

■ Azo-based Photoswitches

The Photoisomerization Pathway(s) of Push–Pull Phenylazoheteroarenes**

Sergi Vela and Clémence Corminboeuf*[a]

Abstract: Azoheteroarenes are the most recent derivatives targeted to further improve the properties of azo-based photoswitches. Their light-induced mechanism for *trans*–*cis* isomerization is assumed to be very similar to that of the parent azobenzene. As such, they inherited the controversy about the dominant isomerization pathway (rotation vs. inversion) depending on the excited state ($n\pi^*$ vs. $\pi\pi^*$). Although the controversy seems settled in azobenzene, the extent to which the same conclusions apply to the more structurally diverse family of azoheteroarenes is unclear. Here, by means of non-adiabatic molecular dynamics, the

photoisomerization mechanism of three prototypical phenyl-azoheteroarenes with increasing push–pull character is unraveled. The evolution of the rotational and inversion conical intersection energies, the preferred pathway, and the associated kinetics upon both $n\pi^*$ and $\pi\pi^*$ excitations can be linked directly with the push–pull substitution effects. Overall, the working conditions of this family of azo-dyes is clarified and a possibility to exploit push–pull substituents to tune their photoisomerization mechanism is identified, with potential impact on their quantum yield.

Introduction

Molecular photoswitches can alter their chemical/biological functions by undergoing conformational, configurational, or structural changes upon application of light. Although nature exploits them to trigger key processes in living organisms, the synthetic analogs are increasingly used as memory devices,^[1–3] actuators,^[4] sensitizers,^[5] and sensors.^[6] Dyes based on the azo group are among the most investigated, the archetype being azobenzene (AB).^[7,8] Its *cis*–*trans* photoisomerization is highly appreciated owing to its significant structural change.^[4] Also, AB has multiple functionalization sites, which led to the development of derivatives exhibiting improved thermal stability and visible light absorption.^[9] All these advances fostered its application in the nascent field of photo-pharmacology.^[10] Azo-heteroarenes are the most recent derivatives investigated in the quest of better azo-based photoswitches.^[11] Their main ad-

vantage with respect to AB relies upon their greater electronic and structural diversity, which allow for interesting functionality in their backbone. Examples are the possibility to achieve T-shaped *Z*-isomer structures with longer half-life times and better photostationary distributions,^[12] the modulation of the hydrazone tautomerism to further tune their kinetics,^[13] or the addition of metal-coordinating sites, which makes them ideal candidates to trigger spin transitions.^[14,15]

In AB, the photoswitch is triggered upon excitation to either of the productive $n\pi^*$ and $\pi\pi^*$ states (typically, S_1 and S_2). For decades, there has been controversy about its isomerization mechanism^[7,16] with conflicting experimental^[17–21] and theoretical^[22–26] reports. The current consensus is that the photoisomerization occurs once the molecule is in S_1 , through an S_1/S_0 conical intersection (CoIn) with either rotational or inversion character. Specifically, it has been proposed that these CoIn are the extremes of a crossing seam connecting S_1/S_0 , with rotation- (inversion-) like structures at its lower (higher) energy end.^[24,27] The preferred pathway depends on the excitation energy,^[28] solvent,^[28] pressure,^[29] temperature,^[30,31] and has an impact on the quantum yield: AB photoisomerizes with a higher quantum yield when excited to the $n\pi^*$ than to the $\pi\pi^*$ state,^[30] which is attributed to the increased accessibility of the rotational pathway.^[7,32,33]

Azoheteroarenes are expected to follow a similar mechanism, but the picture is much less complete.^[11] So far, their photoisomerization has been investigated in systems based on indole,^[3] pyridine,^[34,35] pyrimidine,^[36] and thiazole.^[37] These few cases suggest that the structural diversity of azoheteroarenes contributes to create a similar level of complexity as in the AB derivatives. A major limitation of these investigations is that the experiments do not provide direct information on the re-

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laxation pathways, whereas computations are often limited to exploring predefined regions of the ground- and low-lying excited states potential energy surfaces (PES).^[3,34–37] Although this picture is informative, it is still insufficient to ascertain the effect of temperature and excitation energy on the chosen pathway, and hence on the photoisomerization quantum yield and kinetics. These are important aspects that deserve deeper computational analyses, which more closely mimic the actual experimental conditions.

Results and Discussion

In this computational work, we analyze the *E*-to-*Z* photoisomerization of three phenylazoheteroarenes: the unsubstituted 3-pyrazole (**1**) and 2-imidazole (**2**), and a derivative of the latter (**2a**), featuring DPO (2,5-diphenyl-1,3,4-oxadiazole) and thiazine as the phenyl and heteroarene substituents, respectively (see Figure 1). Heteroarenes have an increased push–pull character, by virtue of the stabilization of a resonant form.^[11] Such stabilization is progressively stronger in compounds **1**, **2**, and **2a**, which has important consequences on their thermal stability, and on the energy and nature of their productive $n\pi^*$ and $\pi\pi^*$ transitions.^[38] Specifically, their properties are systematically found at the edge of the explored values derived from the screening of 512 phenylazoheteroarenes. This can be taken as an indication that these compounds are representative of the structural and electronic diversity present within phenylazoheteroarenes.

What remains to be known is the impact of the increase in push–pull character on the photoisomerization mechanism. A literature survey of push–pull AB derivatives reveals conflicting reports, with computational PES analyses favoring rotation as the single relaxation channel^[39] (B3LYP/6-31G* level), or rotation and inversion upon S_1 and S_2 excitation, respectively^[40] (CAS(6,5)/4–31G level), and experiments (fluorescence^[41] and absorption spectroscopy^[42,43]) favoring a unimodal relaxation through rotation. Yet, reported works on the topic remain scarce, and extrapolation to the realm of azoheteroarenes uncertain. Such a generalization is especially relevant given the possibility to use push–pull substituents to tune the photoisomerization quantum yield of azo-dyes. With this in mind, our goal is to identify the isomerization pathways, and the associated kinetics, of **1**, **2**, and **2a** upon excitation to the productive $n\pi^*$ and $\pi\pi^*$ states.

The initial assessment of the vertical $n\pi^*$ (S_1) and $\pi\pi^*$ excitations (S_2) of **1–2a** at the respective *E*-isomer minima (Figure 1) shows no significant difference between **1** and **2**, whereas the $\pi\pi^*$ is significantly redshifted in **2a** by the increased charge-transfer character from the thiazine to the azo group.^[38] The shift is also clearly visible in the absorption spectra computed at the same level (i.e., ω B97X-D/6-31G(d) level, see Figure 2 and Computational Details), which includes the conformational and vibrational transitions with the Nuclear Ensemble (NE) approach.^[44]

The ground, $n\pi^*$, and $\pi\pi^*$ states are connected with each other through Coln. At the CASSCF (i.e., SA3-CASSCF/6-31G*) level, three Coln were identified for (unsubstituted) phenylazoindeole photoswitches.^[13] These are: (i) Coln_A, characterized by a CNNC torsion angle close to 90° (corresponding to the rotation), (ii) Coln_B, which involves quasi-linear NNC angles (characteristic of an inversion), and (iii) Coln_C, which features an intermediate torsion, longer N=N distance, and CNN angles close to 100°. The former two (Coln_A and Coln_B) connect the PES of the ground (GS) and $n\pi^*$ states, whereas the latter connects the $n\pi^*$ and $\pi\pi^*$ surfaces. Coln_A was found below the $n\pi^*$ excitation energy at Franck–Condon (FC), whereas Coln_B is higher, and hence only accessible after excitation to $\pi\pi^*$ or above. Accordingly, it was proposed that excitation to $n\pi^*$ leads to Coln_A, whereas excitation to $\pi\pi^*$ leads to Coln_C ($\pi\pi^*/n\pi^*$) and to Coln_B ($n\pi^*/GS$) before reaching the GS.^[13] The former pathway would lead to a higher quantum yield (QY) than the latter.^[13] Such characterization is very similar to what is known for AB,^[24,27,45] except for the proposed non-planar (i.e., twisted geometry) Coln_C: the ultrafast decay from $\pi\pi^*$ to $n\pi^*$ in AB,^[19,20,46] suggests a structure close to the planar FC geometry instead.

The Coln_A and Coln_B of **1**, **2**, and **2a** were characterized here with the Tamm–Dancoff approximation (TDA) and ω B97X-D (see the Supporting Information for complementary ADC(2) computations) by using a static Coln search method (see Computational Details).^[47] Their structures feature the characteristic CNNC torsion (close to 90°) and NNC (quasi-linear) bending, respectively (see Table S2.1 in the Supporting Information). The energy of Coln_A decreases by about 0.3 eV with the increase in push–pull character (see Figure 1). We associate this shift to

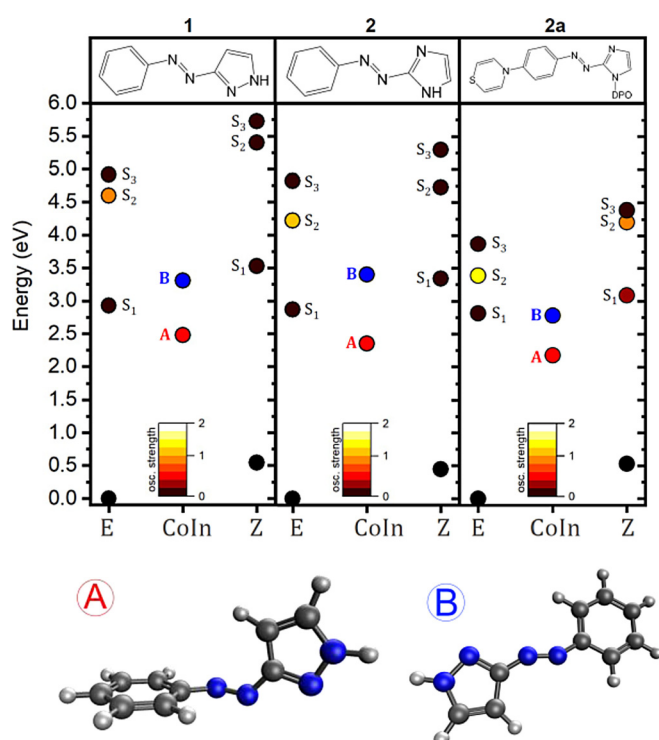


Figure 1. (Top) Relative energy of Coln_A and Coln_B with respect to the *E*- and *Z*-minima, and their S_{1-3} excitations at FC, the oscillator strength of which is displayed in the color code. All computations have been carried out at the ω B97X-D/6-31G(d) level. Raw data is in Tables S1.1 and S2.1 in the Supporting Information. (Bottom) Structure of Coln_A and Coln_B for compound **1**.

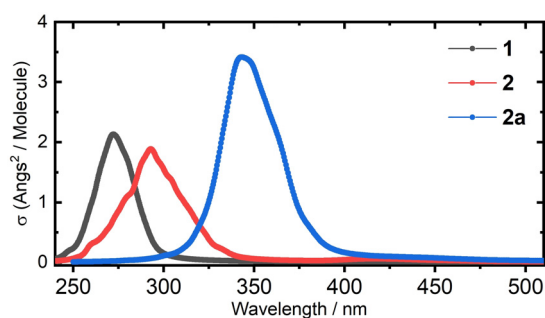


Figure 2. Computed absorption spectrum of **1**, **2**, and **2a** at the ω B97X-D/6-31G(d) level.

the reduction of the azo N=N bond-order (see the Wiberg index (WI) in Table S2.1 in the Supporting Information) as a longer N=N distance facilitates the CNNC rotation towards Coln_A . As expected (see above), Coln_A is found below the S_1 excitation energy at FC. In turn, Coln_B lies at about 3.3 eV from the respective E -minima, and slightly above the S_1 excitation energy at FC. An exception is **2a**, for which Coln_B and S_1 are almost degenerate. That suggests the opening of the inversion pathway upon S_1 excitation, in contradiction to the expected mechanism. Overall, the two sets of Coln reported herein (A and B) present very similar structural features to those reported in the existing literature for AB^[22] and azoheteroarene derivatives.^[13,35] None of the levels tested herein (i.e., ω B97X-D, ADC(2)) were able to locate the Coln_C as proposed in Ref. [13], not even for the same phenylazindole. Although the identification of Coln_C may be an artefact from SA3-CASSCF/6-31G* (see below),^[48] TDA- ω B97X-D describes correctly the PES regions that correspond to the two dominant photoisomerization pathways. As such, we are confident that more sophisticated simulations based on molecular dynamics can be pursued at this level (see Computational Details).

A swarm of Non-Adiabatic Molecular-Dynamics (NAMD) trajectories based on Tully surface-hopping were initiated at the $n\pi^*$ and $\pi\pi^*$ states for **1**, **2**, and **2a**, and propagated for a maximum of 1000 fs, or until an S_1 - S_0 energy gap below 0.1 eV is reached (see Computational Details). In the latter

case, it is assumed that population transfer to the ground state will occur, leading to either of the two minima (E or Z). Note that although the termination criterion does not presuppose the character of S_1 ($n\pi^*$ or $\pi\pi^*$), in practice, however, S_1 is the $n\pi^*$ state for all terminated trajectories. In general, we favor the nomenclature $n\pi^*/\pi\pi^*$ to specifically refer to these states, and use the S_1 - S_2 nomenclature when the state character is not relevant, only the order.

Figure 3 shows the structure at which state crossings occur based on the two main variables: the CNN angle and the CNNC torsion measured as the deviation from planarity (i.e., $|\text{CNNC}-180|$). We chose this CNNC metric as a result of **1-2a** having no particular preference towards a clockwise or counterclockwise rotation about the CNNC dihedral, which results in a similar distribution of positive and negative CNNC dihedral angles. This is in contrast to some reported heteroarenes featuring a stereospecific relaxation mechanism.^[49,50] In **1-2a**, the relaxation from the $\pi\pi^*$ to the $n\pi^*$ state occurs at flat geometries similar to the E -isomer minimum (see gray circles). As mentioned before, flat geometries have been invoked to explain the ultrafast $\pi\pi^* \rightarrow n\pi^*$ decay in AB.^[19,46] This point is thus reinforced by our simulations, and its validity seems to be extended to azoheteroarenes albeit in contradiction with the proposed non-planar Coln_C of phenylazindoles (see also Section S2 in the Supporting Information).^[13] The Coln connecting the $n\pi^*$ and ground states combine both CNN inversion and CNNC torsion (see colored circles). In fact, the distribution of Coln describes a crossing seam (as in AB^[24,27]), with Coln_A - and Coln_B -like structures at the extremes (see Figure 3, Figure S3.4, and Table S3.2 in the Supporting Information). Coln_B being higher in energy (see Figure 1), the inversion pathway is more often (but not exclusively) followed upon excitation at S_2 , whereas excitation to S_1 predominantly leads to a rotational mechanism (see Figure 1). There are, however, many trajectories in which Coln_B -like (Coln_A -like) are reached upon excitation to S_1 (S_2), which indicates that the excitation energy does not completely discriminate between photodeactivation pathways. This point might, in fact, be at the heart of the controversy about the dominant mechanism in AB and azoheteroarene derivatives, and their strong dependency on external factors such

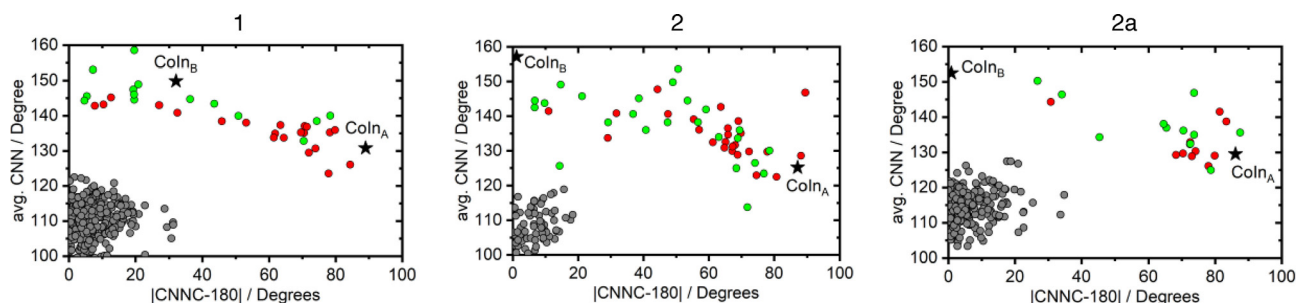


Figure 3. Space of CNN and CNNC angles featured by the relevant geometries in all trajectories of **1**, **2**, and $2a$. The CNNC angle is evaluated as the deviation from planarity, with 0° corresponding to the E -isomer, and 90° corresponding to CNNC either $+90$ or -90 degrees. In color, the geometries that reached an S_1/S_0 Coln before the time limit (1 ps). The color code indicates trajectories initiated at S_1 (red) and S_2 (green). The black stars indicate the geometry of the Coln obtained from static computations. In dark gray, all geometries at which a hopping between S_1 and S_2 occurred in the NAMD trajectories. All computations have been performed at the ω B97X-D/6-31G(d) level, and the quasi-degeneracy along the crossing seam is verified by additional CC2 and ADC(2) computations with the TZVP basis set (see Section S3 in the Supporting Information).

as temperature, pressure, or solvent. Finally, the vast majority of Coln in **2a** are rotational (see Figure 3). The reason is that the $n\pi^*$ and GS PES are no longer quasi-degenerate in a region of the crossing seam associated with the inversion pathway (see Figure S3.4 in the Supporting Information). This explains why push–pull derivatives favor the rotational over the inversion pathway. This outcome could have not been anticipated from the energy maps in Figure 1. The energy of S_1 and Coln_A for **2a** are similar to those of **1** and **2**, and the lower S_2 excitation energy is counterbalanced by a more stable and, thus, equally accessible Coln_B. The low ratio of inversion-like Coln in **2a** is thus not suggested by the static picture.

In addition to the structural aspects at the crossing points, we analyze the time at which they are reached in the NAMD simulations. Overall, the Coln connecting the $n\pi^*$ and ground states in **1**, **2**, and **2a** are reached in approximately 500 fs, with significant differences depending on the compound and excitation energy (see t_{Coln} in Table 1). The main steps are (i) the relaxation from the $\pi\pi^*$ to the $n\pi^*$ state, and (ii) the change in CNN and CNNC angles necessary to reach the crossing seam (see discussion above). The mechanism and kinetics of each individual steps is better understood by considering four characteristic times (see Scheme 1): t_{Coln} is the time until reaching a Coln, t_{S_1} and t_{S_2} are the times spent in the S_1 and S_2 states, and t_{Last} is the time required to reach a Coln after the last crossing to S_1 . The difference between t_{S_1} and t_{Last} (Δt in Table 1) reveals whether the system is retained in a region of

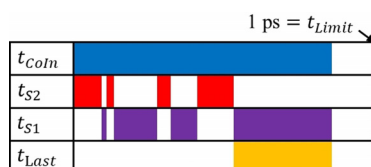
the S_1 -PES with frequent crossings between S_1 and S_2 states, before it reaches a Coln (see Computational Details).

Both t_{Coln} and t_{S_2} depend on the relative energy separation between the $n\pi^*$ and $\pi\pi^*$ states; in general, t_{S_2} decreases together with the energy gap. The stronger the push–pull character of a system, the more redshifted is the $\pi\pi^*$ state, resulting in a smaller gap, and a faster decay from the $\pi\pi^*$ to the $n\pi^*$ state (see t_{S_2} in Table 1). It is, however, interesting to observe that the overall photoisomerization process (t_{Coln}) does not follow the same trend as t_{S_2} , and this is for two reasons. In **1** and **2**, the energy gap between the $n\pi^*$ and $\pi\pi^*$ states is sufficiently large so that the relaxation from the $\pi\pi^*$ state is a one-way process. In other words, the trajectories proceed undisturbed along the $n\pi^*$ PES towards a Coln. In **2a**, however, the two PES overlap more often, which leads to an increased probability of hopping back to the $\pi\pi^*$ state, effectively delaying the evolution towards a Coln. This is quantified by Δt in Table 1, and can also be verified in the time-evolution of the S_2 population (Figure S3.1 in the Supporting Information).

The second reason for the slower photoisomerization of **2a** is that its trajectories need longer times to reach a Coln once in the $n\pi^*$ surface, as quantified by t_{Last} (Table 1).^[51] Such a behavior is surprising if one considers that the energetic profile summarized in Figure 1 places the S_1 excitation significantly higher in energy than Coln_A. Along this line, the PES of the $n\pi^*$ state shows no energy barrier between the FC region and Coln_A (see Figure S2.1 in the Supporting Information). The actual explanation for the longer t_{Last} in **2a** is rooted in the Coln structure distribution within the crossing seam. Generally, the trajectories that reach a Coln with a pronounced rotational character display slower kinetics than those with a marked tendency toward inversion (see Figure S3.2 in the Supporting Information). This difference is a manifestation of the distinct timescale associated with the rotation and inversion towards the crossing seam. In particular, the inversion-like region of the seam is explored readily after populating S_1 . If a Coln is not accessed therein, as in **2a**, the system then evolves toward the rotation-like region, exhibiting slower photoisomerization kinetics. This perspective is in agreement with what has been characterized computationally for phenylazoheteroarenes,^[37] namely that the evolution along the $n\pi^*$ surface implies an initial flattening of the CNN angle (i.e., inversion), followed by the CNNC torsion (i.e., rotation). To summarize, push–pull derivatives undergo a faster decay from S_2 to S_1 but a slower evolution from S_1 to S_0 because of both the hopping back to $\pi\pi^*$ and the longer time needed to reach the rotational Coln. The clear preference of **2a** for the rotational pathway potentially suggests that the increase in push–pull character may result in a photoisomerization process with a higher quantum yield (see above).

Table 1. (Top) Ratio (R) of trajectories reaching a Coln before the time limit (1 ps). (Bottom) The characteristic times described in the main text and in Scheme 1 (in fs). Confidence intervals associated with these values, as well as their convergence with the number of trajectories is given in Section S3.3 (in the Supporting Information).

Initial State		Compound		
		1	2	2a
R	S_1	0.84	1.00	0.55
	S_2	0.56	0.96	0.55
t_{Coln}	S_1	419	330	644
	S_2	530	373	483
t_{S_1}	S_1	419	330	637
	S_2	250	260	413
t_{S_2}	S_1	0	0	23
	S_2	280	113	69
t_{Last}	S_1	419	330	536
	S_2	244	258	323
Δt	S_1	0	0	100
	S_2	6	2	90



Scheme 1. Schematic representation of the four characteristic times discussed in the main text to analyze the NAMD. These are computed as an average for each set of trajectories representing the S_1 or S_2 excitation of **1–2a**.

Conclusion

We have characterized the static and dynamic photoisomerization pathway of three heteroarene derivatives (**1–2a**). The static Coln-search reports rotation-like (Coln_A) and inversion-like (Coln_B) conical intersections connecting the $n\pi^*$ and

ground states at around 2.3 and 3.3 eV above the *E*-minima, respectively. The results from the NAMD describe a crossing seam connecting Coln_A and Coln_B , similar to what has been reported for AB.^[24,27] The decay from the $\pi\pi^*$ to the $n\pi^*$ state is more controversial. The non-planar Coln_C located^[13] by CASSCF for phenylazindoles could not be identified in **1–2a** (see Section S2 in the Supporting Information). However, the ultrafast (ca. 100 fs) relaxation observed from the $\pi\pi^*$ to the $n\pi^*$ state that proceeds at planar geometries close to the *E*-isomer minimum, is in agreement with the literature on AB (100–300 fs).^[19,52,53] The existence of Coln_C may thus be an artefact from SA3-CASSCF/6-31G*.

With the increase in push–pull character, the $\pi\pi^*$ state of the heteroarene is progressively redshifted, leading to a stronger overlap with the $n\pi^*$ state, which speeds up the decay towards $n\pi^*$. Once in the $n\pi^*$ state, further 200–600 fs are necessary to reach the crossing seam connecting the $n\pi^*$ and ground states, close to the values reported for AB (ca. 500–1000 fs).^[7,18,19,21] The actual amount of time depends on which region of the crossing seam is accessed, with the rotational mechanism displaying a slower $n\pi^*$ -to-GS relaxation. The unsubstituted heteroarenes (**1** and **2**) exploit both pathways, with rotation and inversion being slightly preferred upon excitation to the $n\pi^*$ and $\pi\pi^*$ states, respectively. In contrast, the push–pull derivative **2a** exhibits a clear preference towards the rotational pathway upon excitation to both states, resulting in a slower photoisomerization than **1** and **2** as the process in **2a** is further slowed down by population transfer back to the $\pi\pi^*$. Overall, push–pull derivatives feature a faster decay from $\pi\pi^*$ to $n\pi^*$, but a slower one from $n\pi^*$ to the ground state.

From a design perspective, push–pull derivatives may thus represent an appealing alternative to improve the photoisomerization quantum yields by virtue of its marked preference for the rotational pathway. It is worthwhile noting that such preference could not be anticipated based on the energy maps (Figure 1). This mismatch, as well as the significant differences between the static and dynamic pictures at describing the crossing region (Coln vs. crossing seam), highlights the risk of establishing conclusions on the photoisomerization mechanism based on the energy of the relevant points on the PES, as commonly done.

Computational Details

Minimal energy crossing points were computed with CIOPT^[47] interfaced with Gaussian 09 (G09).^[54] Based on previous benchmarks,^[38,55,56] we used TD-DFT within the Tamm–Dancoff approximation (TDA), the ω B97X-D functional,^[57,58] and the 6-31G(d) basis set. The Non-Adiabatic Molecular Dynamics (NAMD) simulations were performed with Newton-X^[59,60] interfaced with G09.^[54] Additional computations at the ADC(2)/TZVP level can be found in the Supporting Information. The initial conditions were generated from the Wigner distribution based on the harmonic oscillator, five states (S_0 – S_4), a Lorentzian broadening of 0.1 eV, an anharmonicity factor of 3, and at $T=300$ K. From these initial conditions, we obtain the (i) absorption spectra and (ii) a set of the geometries and velocities that could initiate the trajectories. The selected initial conditions are those in which the S_1 and S_2 excitation energy is

centered (and within ± 0.1 eV) at the peak of the respective transition in the spectrum (see Figure 2). A swarm of 25 trajectories has been initiated at each S_1 and S_2 for **1** and **2** (see Section 2.1 in the Supporting Information). Owing to the much larger size of **2a**, we reduced the number of trajectories to 20. Hence, a total of 140 trajectories were run.

The trajectories were computed by using TD-DFT (within TDA) at the ω B97X-D/6-31G(d) level. NAMD were simulated with the fewest-switches surface hopping^[61] corrected for decoherence effects ($\alpha=0.1$ Hartree).^[62] Time-derivative couplings^[63] were computed for all states except S_0 , which is excluded due to the difficulties of TDA to describe the multi-reference character of the electronic wavefunction near a S_1 – S_0 Coln . Moreover, such limitations imply that the trajectories must be terminated right before the conical intersection is reached, which implies that photoisomerization quantum yields cannot be quantified. Accordingly, trajectories ran for a maximum of 1000 fs or until an S_1 – S_0 energy gap below 0.1 eV is reached. In the latter case, it is assumed that the actual Coln is very similar to the final geometry explored in the trajectory, and that it should be reached immediately after in time. The selected time limit of 1000 fs is sufficient to allow most of the trajectories to reach the Coln (see Table 1). Trajectories are propagated in the microcanonical NVE ensemble. Evolution of the kinetic and potential energy for each set of trajectories is shown in Figure S3.6 (in the Supporting Information). Integration was done with a time step of 0.5 (0.025) fs for the classical (quantum) equations. This setup has been successfully employed to study other small-size organic molecules.^[64–68]

Surface-Hopping Molecular Dynamics exploit statistics to mimic the dynamics of nuclear wavepackets,^[69–72] and hence we analyze them as a whole. The kinetics are assessed by using the characteristic times defined in Scheme 1. These are computed for each S_1 and S_2 excitation of **1–2a** as an average using the trajectories that reach a Coln before the time limit of 1000 fs. Should the trajectories be allowed to continue beyond 1000 fs, the associated times would change, t_{Coln} and t_{S_1} would increase as the slower trajectories would start counting towards the average, whereas the change in t_{S_2} is harder to anticipate. As a general rule, the values are more representative when the ratio of trajectories that reached a Coln within the time limit is closer to 1 (R in Table 1).

Dataset: The dataset will be available upon publication at the Zenodo repository.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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