sasaki <sup>684</sup>, K. Sato <sup>6157</sup>, C. Sauer<sup>63b</sup>, F. Sauerburger <sup>654</sup>, E. Sauvan <sup>64</sup>, P. Savard <sup>6155</sup>, ah,
R. Sawada 153, C. Sawyer 134, L. Sawyer 197, I. Sayago Galvan 63, C. Sbarra 163, A. Sbrizzi 123b, 23a,
T. Scanlon 696, J. Schaarschmidt 6138, U. Schäfer 6100, A.C. Schaffer 666,44, D. Schaile 6109,
R.D. Schamberger <sup>145</sup>, C. Scharf <sup>18</sup>, M.M. Schefer <sup>19</sup>, V.A. Schegelsky <sup>37</sup>, D. Scheirich <sup>133</sup>,
F. Schenck <sup>18</sup>, M. Schernau <sup>159</sup>, C. Scheulen <sup>55</sup>, C. Schiavi <sup>57b,57a</sup>, E.J. Schioppa <sup>70a,70b</sup>,
M. Schioppa (D43b,43a), B. Schlag (D143,0), K.E. Schleicher (D54), S. Schlenker (D36), J. Schmeing (D171),
M.A. Schmidt ^{\bullet 171}, K. Schmieden ^{\bullet 100}, C. Schmitt ^{\bullet 100}, N. Schmitt ^{\bullet 100}, S. Schmitt ^{\bullet 48},
L. Schoeffel <sup>135</sup>, A. Schoening <sup>63b</sup>, P.G. Scholer <sup>54</sup>, E. Schopf <sup>126</sup>, M. Schott <sup>100</sup>,
J. Schovancova 636, S. Schramm 656, T. Schroer 656, H-C. Schultz-Coulon 663a, M. Schumacher 654,
B.A. Schumm (b)136, Ph. Schune (b)135, A.J. Schuy (b)138, H.R. Schwartz (b)136, A. Schwartzman (b)143,
T.A. Schwarz (10) Ph. Schwemling (13), R. Schwienhorst (10), A. Sciandra (13), G. Sciolla (12),
F. Scuri 0^{74a}, C.D. Sebastiani 0^{92}, K. Sedlaczek 0^{115}, P. Seema 0^{18}, S.C. Seidel 0^{112}, A. Seiden 0^{136},
```

```
B.D. Seidlitz (541, C. Seitz (548, J.M. Seixas (5836), G. Sekhniaidze (572a, L. Selem (560),
N. Semprini-Cesari (D<sup>23b,23a</sup>, D. Sengupta (D<sup>56</sup>, V. Senthilkumar (D<sup>163</sup>, L. Serin (D<sup>66</sup>, L. Serkin (D<sup>69a,69b</sup>,
M. Sessa © 76a,76b, H. Severini © 120, F. Sforza © 57b,57a, A. Sfyrla © 56, E. Shabalina © 55, R. Shaheen © 144,
J.D. Shahinian 6128, D. Shaked Renous 6169, L.Y. Shan 614a, M. Shapiro 617a, A. Sharma 636,
A.S. Sharma 164, P. Sharma 180, P.B. Shatalov 1637, K. Shaw 16146, S.M. Shaw 16101,
A. Shcherbakova 637, Q. Shen 662c,5, D.J. Sheppard 142, P. Sherwood 696, L. Shi 696, X. Shi 614a,
C.O. Shimmin (172), J.D. Shinner (195), I.P.J. Shipsey (126), S. Shirabe (189), M. Shiyakova (1938,w),
J. Shlomi (10) 169, M.J. Shochet (10) 39, J. Shojaii (10) 105, D.R. Shope (12) 125, B. Shrestha (12) 120, S. Shrestha (11) 14, al,
E.M. Shrif ^{\odot}<sup>33g</sup>, M.J. Shroff ^{\odot}<sup>165</sup>, P. Sicho ^{\odot}<sup>131</sup>, A.M. Sickles ^{\odot}<sup>162</sup>, E. Sideras Haddad ^{\odot}<sup>33g</sup>,
A. Sidoti <sup>©23b</sup>, F. Siegert <sup>©50</sup>, Dj. Sijacki <sup>©15</sup>, F. Sili <sup>©90</sup>, J.M. Silva <sup>©20</sup>, M.V. Silva Oliveira <sup>©29</sup>,
S.B. Silverstein (^{647a}, S. Simion ^{66}, R. Simoniello (^{636}, E.L. Simpson (^{59}, H. Simpson (^{146},
L.R. Simpson (106), N.D. Simpson 8, S. Simsek (182), S. Sindhu (185), P. Sinervo (185), S. Singh (185),
S. Sinha <sup>648</sup>, S. Sinha <sup>6101</sup>, M. Sioli <sup>623b,23a</sup>, I. Siral <sup>636</sup>, E. Sitnikova <sup>648</sup>, S.Yu. Sivoklokov <sup>637,*</sup>,
J. Sjölin (D47a,47b), A. Skaf (D55), E. Skorda (D20), P. Skubic (D120), M. Slawinska (D87), V. Smakhtin (169),
B.H. Smart © 134, S.Yu. Smirnov © 37, Y. Smirnov © 37, L.N. Smirnova © 37,a, O. Smirnova © 98,
A.C. Smith (D<sup>41</sup>, E.A. Smith (D<sup>39</sup>, H.A. Smith (D<sup>126</sup>, J.L. Smith (D<sup>92</sup>, R. Smith (M. Smizanska (D<sup>91</sup>),
K. Smolek (D132), A.A. Snesarev (D37), S.R. Snider (D155), H.L. Snoek (D114), S. Snyder (D29), R. Sobie (D165,y),
A. Soffer 151, C.A. Solans Sanchez 36, E.Yu. Soldatov 37, U. Soldevila 163, A.A. Solodkov 37,
S. Solomon 626, A. Soloshenko 638, K. Solovieva 54, O.V. Solovyanov 640, V. Solovyev 637,
P. Sommer (1036), A. Sonay (1013), W.Y. Song (10156), A. Sopczak (10132), A.L. Sopio (1096), F. Sopkova (1028),
J.D. Sorenson (D112, I.R. Sotarriva Alvarez (D154, V. Sothilingam<sup>63a</sup>, O.J. Soto Sandoval (D137c,137b),
S. Sottocornola 668, R. Soualah 6160, Z. Soumaimi 635e, D. South 648, N. Soybelman 6169,
S. Spagnolo 6, M. Spalla 110, D. Sperlich 54, G. Spigo 36, S. Spinali 9, D.P. Spiteri 59,
M. Spousta 133, E.J. Staats 34, R. Stamen 63a, A. Stampekis 20, M. Standke 24, E. Stanecka 87,
M.V. Stange 650, B. Stanislaus 617a, M.M. Stanitzki 648, B. Stapf 648, E.A. Starchenko 637,
G.H. Stark 6136, J. Stark 10102,ac, P. Staroba 10131, P. Starovoitov 1063a, S. Stärz 10104, R. Staszewski 1087,
G. Stavropoulos <sup>646</sup>, J. Steentoft <sup>6161</sup>, P. Steinberg <sup>629</sup>, B. Stelzer <sup>6142,156a</sup>, H.J. Stelzer <sup>6129</sup>,
O. Stelzer-Chilton \bigcirc ^{156a}, H. Stenzel \bigcirc ^{58}, T.J. Stevenson \bigcirc ^{146}, G.A. Stewart \bigcirc ^{36}, J.R. Stewart \bigcirc ^{121},
M.C. Stockton <sup>©36</sup>, G. Stoicea <sup>©27b</sup>, M. Stolarski <sup>©130a</sup>, S. Stonjek <sup>©110</sup>, A. Straessner <sup>©50</sup>,
J. Strandberg (144, S. Strandberg (147a,47b), M. Stratmann (171, M. Strauss (120, T. Strebler (1012),
P. Strizenec (D<sup>28b</sup>, R. Ströhmer (D<sup>166</sup>, D.M. Strom (D<sup>123</sup>, R. Stroynowski (D<sup>44</sup>, A. Strubig (D<sup>47a,47b</sup>,
S.A. Stucci (D<sup>29</sup>, B. Stugu (D<sup>16</sup>, J. Stupak (D<sup>120</sup>, N.A. Styles (D<sup>48</sup>, D. Su (D<sup>143</sup>, S. Su (D<sup>62a</sup>, W. Su (D<sup>62d</sup>,
X. Su 62a,66, K. Sugizaki 6153, V.V. Sulin 637, M.J. Sullivan 692, D.M.S. Sultan 678a,78b,
L. Sultanaliyeva (D<sup>37</sup>, S. Sultansoy (D<sup>3b</sup>, T. Sumida (D<sup>88</sup>, S. Sun (D<sup>106</sup>, S. Sun (D<sup>170</sup>),
O. Sunneborn Gudnadottir (D<sup>161</sup>, N. Sur (D<sup>102</sup>, M.R. Sutton (D<sup>146</sup>, H. Suzuki (D<sup>157</sup>, M. Svatos (D<sup>131</sup>),
M. Swiatlowski (156a, T. Swirski (166, I. Sykora (128a, M. Sykora (133), T. Sykora (133), D. Ta (100),
K. Tackmann 648, A. Taffard 159, R. Tafirout 156a, J.S. Tafoya Vargas 66, Y. Takubo 84,
M. Talby 102, A.A. Talyshev 37, K.C. Tam 64b, N.M. Tamir 151, A. Tanaka 153, J. Tanaka 153,
R. Tanaka 666, M. Tanasini 657b,57a, Z. Tao 6164, S. Tapia Araya 6137f, S. Tapprogge 6100,
A. Tarek Abouelfadl Mohamed <sup>107</sup>, S. Tarem <sup>150</sup>, K. Tariq <sup>14a</sup>, G. Tarna <sup>102,27b</sup>, G.F. Tartarelli <sup>171</sup>,
P. Tas (D133), M. Tasevsky (D131), E. Tassi (D43b,43a), A.C. Tate (D162), G. Tateno (D153), Y. Tayalati (D35e,x),
G.N. Taylor <sup>105</sup>, W. Taylor <sup>156b</sup>, A.S. Tee <sup>170</sup>, R. Teixeira De Lima <sup>143</sup>, P. Teixeira-Dias <sup>195</sup>,
J.J. Teoh (155), K. Terashi (153), J. Terron (159), S. Terzo (153), M. Testa (153), R.J. Teuscher (155),
A. Thaler <sup>1079</sup>, O. Theiner <sup>1056</sup>, N. Themistokleous <sup>1052</sup>, T. Theveneaux-Pelzer <sup>10102</sup>, O. Thielmann <sup>10171</sup>,
D.W. Thomas <sup>95</sup>, J.P. Thomas <sup>©20</sup>, E.A. Thompson <sup>©17a</sup>, P.D. Thompson <sup>©20</sup>, E. Thomson <sup>©128</sup>,
Y. Tian 655, V. Tikhomirov 637, a, Yu.A. Tikhonov 537, S. Timoshenko 77, D. Timoshyn 5133,
E.X.L. Ting 1, P. Tipton 172, S.H. Tlou 133g, A. Tnourji 40, K. Todome 154, S. Todorova-Nova 133,
```

```
S. Todt<sup>50</sup>, M. Togawa <sup>684</sup>, J. Tojo <sup>89</sup>, S. Tokár <sup>628a</sup>, K. Tokushuku <sup>684</sup>, O. Toldaiev <sup>668</sup>, R. Tombs <sup>32</sup>,
M. Tomoto (184,111), L. Tompkins (19143,0), K.W. Topolnicki (1866), E. Torrence (19123), H. Torres (19102,ac),
E. Torró Pastor 163, M. Toscani 1530, C. Tosciri 1539, M. Tost 1511, D.R. Tovey 15139, A. Traeet 16,
I.S. Trandafir 627b, T. Trefzger 6166, A. Tricoli 629, I.M. Trigger 6156a, S. Trincaz-Duvoid 6127,
D.A. Trischuk 626, B. Trocmé 60, C. Troncon 71a, L. Truong 63c, M. Trzebinski 687, A. Trzupek 687,
F. Tsai 10145, M. Tsai 10106, A. Tsiamis 152,e, P.V. Tsiareshka<sup>37</sup>, S. Tsigaridas 156a, A. Tsirigotis 152,t,
V. Tsiskaridze 155, E.G. Tskhadadze 149a, M. Tsopoulou 152,e, Y. Tsujikawa 88, I.I. Tsukerman 37,
V. Tsulaia 617a, S. Tsuno 84, K. Tsuri 1118, D. Tsybychev 1145, Y. Tu 64b, A. Tudorache 27b,
V. Tudorache <sup>©27b</sup>, A.N. Tuna <sup>©61</sup>, S. Turchikhin <sup>©57b,57a</sup>, I. Turk Cakir <sup>©3a</sup>, R. Turra <sup>©71a</sup>,
T. Turtuvshin \bigcirc^{38,z}, P.M. Tuts \bigcirc^{41}, S. Tzamarias \bigcirc^{152,e}, P. Tzanis \bigcirc^{10}, E. Tzovara \bigcirc^{100}, F. Ukegawa \bigcirc^{157},
P.A. Ulloa Poblete (137c, 137b), E.N. Umaka (29, G. Unal (36, M. Unal (31), A. Undrus (32), G. Unel (315),
J. Urban 628b, P. Urquijo 6105, P. Urrejola 6137a, G. Usai 68, R. Ushioda 6154, M. Usman 6108,
Z. Uysal <sup>®82</sup>, V. Vacek <sup>®132</sup>, B. Vachon <sup>®104</sup>, K.O.H. Vadla <sup>®125</sup>, T. Vafeiadis <sup>®36</sup>, A. Vaitkus <sup>®96</sup>, C. Valderanis <sup>®109</sup>, E. Valdes Santurio <sup>®47a,47b</sup>, M. Valente <sup>®156a</sup>, S. Valentinetti <sup>®23b,23a</sup>, A. Valero <sup>®163</sup>,
E. Valiente Moreno (163), A. Vallier (102,ac), J.A. Valls Ferrer (163), D.R. Van Arneman (114),
T.R. Van Daalen 138, A. Van Der Graaf 49, P. Van Gemmeren 66, M. Van Rijnbach 125,36,
S. Van Stroud <sup>6</sup>96, I. Van Vulpen <sup>6</sup>114, M. Vanadia <sup>6</sup>76a,76b, W. Vandelli <sup>6</sup>36, E.R. Vandewall <sup>6</sup>121,
D. Vannicola 6151, L. Vannoli 57b,57a, R. Vari 675a, E.W. Varnes 7, C. Varni 617b, T. Varol 6148,
D. Varouchas 666, L. Varriale 6163, K.E. Varvell 6147, M.E. Vasile 627b, L. Vaslin<sup>84</sup>, G.A. Vasquez 6165,
A. Vasyukov (D<sup>38</sup>, F. Vazeille (D<sup>40</sup>, T. Vazquez Schroeder (D<sup>36</sup>, J. Veatch (D<sup>31</sup>, V. Vecchio (D<sup>101</sup>),
M.J. Veen (10)103, I. Veliscek (10)126, L.M. Veloce (10)155, F. Veloso (10)130a,130c, S. Veneziano (10)75a,
A. Ventura (^{\circ}70a,70b, S. Ventura Gonzalez (^{\circ}135, A. Verbytskyi (^{\circ}110, M. Verducci (^{\circ}74a,74b, C. Vergis (^{\circ}24,
M. Verissimo De Araujo (1083b), W. Verkerke (10114), J.C. Vermeulen (10114), C. Vernieri (10143),
M. Vessella <sup>103</sup>, M.C. Vetterli <sup>142</sup>, A. Vgenopoulos <sup>152</sup>, N. Viaux Maira <sup>137</sup>, T. Vickey <sup>139</sup>,
O.E. Vickey Boeriu (139), G.H.A. Viehhauser (126), L. Vigani (163b), M. Villa (123b,23a),
M. Villaplana Perez 16163, E.M. Villhauer 27, E. Vilucchi 1653, M.G. Vincter 1634, G.S. Virdee 1620,
A. Vishwakarma <sup>©52</sup>, A. Visibile<sup>114</sup>, C. Vittori <sup>©36</sup>, I. Vivarelli <sup>©146</sup>, E. Voevodina <sup>©110</sup>, F. Vogel <sup>©109</sup>,
J.C. Voigt 60, P. Vokac 6132, Yu. Volkotrub 686a, J. Von Ahnen 648, E. Von Toerne 624,
B. Vormwald 636, V. Vorobel 6133, K. Vorobev 637, M. Vos 6163, K. Voss 6141, M. Vozak 6114,
L. Vozdecky 694, N. Vranjes 615, M. Vranjes Milosavljevic 615, M. Vreeswijk 6114, N.K. Vu 662d,62c,
R. Vuillermet <sup>1036</sup>, O. Vujinovic <sup>1000</sup>, I. Vukotic <sup>1039</sup>, S. Wada <sup>10157</sup>, C. Wagner <sup>103</sup>, J.M. Wagner <sup>1017a</sup>,
W. Wagner 171, S. Wahdan 171, H. Wahlberg 190, M. Wakida 111, J. Walder 134, R. Walker 190,
W. Walkowiak (141, A. Wall (128, T. Wamorkar (166, A.Z. Wang (136, C. Wang (100, C. Wang (117),
H. Wang 17a, J. Wang 64c, R.-J. Wang 100, R. Wang 61, R. Wang 66, S.M. Wang 148,
S. Wang 62b, T. Wang 62a, W.T. Wang 80, W. Wang 614a, X. Wang 614c, X. Wang 6162,
X. Wang 62c, Y. Wang 62d, Y. Wang 614c, Z. Wang 6106, Z. Wang 62d,51,62c, Z. Wang 6106,
A. Warburton 60104, R.J. Ward 6020, N. Warrack 6059, S. Waterhouse 6095, A.T. Watson 6020, H. Watson 6059,
M.F. Watson (D<sup>20</sup>, E. Watton (D<sup>59</sup>,134, G. Watts (D<sup>138</sup>, B.M. Waugh (D<sup>96</sup>, C. Weber (D<sup>29</sup>, H.A. Weber (D<sup>18</sup>),
M.S. Weber (D<sup>19</sup>, S.M. Weber (D<sup>63a</sup>, C. Wei (D<sup>62a</sup>, Y. Wei (D<sup>126</sup>, A.R. Weidberg (D<sup>126</sup>, E.J. Weik (D<sup>117</sup>,
J. Weingarten <sup>649</sup>, M. Weirich <sup>6100</sup>, C. Weiser <sup>654</sup>, C.J. Wells <sup>648</sup>, T. Wenaus <sup>629</sup>, B. Wendland <sup>649</sup>,
T. Wengler <sup>1036</sup>, N.S. Wenke <sup>110</sup>, N. Wermes <sup>124</sup>, M. Wessels <sup>163a</sup>, A.M. Wharton <sup>191</sup>, A.S. White <sup>161</sup>,
A. White <sup>68</sup>, M.J. White <sup>61</sup>, D. Whiteson <sup>6159</sup>, L. Wickremasinghe <sup>6124</sup>, W. Wiedenmann <sup>6170</sup>,
M. Wielers 134, C. Wiglesworth 42, D.J. Wilbern 40, H.G. Wilkens 36, D.M. Williams 41,
H.H. Williams <sup>128</sup>, S. Williams <sup>128</sup>, S. Willocq <sup>103</sup>, B.J. Wilson <sup>101</sup>, P.J. Windischhofer <sup>139</sup>,
F.I. Winkel 630, F. Winklmeier 5123, B.T. Winter 54, J.K. Winter 5101, M. Wittgen 43, M. Wobisch 597,
Z. Wolffs <sup>114</sup>, J. Wollrath <sup>159</sup>, M.W. Wolter <sup>87</sup>, H. Wolters <sup>130a,130c</sup>, E.L. Woodward <sup>41</sup>,
S.D. Worm <sup>648</sup>, B.K. Wosiek <sup>687</sup>, K.W. Woźniak <sup>687</sup>, S. Wozniewski <sup>655</sup>, K. Wraight <sup>659</sup>, C. Wu <sup>620</sup>,
```

```
J. Wu 14a,14e, M. Wu 64a, M. Wu 6113, S.L. Wu 6170, X. Wu 656, Y. Wu 662a, Z. Wu 6135,
J. Wuerzinger 110,af, T.R. Wyatt 101, B.M. Wynne 152, S. Xella 142, L. Xia 14c, M. Xia 14b,
J. Xiang 64c, M. Xie 62a, X. Xie 62a, S. Xin 614a,14e, A. Xiong 6123, J. Xiong 617a, D. Xu 614a,
H. Xu 62a, L. Xu 62a, R. Xu 128, T. Xu 106, Y. Xu 14b, Z. Xu 52, Z. Xu 4c, B. Yabsley 147,
S. Yacoob (D<sup>33a</sup>, Y. Yamaguchi (D<sup>154</sup>, E. Yamashita (D<sup>153</sup>, H. Yamauchi (D<sup>157</sup>, T. Yamazaki (D<sup>17a</sup>,
Y. Yamazaki 685, J. Yan 62c, S. Yan 62c, Z. Yan 625, H.J. Yang 62c,62d, H.T. Yang 62a, S. Yang 62a,
T. Yang 64c, X. Yang 36, X. Yang 14a, Y. Yang 44, Y. Yang 62a, Z. Yang 62a, W-M. Yao 17a,
H. Ye 10<sup>14c</sup>, H. Ye 10<sup>55</sup>, J. Ye 10<sup>14a</sup>, S. Ye 10<sup>29</sup>, X. Ye 10<sup>62a</sup>, Y. Yeh 10<sup>96</sup>, I. Yeletskikh 10<sup>38</sup>, B.K. Yeo 10<sup>17b</sup>,
M.R. Yexley (5)96, P. Yin (5)41, K. Yorita (5)168, S. Younas (5)27b, C.J.S. Young (5)36, C. Young (5)143,
C. Yu 14a,14e,aj, Y. Yu 162a, M. Yuan 161a, R. Yuan 162b, L. Yue 1696, M. Zaazoua 162a,
B. Zabinski 687, E. Zaid<sup>52</sup>, Z.K. Zak 687, T. Zakareishvili 6163, N. Zakharchuk 634, S. Zambito 656,
J.A. Zamora Saa (D137d,137b), J. Zang (D153), D. Zanzi (D54), O. Zaplatilek (D132), C. Zeitnitz (D171),
H. Zeng 614a, J.C. Zeng 6162, D.T. Zenger Jr 626, O. Zenin 637, T. Ženiš 628a, S. Zenz 694,
S. Zerradi (D<sup>35a</sup>, D. Zerwas (D<sup>66</sup>, M. Zhai (D<sup>14a,14e</sup>, D.F. Zhang (D<sup>139</sup>, J. Zhang (D<sup>62b</sup>, J. Zhang (D<sup>6</sup>),
K. Zhang 614a,14e, L. Zhang 614c, P. Zhang 14a,14e, R. Zhang 6170, S. Zhang 6106, S. Zhang 6144,
T. Zhang (153), X. Zhang (162c), X. Zhang (162c), Y. Zhan
Z. Zhang 17a, Z. Zhang 66, H. Zhao 18a, T. Zhao 16b, Y. Zhao 18a, Z. Zhao 16c, Zhao 1
A. Zhemchugov (538, J. Zheng (514c, K. Zheng (5162, X. Zheng (562a, Z. Zheng (5143, D. Zhong (5162,
B. Zhou<sup>106</sup>, H. Zhou <sup>107</sup>, N. Zhou <sup>1062c</sup>, Y. Zhou<sup>14c</sup>, Y. Zhou<sup>7</sup>, C.G. Zhu <sup>1062b</sup>, J. Zhu <sup>1062c</sup>, Y. Zhu <sup>1062c</sup>,
Y. Zhu \bigcirc^{62a}, X. Zhuang \bigcirc^{14a}, K. Zhukov \bigcirc^{37}, N.I. Zimine \bigcirc^{38}, J. Zinsser \bigcirc^{63b}, M. Ziolkowski \bigcirc^{141},
L. Živković 15, A. Zoccoli 23b,23a, K. Zoch 61, T.G. Zorbas 139, O. Zormpa 46, W. Zou 41,
L. Zwalinski ©<sup>36</sup>.
```

¹Department of Physics, University of Adelaide, Adelaide; Australia.

²Department of Physics, University of Alberta, Edmonton AB; Canada.

^{3(a)}Department of Physics, Ankara University, Ankara; ^(b)Division of Physics, TOBB University of Economics and Technology, Ankara; Türkiye.

⁴LAPP, Université Savoie Mont Blanc, CNRS/IN2P3, Annecy; France.

⁵APC, Université Paris Cité, CNRS/IN2P3, Paris; France.

⁶High Energy Physics Division, Argonne National Laboratory, Argonne IL; United States of America.

⁷Department of Physics, University of Arizona, Tucson AZ; United States of America.

⁸Department of Physics, University of Texas at Arlington, Arlington TX; United States of America.

⁹Physics Department, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens; Greece.

¹⁰Physics Department, National Technical University of Athens, Zografou; Greece.

¹¹Department of Physics, University of Texas at Austin, Austin TX; United States of America.

¹²Institute of Physics, Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences, Baku; Azerbaijan.

¹³Institut de Física d'Altes Energies (IFAE), Barcelona Institute of Science and Technology, Barcelona; Spain.

 $^{^{14(}a)}$ Institute of High Energy Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing; $^{(b)}$ Physics Department, Tsinghua University, Beijing; $^{(c)}$ Department of Physics, Nanjing University, Nanjing; $^{(d)}$ School of Science, Shenzhen Campus of Sun Yat-sen University; $^{(e)}$ University of Chinese Academy of Science (UCAS), Beijing; China.

¹⁵Institute of Physics, University of Belgrade, Belgrade; Serbia.

¹⁶Department for Physics and Technology, University of Bergen, Bergen; Norway.

^{17(a)}Physics Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley CA; ^(b)University of California, Berkeley CA; United States of America.

¹⁸Institut für Physik, Humboldt Universität zu Berlin, Berlin; Germany.

- ¹⁹Albert Einstein Center for Fundamental Physics and Laboratory for High Energy Physics, University of Bern, Bern; Switzerland.
- ²⁰School of Physics and Astronomy, University of Birmingham, Birmingham; United Kingdom.
- ²¹(a) Department of Physics, Bogazici University, Istanbul; (b) Department of Physics Engineering, Gaziantep University, Gaziantep; (c) Department of Physics, Istanbul University, Istanbul; Türkiye.
- ^{22(a)}Facultad de Ciencias y Centro de Investigaciónes, Universidad Antonio Nariño,

Bogotá; (b) Departamento de Física, Universidad Nacional de Colombia, Bogotá; Colombia.

- ²³(*a*) Dipartimento di Fisica e Astronomia A. Righi, Università di Bologna, Bologna; ^(b) INFN Sezione di Bologna; Italy.
- ²⁴Physikalisches Institut, Universität Bonn, Bonn; Germany.
- ²⁵Department of Physics, Boston University, Boston MA; United States of America.
- ²⁶Department of Physics, Brandeis University, Waltham MA; United States of America.
- $^{27(a)}$ Transilvania University of Brasov, Brasov; $^{(b)}$ Horia Hulubei National Institute of Physics and Nuclear Engineering, Bucharest; $^{(c)}$ Department of Physics, Alexandru Ioan Cuza University of Iasi,
- Iasi; $^{(d)}$ National Institute for Research and Development of Isotopic and Molecular Technologies, Physics Department, Cluj-Napoca; $^{(e)}$ University Politehnica Bucharest, Bucharest; $^{(f)}$ West University in Timisoara, Timisoara; $^{(g)}$ Faculty of Physics, University of Bucharest, Bucharest; Romania.
- ^{28(a)} Faculty of Mathematics, Physics and Informatics, Comenius University, Bratislava; ^(b) Department of Subnuclear Physics, Institute of Experimental Physics of the Slovak Academy of Sciences, Kosice; Slovak Republic.
- ²⁹Physics Department, Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton NY; United States of America.
- ³⁰Universidad de Buenos Aires, Facultad de Ciencias Exactas y Naturales, Departamento de Física, y CONICET, Instituto de Física de Buenos Aires (IFIBA), Buenos Aires; Argentina.
- ³¹California State University, CA; United States of America.
- ³²Cavendish Laboratory, University of Cambridge, Cambridge; United Kingdom.
- $^{33(a)}$ Department of Physics, University of Cape Town, Cape Town; $^{(b)}$ iThemba Labs, Western

Cape; (c) Department of Mechanical Engineering Science, University of Johannesburg,

Johannesburg; (d) National Institute of Physics, University of the Philippines Diliman

(Philippines); (e) University of South Africa, Department of Physics, Pretoria; (f) University of Zululand,

KwaDlangezwa; (g) School of Physics, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg; South Africa.

- ³⁴Department of Physics, Carleton University, Ottawa ON; Canada.
- ^{35(a)} Faculté des Sciences Ain Chock, Réseau Universitaire de Physique des Hautes Energies Université Hassan II, Casablanca; ^(b) Faculté des Sciences, Université Ibn-Tofail, Kénitra; ^(c) Faculté des Sciences Semlalia, Université Cadi Ayyad, LPHEA-Marrakech; ^(d) LPMR, Faculté des Sciences, Université Mohamed Premier, Oujda; ^(e) Faculté des sciences, Université Mohammed V, Rabat; ^(f) Institute of Applied Physics, Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Ben Guerir; Morocco.
- ³⁶CERN, Geneva; Switzerland.
- ³⁷Affiliated with an institute covered by a cooperation agreement with CERN.
- ³⁸Affiliated with an international laboratory covered by a cooperation agreement with CERN.
- ³⁹Enrico Fermi Institute, University of Chicago, Chicago IL; United States of America.
- ⁴⁰LPC, Université Clermont Auvergne, CNRS/IN2P3, Clermont-Ferrand; France.
- ⁴¹Nevis Laboratory, Columbia University, Irvington NY; United States of America.
- ⁴²Niels Bohr Institute, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen; Denmark.
- $^{43}(a)$ Dipartimento di Fisica, Università della Calabria, Rende; $^{(b)}$ INFN Gruppo Collegato di Cosenza, Laboratori Nazionali di Frascati; Italy.
- ⁴⁴Physics Department, Southern Methodist University, Dallas TX; United States of America.
- ⁴⁵Physics Department, University of Texas at Dallas, Richardson TX; United States of America.

- ⁴⁶National Centre for Scientific Research "Demokritos", Agia Paraskevi; Greece.
- ^{47(a)}Department of Physics, Stockholm University; ^(b)Oskar Klein Centre, Stockholm; Sweden.
- ⁴⁸Deutsches Elektronen-Synchrotron DESY, Hamburg and Zeuthen; Germany.
- ⁴⁹Fakultät Physik , Technische Universität Dortmund, Dortmund; Germany.
- ⁵⁰Institut für Kern- und Teilchenphysik, Technische Universität Dresden, Dresden; Germany.
- ⁵¹Department of Physics, Duke University, Durham NC; United States of America.
- ⁵²SUPA School of Physics and Astronomy, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh; United Kingdom.
- ⁵³INFN e Laboratori Nazionali di Frascati, Frascati; Italy.
- ⁵⁴Physikalisches Institut, Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg, Freiburg; Germany.
- ⁵⁵II. Physikalisches Institut, Georg-August-Universität Göttingen, Göttingen; Germany.
- ⁵⁶Département de Physique Nucléaire et Corpusculaire, Université de Genève, Genève; Switzerland.
- ^{57(a)}Dipartimento di Fisica, Università di Genova, Genova; ^(b)INFN Sezione di Genova; Italy.
- ⁵⁸II. Physikalisches Institut, Justus-Liebig-Universität Giessen, Giessen; Germany.
- ⁵⁹SUPA School of Physics and Astronomy, University of Glasgow, Glasgow; United Kingdom.
- ⁶⁰LPSC, Université Grenoble Alpes, CNRS/IN2P3, Grenoble INP, Grenoble; France.
- ⁶¹Laboratory for Particle Physics and Cosmology, Harvard University, Cambridge MA; United States of America.
- ^{62(a)}Department of Modern Physics and State Key Laboratory of Particle Detection and Electronics, University of Science and Technology of China, Hefei; ^(b)Institute of Frontier and Interdisciplinary Science and Key Laboratory of Particle Physics and Particle Irradiation (MOE), Shandong University, Qingdao; ^(c)School of Physics and Astronomy, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Key Laboratory for Particle Astrophysics and Cosmology (MOE), SKLPPC, Shanghai; ^(d)Tsung-Dao Lee Institute, Shanghai; ^(e)School of Physics and Microelectronics, Zhengzhou University; China.
- ⁶³(*a*) Kirchhoff-Institut für Physik, Ruprecht-Karls-Universität Heidelberg, Heidelberg; (*b*) Physikalisches Institut, Ruprecht-Karls-Universität Heidelberg, Heidelberg; Germany.
- ^{64(a)}Department of Physics, Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shatin, N.T., Hong Kong; ^(b)Department of Physics, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong; ^(c)Department of Physics and Institute for Advanced Study, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Clear Water Bay, Kowloon, Hong Kong; China.
- ⁶⁵Department of Physics, National Tsing Hua University, Hsinchu; Taiwan.
- ⁶⁶IJCLab, Université Paris-Saclay, CNRS/IN2P3, 91405, Orsay; France.
- ⁶⁷Centro Nacional de Microelectrónica (IMB-CNM-CSIC), Barcelona; Spain.
- ⁶⁸Department of Physics, Indiana University, Bloomington IN; United States of America.
- $^{69(a)}$ INFN Gruppo Collegato di Udine, Sezione di Trieste, Udine; $^{(b)}$ ICTP, Trieste; $^{(c)}$ Dipartimento Politecnico di Ingegneria e Architettura, Università di Udine, Udine; Italy.
- ^{70(a)}INFN Sezione di Lecce; ^(b)Dipartimento di Matematica e Fisica, Università del Salento, Lecce; Italy.
- ⁷¹(a) INFN Sezione di Milano; ^(b) Dipartimento di Fisica, Università di Milano, Milano; Italy.
- ^{72(a)}INFN Sezione di Napoli; ^(b)Dipartimento di Fisica, Università di Napoli, Napoli; Italy.
- ^{73(a)}INFN Sezione di Pavia; ^(b)Dipartimento di Fisica, Università di Pavia, Pavia; Italy.
- $^{74(a)}$ INFN Sezione di Pisa; $^{(b)}$ Dipartimento di Fisica E. Fermi, Università di Pisa, Pisa; Italy.
- ^{75(a)}INFN Sezione di Roma; ^(b)Dipartimento di Fisica, Sapienza Università di Roma, Roma; Italy.
- $^{76(a)}$ INFN Sezione di Roma Tor Vergata; $^{(b)}$ Dipartimento di Fisica, Università di Roma Tor Vergata, Roma; Italy.
- $^{77(a)}$ INFN Sezione di Roma Tre; $^{(b)}$ Dipartimento di Matematica e Fisica, Università Roma Tre, Roma; Italy.
- ⁷⁸(a) INFN-TIFPA; (b) Università degli Studi di Trento, Trento; Italy.
- ⁷⁹Universität Innsbruck, Department of Astro and Particle Physics, Innsbruck; Austria.
- ⁸⁰University of Iowa, Iowa City IA; United States of America.

- ⁸¹Department of Physics and Astronomy, Iowa State University, Ames IA; United States of America.
- ⁸²Istinye University, Sariyer, Istanbul; Türkiye.
- ^{83(a)}Departamento de Engenharia Elétrica, Universidade Federal de Juiz de Fora (UFJF), Juiz de Fora; ^(b)Universidade Federal do Rio De Janeiro COPPE/EE/IF, Rio de Janeiro; ^(c)Instituto de Física, Universidade de São Paulo, São Paulo; ^(d)Rio de Janeiro State University, Rio de Janeiro; Brazil.
- ⁸⁴KEK, High Energy Accelerator Research Organization, Tsukuba; Japan.
- ⁸⁵Graduate School of Science, Kobe University, Kobe; Japan.
- ^{86(a)}AGH University of Krakow, Faculty of Physics and Applied Computer Science, Krakow; ^(b)Marian Smoluchowski Institute of Physics, Jagiellonian University, Krakow; Poland.
- ⁸⁷Institute of Nuclear Physics Polish Academy of Sciences, Krakow; Poland.
- ⁸⁸Faculty of Science, Kyoto University, Kyoto; Japan.
- ⁸⁹Research Center for Advanced Particle Physics and Department of Physics, Kyushu University, Fukuoka; Japan.
- ⁹⁰Instituto de Física La Plata, Universidad Nacional de La Plata and CONICET, La Plata; Argentina.
- ⁹¹Physics Department, Lancaster University, Lancaster; United Kingdom.
- ⁹²Oliver Lodge Laboratory, University of Liverpool, Liverpool; United Kingdom.
- ⁹³Department of Experimental Particle Physics, Jožef Stefan Institute and Department of Physics, University of Ljubljana, Ljubljana; Slovenia.
- ⁹⁴School of Physics and Astronomy, Queen Mary University of London, London; United Kingdom.
- ⁹⁵Department of Physics, Royal Holloway University of London, Egham; United Kingdom.
- ⁹⁶Department of Physics and Astronomy, University College London, London; United Kingdom.
- ⁹⁷Louisiana Tech University, Ruston LA; United States of America.
- ⁹⁸Fysiska institutionen, Lunds universitet, Lund; Sweden.
- ⁹⁹Departamento de Física Teorica C-15 and CIAFF, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Madrid; Spain.
- ¹⁰⁰Institut für Physik, Universität Mainz, Mainz; Germany.
- ¹⁰¹School of Physics and Astronomy, University of Manchester, Manchester; United Kingdom.
- ¹⁰²CPPM, Aix-Marseille Université, CNRS/IN2P3, Marseille; France.
- ¹⁰³Department of Physics, University of Massachusetts, Amherst MA; United States of America.
- ¹⁰⁴Department of Physics, McGill University, Montreal QC; Canada.
- ¹⁰⁵School of Physics, University of Melbourne, Victoria; Australia.
- ¹⁰⁶Department of Physics, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor MI; United States of America.
- ¹⁰⁷Department of Physics and Astronomy, Michigan State University, East Lansing MI; United States of America.
- ¹⁰⁸Group of Particle Physics, University of Montreal, Montreal QC; Canada.
- ¹⁰⁹Fakultät für Physik, Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München, München; Germany.
- ¹¹⁰Max-Planck-Institut für Physik (Werner-Heisenberg-Institut), München; Germany.
- ¹¹¹Graduate School of Science and Kobayashi-Maskawa Institute, Nagoya University, Nagoya; Japan.
- ¹¹²Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque NM; United States of America.
- ¹¹³Institute for Mathematics, Astrophysics and Particle Physics, Radboud University/Nikhef, Nijmegen; Netherlands.
- ¹¹⁴Nikhef National Institute for Subatomic Physics and University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam; Netherlands.
- ¹¹⁵Department of Physics, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb IL; United States of America.
- $^{116(a)}$ New York University Abu Dhabi, Abu Dhabi; $^{(b)}$ United Arab Emirates University, Al Ain; United Arab Emirates.
- ¹¹⁷Department of Physics, New York University, New York NY; United States of America.

- ¹¹⁸Ochanomizu University, Otsuka, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo; Japan.
- ¹¹⁹Ohio State University, Columbus OH; United States of America.
- ¹²⁰Homer L. Dodge Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Oklahoma, Norman OK; United States of America.
- ¹²¹Department of Physics, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater OK; United States of America.
- ¹²²Palacký University, Joint Laboratory of Optics, Olomouc; Czech Republic.
- ¹²³Institute for Fundamental Science, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR; United States of America.
- ¹²⁴Graduate School of Science, Osaka University, Osaka; Japan.
- ¹²⁵Department of Physics, University of Oslo, Oslo; Norway.
- ¹²⁶Department of Physics, Oxford University, Oxford; United Kingdom.
- ¹²⁷LPNHE, Sorbonne Université, Université Paris Cité, CNRS/IN2P3, Paris; France.
- ¹²⁸Department of Physics, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia PA; United States of America.
- ¹²⁹Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh PA; United States of America.
- laboratório de Instrumentação e Física Experimental de Partículas LIP, Lisboa; (b) Departamento de Física, Faculdade de Ciências, Universidade de Lisboa, Lisboa; (c) Departamento de Física, Universidade de Coimbra, Coimbra; (d) Centro de Física Nuclear da Universidade de Lisboa, Lisboa; (e) Departamento de Física, Universidade do Minho, Braga; (f) Departamento de Física Teórica y del Cosmos, Universidad de Granada, Granada (Spain); (g) Departamento de Física, Instituto Superior,
- del Cosmos, Universidad de Granada, Granada (Spain); (g) Departamento de Física, Instituto Superior Técnico, Universidade de Lisboa, Lisboa; Portugal.
- ¹³¹Institute of Physics of the Czech Academy of Sciences, Prague; Czech Republic.
- ¹³²Czech Technical University in Prague, Prague; Czech Republic.
- ¹³³Charles University, Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Prague; Czech Republic.
- ¹³⁴Particle Physics Department, Rutherford Appleton Laboratory, Didcot; United Kingdom.
- ¹³⁵IRFU, CEA, Université Paris-Saclay, Gif-sur-Yvette; France.
- ¹³⁶Santa Cruz Institute for Particle Physics, University of California Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz CA; United States of America.
- ¹³⁷(a) Departamento de Física, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago; ^(b) Millennium Institute for Subatomic physics at high energy frontier (SAPHIR), Santiago; ^(c) Instituto de Investigación Multidisciplinario en Ciencia y Tecnología, y Departamento de Física, Universidad de La Serena; ^(d) Universidad Andres Bello, Department of Physics, Santiago; ^(e) Instituto de Alta Investigación, Universidad de Tarapacá, Arica; ^(f) Departamento de Física, Universidad Técnica Federico Santa María,
- Valparaíso; Chile.
- ¹³⁸Department of Physics, University of Washington, Seattle WA; United States of America.
- ¹³⁹Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Sheffield, Sheffield; United Kingdom.
- ¹⁴⁰Department of Physics, Shinshu University, Nagano; Japan.
- ¹⁴¹Department Physik, Universität Siegen, Siegen; Germany.
- ¹⁴²Department of Physics, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby BC; Canada.
- ¹⁴³SLAC National Accelerator Laboratory, Stanford CA; United States of America.
- ¹⁴⁴Department of Physics, Royal Institute of Technology, Stockholm; Sweden.
- ¹⁴⁵Departments of Physics and Astronomy, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook NY; United States of America.
- ¹⁴⁶Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Sussex, Brighton; United Kingdom.
- ¹⁴⁷School of Physics, University of Sydney, Sydney; Australia.
- ¹⁴⁸Institute of Physics, Academia Sinica, Taipei; Taiwan.
- ¹⁴⁹(*a*) E. Andronikashvili Institute of Physics, Iv. Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi; (*b*) High Energy Physics Institute, Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi; (*c*) University of Georgia, Tbilisi; Georgia.

- ¹⁵⁰Department of Physics, Technion, Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa; Israel.
- ¹⁵¹Raymond and Beverly Sackler School of Physics and Astronomy, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv; Israel.
- ¹⁵²Department of Physics, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki; Greece.
- ¹⁵³International Center for Elementary Particle Physics and Department of Physics, University of Tokyo, Tokyo; Japan.
- ¹⁵⁴Department of Physics, Tokyo Institute of Technology, Tokyo; Japan.
- ¹⁵⁵Department of Physics, University of Toronto, Toronto ON; Canada.
- ¹⁵⁶(a) TRIUMF, Vancouver BC; (b) Department of Physics and Astronomy, York University, Toronto ON; Canada.
- ¹⁵⁷Division of Physics and Tomonaga Center for the History of the Universe, Faculty of Pure and Applied Sciences, University of Tsukuba, Tsukuba; Japan.
- ¹⁵⁸Department of Physics and Astronomy, Tufts University, Medford MA; United States of America.
- ¹⁵⁹Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of California Irvine, Irvine CA; United States of America.
- ¹⁶⁰University of Sharjah, Sharjah; United Arab Emirates.
- ¹⁶¹Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Uppsala, Uppsala; Sweden.
- ¹⁶²Department of Physics, University of Illinois, Urbana IL; United States of America.
- ¹⁶³Instituto de Física Corpuscular (IFIC), Centro Mixto Universidad de Valencia CSIC, Valencia; Spain.
- ¹⁶⁴Department of Physics, University of British Columbia, Vancouver BC; Canada.
- ¹⁶⁵Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Victoria, Victoria BC; Canada.
- ¹⁶⁶Fakultät für Physik und Astronomie, Julius-Maximilians-Universität Würzburg, Würzburg; Germany.
- ¹⁶⁷Department of Physics, University of Warwick, Coventry; United Kingdom.
- ¹⁶⁸Waseda University, Tokyo; Japan.
- ¹⁶⁹Department of Particle Physics and Astrophysics, Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot; Israel.
- ¹⁷⁰Department of Physics, University of Wisconsin, Madison WI; United States of America.
- ¹⁷¹Fakultät für Mathematik und Naturwissenschaften, Fachgruppe Physik, Bergische Universität Wuppertal, Wuppertal; Germany.
- ¹⁷²Department of Physics, Yale University, New Haven CT; United States of America.
- ^a Also Affiliated with an institute covered by a cooperation agreement with CERN.
- ^b Also at An-Najah National University, Nablus; Palestine.
- ^c Also at Borough of Manhattan Community College, City University of New York, New York NY; United States of America.
- ^d Also at Center for High Energy Physics, Peking University; China.
- ^e Also at Center for Interdisciplinary Research and Innovation (CIRI-AUTH), Thessaloniki; Greece.
- f Also at Centro Studi e Ricerche Enrico Fermi; Italy.
- ^g Also at CERN, Geneva; Switzerland.
- h Also at Département de Physique Nucléaire et Corpusculaire, Université de Genève, Genève; Switzerland.
- ⁱ Also at Departament de Fisica de la Universitat Autonoma de Barcelona, Barcelona; Spain.
- ^j Associated at Departamento de Fisica de Materiales, Universidad Complutense de Madrid; Spain.
- ^k Also at Department of Financial and Management Engineering, University of the Aegean, Chios; Greece.
- ¹ Also at Department of Physics, Ben Gurion University of the Negev, Beer Sheva; Israel.
- ^m Also at Department of Physics, California State University, Sacramento; United States of America.
- ⁿ Also at Department of Physics, King's College London, London; United Kingdom.
- ^o Also at Department of Physics, Stanford University, Stanford CA; United States of America.
- ^p Also at Department of Physics, Stellenbosch University; South Africa.
- ^q Also at Department of Physics, University of Fribourg, Fribourg; Switzerland.

- ^r Also at Department of Physics, University of Thessaly; Greece.
- ^s Also at Department of Physics, Westmont College, Santa Barbara; United States of America.
- ^t Also at Hellenic Open University, Patras; Greece.
- ^u Also at Institucio Catalana de Recerca i Estudis Avancats, ICREA, Barcelona; Spain.
- ^v Also at Institut für Experimentalphysik, Universität Hamburg, Hamburg; Germany.
- ^w Also at Institute for Nuclear Research and Nuclear Energy (INRNE) of the Bulgarian Academy of Sciences, Sofia; Bulgaria.
- ^x Also at Institute of Applied Physics, Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Ben Guerir; Morocco.
- y Also at Institute of Particle Physics (IPP); Canada.
- ^z Also at Institute of Physics and Technology, Ulaanbaatar; Mongolia.
- ^{aa} Also at Institute of Physics, Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences, Baku; Azerbaijan.
- ^{ab} Also at Institute of Theoretical Physics, Ilia State University, Tbilisi; Georgia.
- ac Also at L2IT, Université de Toulouse, CNRS/IN2P3, UPS, Toulouse; France.
- ad Also at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore; United States of America.
- ae Also at National Institute of Physics, University of the Philippines Diliman (Philippines); Philippines.
- af Also at Technical University of Munich, Munich; Germany.
- ^{ag} Also at The Collaborative Innovation Center of Quantum Matter (CICQM), Beijing; China.
- ah Also at TRIUMF, Vancouver BC; Canada.
- ai Also at Università di Napoli Parthenope, Napoli; Italy.
- aj Also at University of Chinese Academy of Sciences (UCAS), Beijing; China.
- ak Also at University of Colorado Boulder, Department of Physics, Colorado; United States of America.
- al Also at Washington College, Chestertown, MD; United States of America.
- am Also at Yeditepe University, Physics Department, Istanbul; Türkiye.
- * Deceased