

# High-Performance Thermally Stable Organic Phototransistors Based on PSeTPTI/PC<sub>61</sub>BM for Visible and Ultraviolet Photodetection

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Phototransistors are three-terminal photodetectors which usually have higher photosensitivity than photodiodes due to the presence of gate electrode. In this report, organic phototransistors (OPTs) based on a donor material, namely, poly{2,5-selenophene-alt-2,8-(4,10-bis(2-hexyldecyl))thieno[2',3':5,6]-pyrido[3,4-g]thieno[3,2-c]isoquinoline-5,11(4H,10H)-dione} (PSeTPTI), are fabricated and intensively studied. As unipolar p-type organic semiconductor usually has plenty of electron traps in the bulk to impede electron transporting, most of photogenerated electrons will fill the traps in PSeTPTI and this process can prolong the response time. By introducing [6,6]-phenyl C<sub>61</sub> butyric acid methyl ester on top, the p–n heterojunction can produce most of the photocurrent and eliminates the influence from the process of trapping electrons. This mechanism improves the photoresponsivity and response speed. Since ultraviolet (UV) detection is very important in some fields including military, aerospace, and biology, the OPTs are characterized under UV illumination besides the visible light and they present high sensitivity. Furthermore, organic semiconductors often have bad stability in harsh conditions and meanwhile some devices need to work in these environments. At high temperature even up to 200 °C, our OPTs can work normally and show very high stability, indicating the potential of the devices in applications of high-temperature environments.

## 1. Introduction

With tremendous developments of molecular design and processing technique, organic field-effect transistors (OFETs) are becoming a more and more competitive candidate for applications like radio frequency identification (RFID) tags, smart cards, and active matrix displays.<sup>[1–5]</sup> Besides functioning as a

logic switch, multiple functions are developed for OFETs such as light-emitting devices, memory cells, and sensors.<sup>[6–8]</sup> By virtue of chemical versatility, the optoelectronic features of organic materials are easily tuned and organic semiconductors usually display high light absorption coefficient.<sup>[9–12]</sup> Thus, OFETs-based light sensors namely organic phototransistors (OPTs) are attracting researchers' attention more and more.<sup>[13–17]</sup> Compared with light sensors that have two terminals, phototransistors enable easier control of light-detection sensitivity without problems such as the noise increment due to the additional gate terminal.<sup>[13]</sup> For thin-film OPTs, Noh et al. fabricated OPTs based on 2,5-bis-biphenyl-4-yl-thieno[3,2-b]thiophene (BPTT) with maximum responsivity (*R*) of 82 A W<sup>−1</sup>.<sup>[18]</sup> Poly(3-hexylthiophene) (P3HT) based OPTs showed *R* of 245 A W<sup>−1</sup>.<sup>[19]</sup> poly(9,9-dioctylfluorene-co-bithiophene) (F8T2) and poly(3,3'-didodecylquaterthiophene) (PQT-12) based OPTs showed *R* of 18.5 and 6.6 A W<sup>−1</sup>.<sup>[20,21]</sup> Recently, Joo and co-workers reported a high *R* of 2500–4300 A W<sup>−1</sup> with

a star-shaped molecule 1,2,4,5-tetra(5'-hexyl-[2,2']-bithiophenyl-5-vinyl)-benzene (4(HPBT)-benzene).<sup>[15]</sup> Single crystal OPTs always present higher responsivity due to the low trap density and fast charge transport. With 6-methyl-anthra[2,3-b]benzo[d]thiophene (Me-ABT) microribbon, the OPTs display high *R* of 12 000 A W<sup>−1</sup>.<sup>[14]</sup> OPTs with single crystal anthracene-2-ethynyl-5-hexyldithieno[3,2-b:2',3'-d]thiophene (A-EHDTT) present *R* of 1.4 × 10<sup>4</sup> A W<sup>−1</sup>.<sup>[17]</sup> However, though owning higher performance, the single crystal OPTs are not fit for the low-cost large-scale fabrication. Thus, developing thin-film OPTs is more desirable. Moreover, response time of OPTs is less studied although these characteristics are very important in practical photosensing applications. It is necessary to investigate and improve the response time in OPTs for further enhancing the performance.

For wavelength of photodetection, ultraviolet (UV) region holds an important position as UV detection can be applied in fields like chemical sensing, military application, ozone sensing, and missile warning.<sup>[22,23]</sup> We performed UV photoresponse test besides the visible light detection. Our OPTs present maximum *R* as high as 2.2 × 10<sup>4</sup> A W<sup>−1</sup> under UV illumination. Since some

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special conditions require stable devices capable of working in harsh environments such as at high temperature, it is important to discuss whether organic based photodetectors can qualify under such stringent conditions, especially in consideration that organic semiconductors always show instable performance at high temperature. So stably working OPTs under high-temperature conditions are useful but challenging. We performed a photoresponse test of OPTs working at high temperature up to 200 °C and the OPTs present very good stability. This result indicates that even though under such stringent conditions of 200 °C, our OPTs can work normally and stably.

## 2. Results and Discussion

### 2.1. OFETs

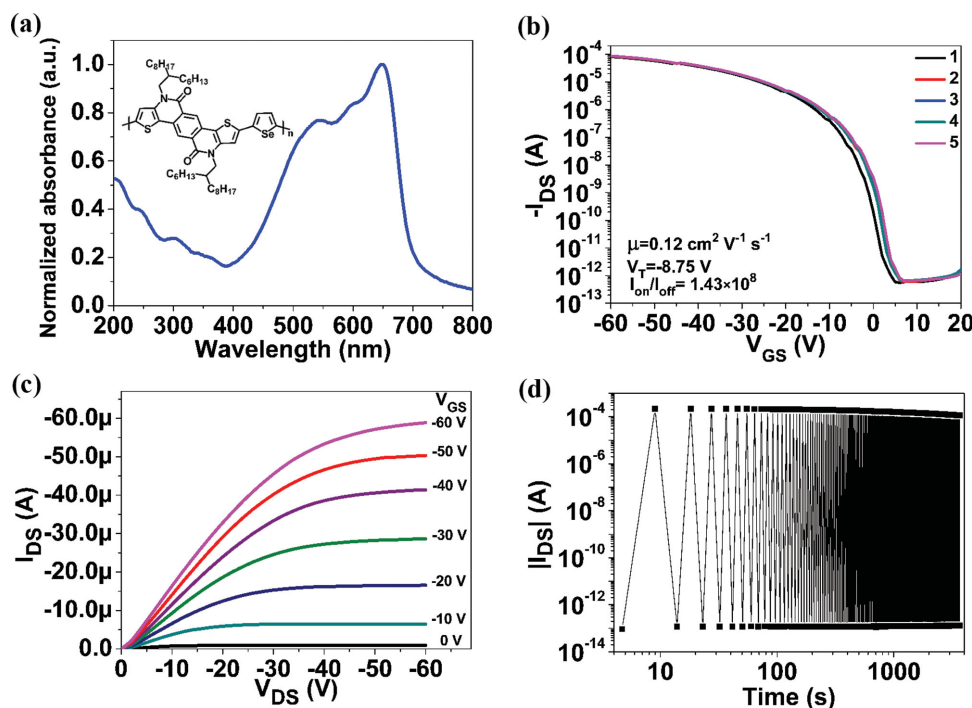
Inset of **Figure 1a** presents the chemical structure of poly{2,5-selenophene-alt-2,8-(4,10-bis(2-hexyldecyl))thieno[2',3':5,6]-pyrido[3,4-g]thieno[3,2-c]isoquinoline-5,11(4*H*,10*H*)-dione} (PSeTPTI). With selenophene instead of thiophene, the molecular acquires enhanced planarity, extended conjugation length, and reduced bandgap.<sup>[24]</sup> Selenium is more polarizable than sulfur, Se–Se interactions favor interchain charge hopping and increase hole mobility.<sup>[25]</sup> With these features, PSeTPTI can be a good hole transporting material. In previous report, PSeTPTI/[6,6]-phenyl C71 butyric acid methyl ester (PSeTPTI/PCBM) solar cells showed PCE of 6.04%, indicating that PSeTPTI/PCBM can form a wonderful p–n heterojunction.<sup>[26]</sup> **Figure 1a** shows the absorption spectra of spin-coated PSeTPTI film, in which the material displays wide light absorption in

visible and UV region indicating its potential for visible and UV photodetection.

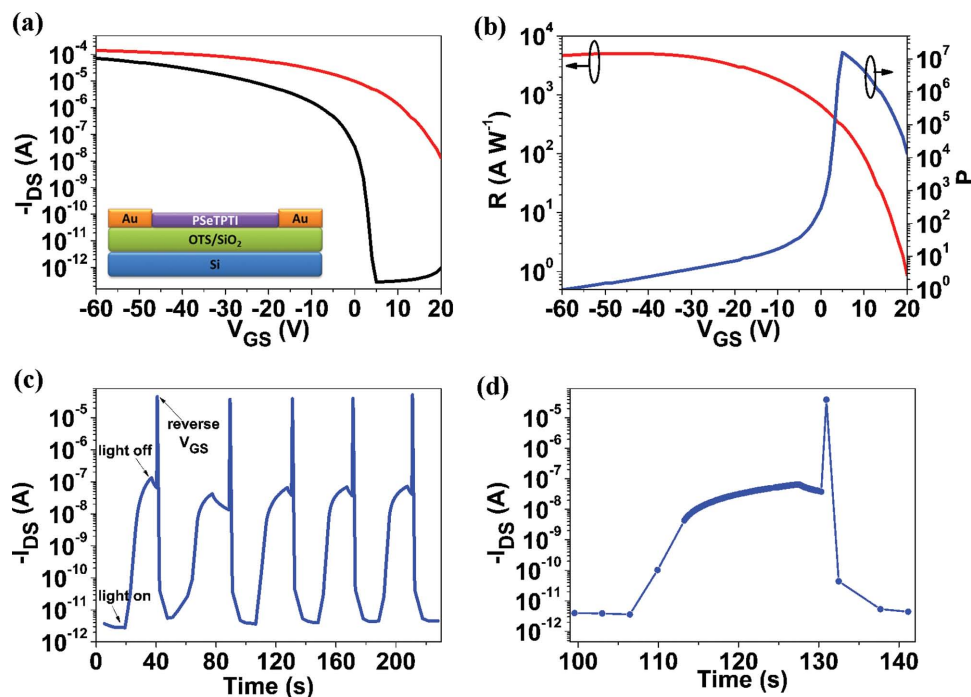
We utilized this donor material PSeTPTI to fabricate our devices. The OFET performance is shown in **Figure 1b,c**. The device shows standard transfer and output curves with hole mobility of  $0.12 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , threshold voltage of  $-8.75 \text{ V}$ , and an on/off ratio of  $1.43 \times 10^8$ . The off current can be below  $10^{-12} \text{ A}$ , which can offer high photosensitivity in photodetection. It should be noted that the fabrication and characterization were performed under ambient conditions. The device was intentionally tested for multiple times and showed stable transfer curves (**Figure 1b**). It is vital that devices have a stable dark state for acting as light sensors. **Figure 1d** shows the on/off current cycle curve, and the on current at  $-80 \text{ V}$  and off current at  $20 \text{ V}$  display little deterioration after 1 h circulation indicating the good electrical stability of the device. Through the characterizations above, the material presents wide light absorption from UV to visible region and the fabricated device shows excellent OFET performance, dark stability, and electrical stability. These characteristics can offer the basic preconditions to be light sensors.

### 2.2. PC<sub>61</sub>BM Enhanced Visible Photodetection

First, the pure-PSeTPTI based OPTs were investigated. The photoresponse behavior was characterized and the results are displayed in **Figure 2**. When the OPT is exposed to the white light, the  $I_{\text{DS}}$  increases dramatically because the absorbed photons generate charge carriers to boost the current (**Figure 2a**). From the transfer curves in the dark and under illumination, we calculated two important parameters of OPTs, namely,  $R$  and



**Figure 1.** a) Chemical structure and absorption spectra of PSeTPTI. b,c) Transfer and output curves of pure PSeTPTI based OFET under ambient conditions ( $V_{\text{DS}} = -60 \text{ V}$ ,  $W = 1400 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $L = 10 \mu\text{m}$ ). d) The on/off current cycle testing for 1 h ( $V_{\text{DS}} = -60 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{\text{GS}} = 20 \text{ V}$ , or  $-80 \text{ V}$ ).



**Figure 2.** a) Transfer curves of pure PSeTPTI based OPT in the dark and under white light illumination ( $107 \mu W cm^{-2}$ ). Inset: device structure of the OPT. b)  $R$  and  $P$  as a function of  $V_{GS}$ . c) The real-time  $I_{DS}$  change under dynamic photoswitching on/off ( $V_{GS} = 10$  V,  $V_{DS} = -60$  V). d) One transient photoresponse.

photocurrent/dark-current ratio ( $P$ ), based on the following fundamental equations<sup>[13]</sup>

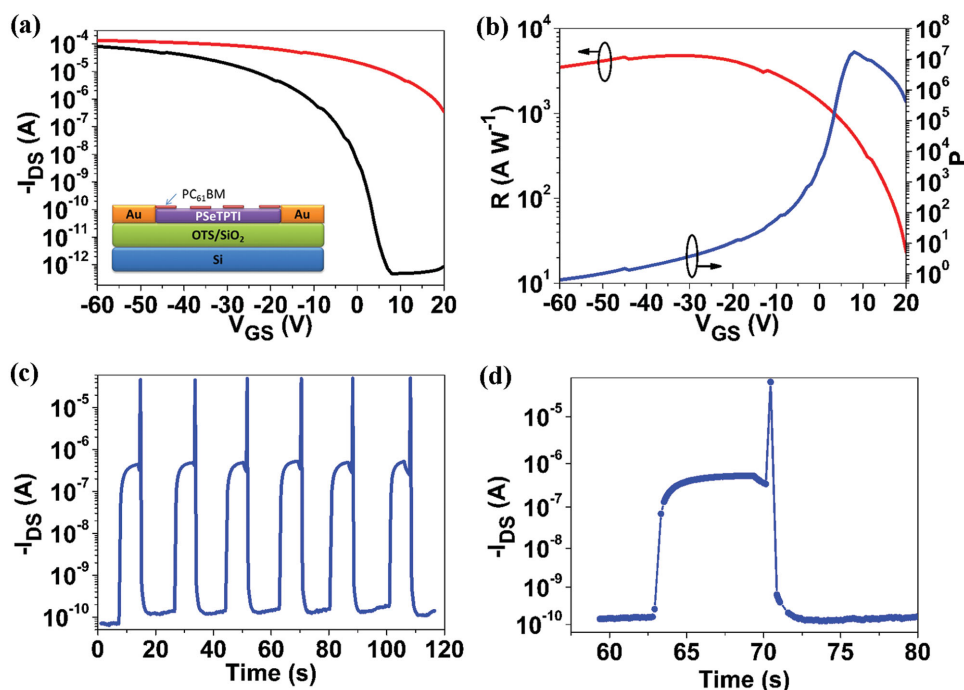
$$R = \frac{I_{ph}}{P_{inc}} = \frac{I_{light} - I_{dark}}{P_{inc}} \quad (1)$$

$$P = \frac{I_{ph}}{I_{dark}} = \frac{I_{light} - I_{dark}}{I_{dark}} \quad (2)$$

where  $I_{light}$  is the drain current under illumination,  $I_{dark}$  is the drain current in the dark.  $P_{inc}$  is the incident illumination power on the channel area. The  $R$  and  $P$  versus  $V_{GS}$  curves are shown in Figure 2b. At the cross point of two curves ( $V_{GS} = 3.2$  V), the  $R$  and  $P$  are  $362 A W^{-1}$  and  $1.1 \times 10^5$ , respectively. To demonstrate the real-time photoresponse, the change of  $I_{DS}$  with repeated photo on/off switching was characterized. As can be seen from Figure 2c, the device displays reproducible photosensing behavior. In every photoresponse cycle, the persistent photoconductivity (PPC) was observed.<sup>[15,27,28]</sup> The PPC phenomenon signifies that the  $I_{DS}$  declines very slowly and maintains a high current value for a long time even after the light is off. This is probably because the trapped photoelectrons which recombine tardily and live long slower the recovery of the current. Thus, an additional negative gate voltage pulse ( $-80$  V, the peak value point in every cycle) which can drive the recombination forcefully is needed to erase the photomemory effect. On the other hand, each photoresponse cycle is just like an erasable memory operation. That is the “write” operation (light on), the “read-on” operation (the on-state current maintains due to the PPC), the “erase” operation (negative gate voltage

pulse), and the “read-off” operation (the off-state current after erasing). This offers multifunction combining memory device and photosensing. In one transient photoresponse, it takes long time for the  $I_{DS}$  to reach maximum value after switching on the light and the rise time (defined as the time for the current to rise to 90% of the maximum value) is as long as 19.4 s (Figure 2d). In this OPT, the semiconductor is only good for transporting holes, but bad for transporting electrons as there are a lot of electron traps in the bulk. Under illumination, the photogenerated holes transport to the drain electrode quickly, but the photogenerated electrons will fill in the electron traps of the p-type material resulting in prolonged lifetime of photogenerated electrons. To keep the neutrality of the semiconductor, each hole reaching the drain is replenished by another entering from the source.<sup>[28]</sup> This is the gain mechanism due to the increased lifetime of photogenerated electrons. That means more trapped electrons will lead to larger gain and larger current. But, because the process for photogenerated electrons to fill in traps until saturation extent requires long time, the rise speed becomes slow. The long rise time not only influences the response speed but also the on-current (the maximum current after switching on the light in the real-time test).

Then, we introduced PSeTPTI/[6,6]-phenyl C<sub>61</sub> butyric acid methyl ester (PC<sub>61</sub>BM) heterojunction trying to improve the OPTs above. 3 nm PC<sub>61</sub>BM (the thickness was obtained from thickness monitor of vacuum evaporation system) was deposited on top of PSeTPTI film by thermal evaporation. We utilized the same device to make a convective comparison. The photoresponse performance is displayed in Figure 3. In the dark, the transfer curve is similar to that of original pure-PSeTPTI based OPT (Figure 3a). Under illumination of the



**Figure 3.** a) Transfer curves of PC<sub>61</sub>BM deposited OPT in the dark and under white light illumination ( $107 \mu\text{W cm}^{-2}$ ). Inset: device structure of this OPT. b)  $R$  and  $P$  as a function of  $V_{GS}$ . c) The real-time  $I_{DS}$  change under dynamic photoswitching on/off ( $V_{GS} = 10 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{DS} = -60 \text{ V}$ ). d) One transient photoresponse.

same power density, the current is larger than that of original OPT in the depletion region. At the cross point ( $V_{GS} = 3.5 \text{ V}$ ),  $R$  and  $P$  reach as high as  $1010 \text{ A W}^{-1}$  and  $2.3 \times 10^5$  (Figure 3b), which are both enhanced compared to the original OPT. This may be due to the higher efficiency of exciton separation from the heterojunction. In photo on-off switching test, the OPT also presents reproducible photosensing behavior (Figure 3c). As can be seen in Figure 3d, the rise time is reduced from 19.4 to 3.2 s. The fall time (defined as the time for the current to decay to 10% of the maximum value) is also reduced from 6.7 to 0.4 s. It is noteworthy that the on-current increases from 61 nA to 537 nA with about nine times enhancement. In real-time photoresponse test, the  $R$  and the rise time both decide the on-current value, larger  $R$  and smaller rise time will lead to higher on-current. The p–n heterojunction enhances the  $R$  and reduces the rise time, so the on-current is larger. Regarding the maximum measured  $R$  and  $P$ , our device presents maximal  $R$  and  $P$  as high as  $4808 \text{ A W}^{-1}$  and  $1.7 \times 10^7$ , respectively.

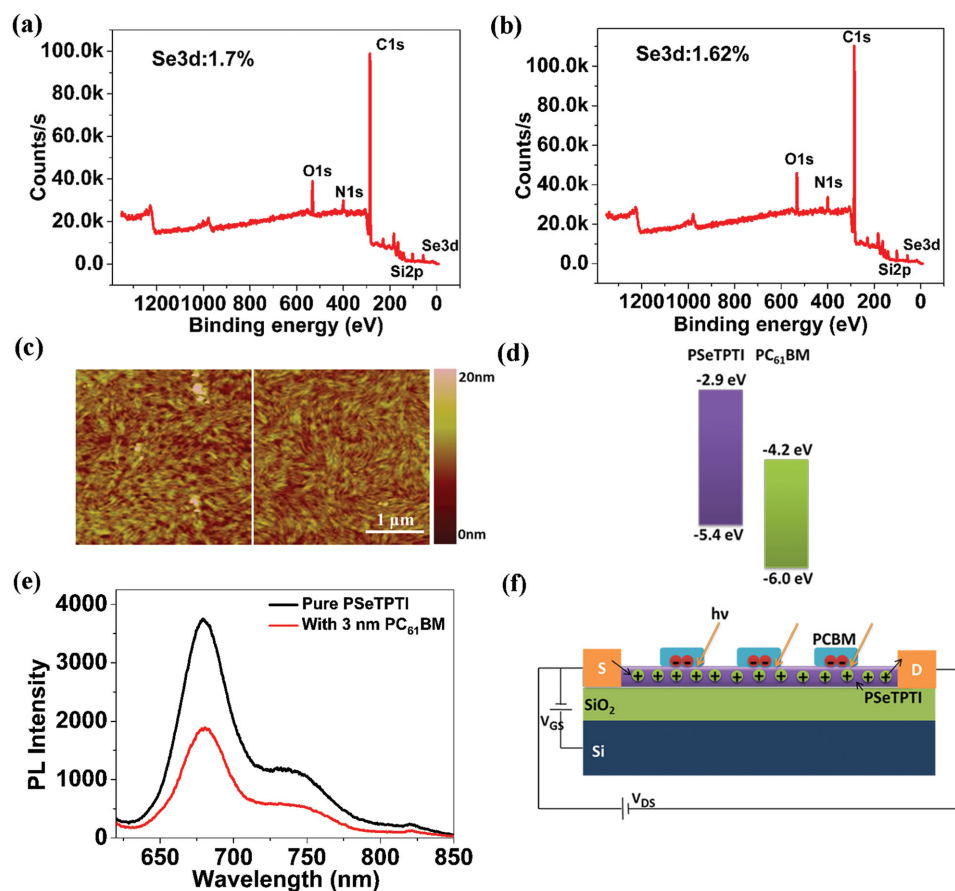
For making the mechanism of enhancement clear, the device was characterized by atomic force microscope (AFM) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). As is shown in AFM image (Figure 4c), the morphology of PSeTPTI with deposited PC<sub>61</sub>BM is similar with that of pure PSeTPTI. The PC<sub>61</sub>BM just makes the surface a little more compact with surface roughness  $R_q$  reducing from 2.11 to 1.49 nm. From the XPS results (Figure 4a,b), the surface Se content changes slightly from 1.7% to 1.62%, indicating that the PC<sub>61</sub>BM does not cover the whole PSeTPTI layer.

Combining the results of AFM and XPS, the PC<sub>61</sub>BM should have a disperse status on the surface of PSeTPTI just like disperse nanoparticles (Figure 4f). This disperse PC<sub>61</sub>BM can offer p–n heterojunction but will not form a continuous electron

transporting channel which does not influence the OFET behavior and maintains gain mechanism. Figure 4d presents the energy levels (highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO)) of PSeTPTI and PC<sub>61</sub>BM. From the energy levels, the electrons can transfer from the LUMO of PSeTPTI to the LUMO of PC<sub>61</sub>BM. We also performed the photoluminescence (PL) measurement. The PL intensity is weakened with 3 nm PC<sub>61</sub>BM compared to the pure PSeTPTI film (Figure 4e). This result also indicates the charge transfer phenomenon between the two materials. In this OPT structure, excitons are also generated in the PSeTPTI but mainly separated in the p–n heterojunction interface. The photogenerated electrons are transferred into disperse PC<sub>61</sub>BM region very fast and the holes are transported to the drain electrode along the PSeTPTI channel.<sup>[29]</sup> This is the main photocurrent mechanism. Even though the original process for photoelectrons generated in the PSeTPTI bulk to fill the traps still exists, the generating charge carriers from PSeTPTI/PC<sub>61</sub>BM heterojunction contribute to most of the photocurrent. As a result, the response speed is not influenced by the original process. Meanwhile, due to the p–n interface to supply a better recombination region, the fall time is also reduced. Summary of detailed performance comparison is listed in Table 1.

We also investigated the performance with different PC<sub>61</sub>BM thicknesses. As shown in Figure 5a, the mobility of OFET changes little with 3 nm PC<sub>61</sub>BM, but starting from 5 nm, the mobility decreased about three times compared with device without PC<sub>61</sub>BM. With thicker PC<sub>61</sub>BM, the depletion region of PSeTPTI/PC<sub>61</sub>BM heterojunction may begin to influence the hole accumulating and transporting in the channel, leading to the decreased mobility. (We also tested the devices





**Figure 4.** a,b) XPS curves of PSeTPTI thin film without and with 3 nm PC<sub>61</sub>BM. c) AFM images of PSeTPTI without and with 3 nm PC<sub>61</sub>BM (from left to right). d) Energy levels of PSeTPTI and PC<sub>61</sub>BM. e) Photoluminescence spectra of pure PSeTPTI and PSeTPTI with 3 nm PC<sub>61</sub>BM. f) Schematic of charge separation and transporting process.

without PC<sub>61</sub>BM after the same storage time, the mobility did not change.) Under illumination, the  $I_{DS}$  increases with 3 nm PC<sub>61</sub>BM, due to the introduced p–n heterojunction aforementioned. From 5 to 20 nm, the  $I_{DS}$  decreases obviously and becomes lower even than the device without PC<sub>61</sub>BM. By depositing more PC<sub>61</sub>BM, the PC<sub>61</sub>BM layer probably forms a few continuous electron transporting channels between the source/drain electrodes. From the following equation<sup>[30]</sup>

$$G = \frac{(\mu_n + \mu_p) \tau E}{L} \quad (3)$$

$$R = EQE \frac{\lambda e}{hc} G \quad (4)$$

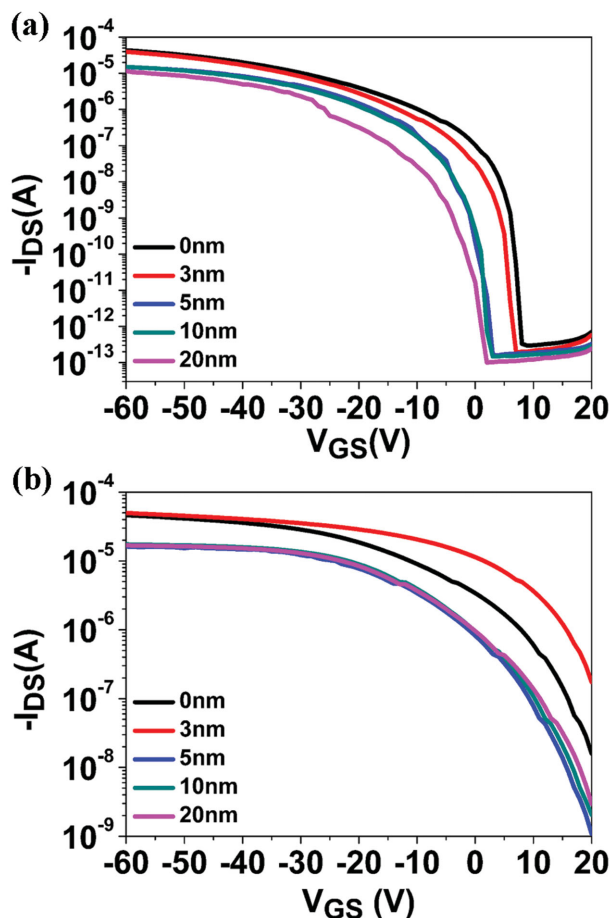
**Table 1.** Performance comparison of PSeTPTI-based OPTs without and with PC<sub>61</sub>BM under white light.

Materials	$R$ [A W <sup>-1</sup> ]	$P$	On-current [nA]	Rise time [s]	Fall time [s]
Pure PSeTPTI	362	$1.1 \times 10^5$	61	19.4	6.7
With PC <sub>61</sub> BM	1010	$2.3 \times 10^5$	537	3.2	0.4

where  $G$  is the photogain value,  $L$  stands for the device channel length,  $\mu_n$  is the electron mobility,  $\mu_p$  is the hole mobility,  $\tau$  is the photocarrier lifetime,  $E$  is the electrical field in the device,  $EQE$  is external quantum efficiency,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of incident light,  $e$  is the absolute value of electron charge,  $h$  is the Planck constant, and  $c$  is the light speed. The continuous electron channel will reduce the lifetime of photoelectrons and results in lower  $G$  and lower  $R$ . Moreover, the mobility also decreases from 5 nm. These factors lead to lower photocurrent though the more PC<sub>61</sub>BM introduces more p–n heterojunctions.

### 2.3. High-Performance UV Photodetection

Since UV photodetection is very useful in some important fields like aerospace, military, and biological sensing. We explored the UV photodetection performance of the devices. UV photoresponse test was performed with a 365 nm light source of  $43 \mu\text{W cm}^{-2}$ . Under 365 nm UV illumination, the transfer curve moves upward dramatically due to the increased charge carriers density by UV excitation (Figure 6a). Based on Equations (1) and (2),  $R$  and  $P$  are calculated. Moreover, due to monochromatic light,  $G$  can be obtained and the normalized detectivity ( $D^*$ ) can be roughly evaluated (assuming that the



**Figure 5.** a) Transfer curves with different thicknesses of PC<sub>61</sub>BM in the dark. b) Transfer curves with different thicknesses of PC<sub>61</sub>BM under white light illumination.

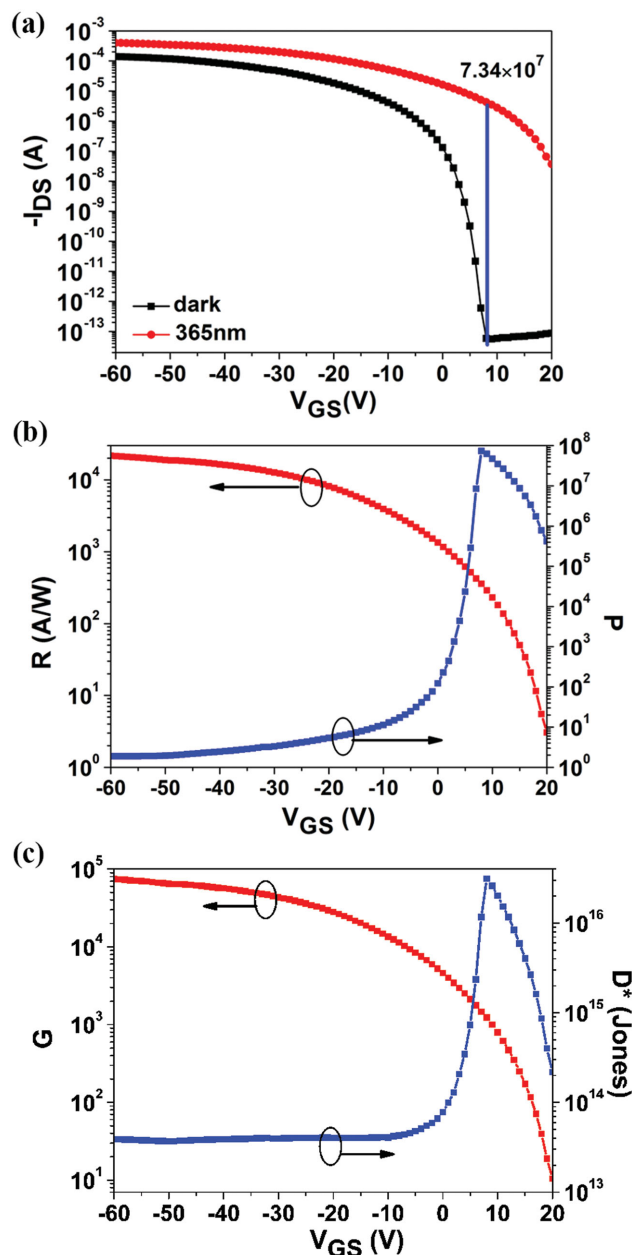
shot noise from the dark current is the major noise contribution) based on the following equations<sup>[12,31]</sup>

$$G = \frac{N1(\text{photo charges})}{N2(\text{incident photons})} = \frac{1240 \times (I_{\text{light}} - I_{\text{dark}})}{\lambda(\text{nm}) \times P_{\text{inc}}} \quad (5)$$

$$D^* = R(S/2eI_{\text{dark}})^{1/2} \quad (6)$$

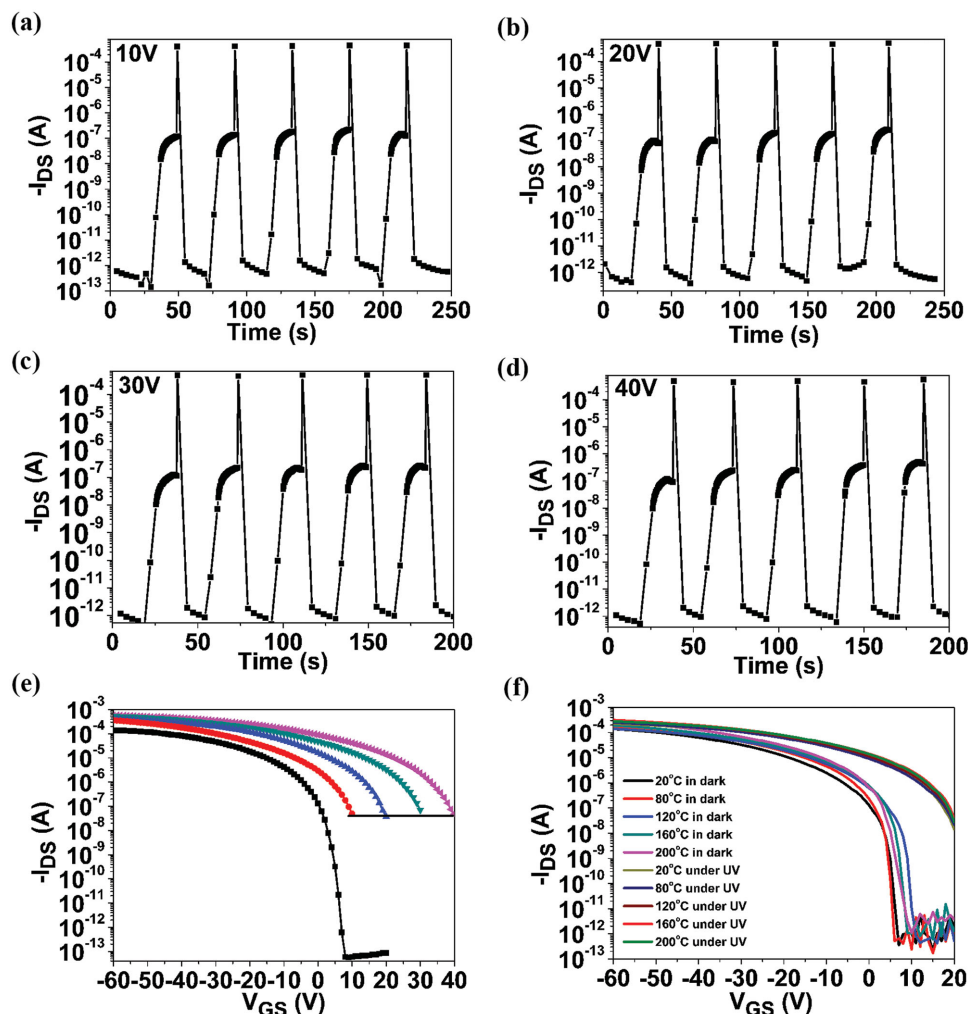
where  $S$  is the effective area under illumination. As is shown in Figure 6b, the maximum  $R$  can be as high as  $2.2 \times 10^4 \text{ A W}^{-1}$  and  $P$  can be  $7.3 \times 10^7$ . At the cross point ( $V_{\text{GS}} = 5.5 \text{ V}$ ), the  $R$  and  $P$  are  $513 \text{ A W}^{-1}$  and  $9.6 \times 10^4$ , respectively. In Figure 6c, the maximum  $G$  of the OPTs was nearly  $10^5$ . The  $D^*$  of our photodetectors is above  $10^{13}$  Jones and the maximum value was  $3.1 \times 10^{16}$  Jones. At  $V_{\text{GS}} = 5.5 \text{ V}$  (the cross point of  $R$  and  $P$  curves), the  $G$  and  $D^*$  are  $1.9 \times 10^3$  and  $1.3 \times 10^{15}$  Jones, respectively. These results indicate the high UV sensitivity of our OPTs.

The real-time photo on/off switching test was also investigated. As can be found in Figure 6a, different  $V_{\text{GS}}$  will produce different  $I_{\text{DS}}$  under UV illumination. We studied the real-time photoresponse under different  $V_{\text{GS}}$  (10, 20, 30, 40 V).



**Figure 6.** a) Transfer curves in the dark and under 365 nm UV light with  $43 \mu\text{W cm}^{-2}$  intensity. b)  $R$  and  $P$  as a function of  $V_{\text{GS}}$ . c)  $G$  and  $D^*$  as a function of  $V_{\text{GS}}$ .

Surprisingly, the curves are similar, especially regarding the on-current value (Figure 7a–d). This is adverse to anticipation from Figure 6a. In every photoresponse cycle, the PPC phenomenon was also observed indicating the photomemory effect. Figure 7e shows the transfer curves with different starting  $V_{\text{GS}}$  under UV light. With more positive starting  $V_{\text{GS}}$ , the threshold voltage moved to a more positive one leading to a higher  $I_{\text{DS}}$  curve than that with smaller starting  $V_{\text{GS}}$ . This result is just due to the photomemory effect. The situations are different sweeping from 10 V and from 20 V. The photomemory effect of the previous sweeping region from 20 to 10 V will influence the  $I_{\text{DS}}$  at 10 V. Thus, under the same  $V_{\text{GS}}$  of 10 V, the  $I_{\text{DS}}$  value sweeping from



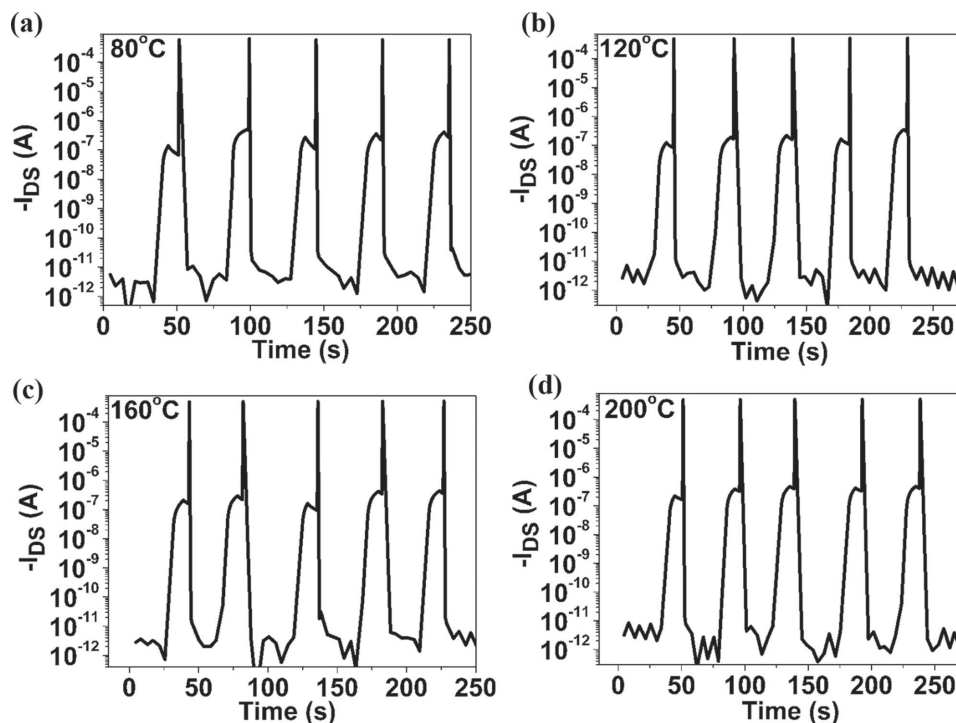
**Figure 7.** a–d) Real-time photoresponse test under different  $V_{GS}$  of 10, 20, 30, and 40 V,  $V_{DS} = -60$  V. e) Transfer curves in the dark and under UV light with different starting  $V_{GS}$ ,  $V_{DS} = -60$  V. f) Transfer curves of devices in the dark and under UV light working at different temperatures of 20, 80, 120, 160, and 200 °C.

20 V will be higher than that from 10 V. That means the  $I_{DS}$  value at 10 V in transfer curves sweeping from 20 V is not the real-time one and overrated due to the memory effect. As can be seen in Figure 7e, the currents at starting  $V_{GS}$  were similar indicating the similar photocurrent in the real-time test (Figure 7a–d).

## 2.4. Thermally Stable OPTs

For potential applications in harsh environment conditions, we explored the UV photodetection of our OPTs at high temperatures. From the thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) of PSeTPTI and PCBM,<sup>[26,32]</sup> the decomposition temperatures are both above 400 °C. As known from the previous report, the performance of PSeTPTI based transistors was insensitive to annealing temperature.<sup>[26]</sup> These factors inspired us to explore the possible application of our devices at high temperature. Figure 7f presents the transfer curves of our OPTs in the dark and under light at different temperatures of 20, 80, 120, 160, and 200 °C (these temperatures refer to the working temperatures and were obtained

through a hot plate under the devices). In the dark, the transfer curves are similar and the mobility keeps stable. The temperature independence of mobility was also found in previous reports.<sup>[33]</sup> As is generally known, for band transporting model of charge carriers, the temperature coefficient is negative ( $d\mu/dT < 0$ ), for hopping transporting model of charge carriers, the temperature coefficient is positive ( $d\mu/dT > 0$ ). The temperature independence indicates that the transport mechanism is intermediate between these two modes of transport.<sup>[33]</sup> Under UV illumination, the similar mobility will lead to a similar  $R$ . Thus, the transfer curves under UV illumination are almost the same (Figure 7f). For demonstrating a practical application, we performed the real-time photoresponse test. Figure 8a–d presents the  $I_{DS}$  change with several dynamic photo on/off switching under high-temperature conditions. At 80, 120, 160 °C, and even up to 200 °C, the OPT presents reproducible photoresponse behavior. At these high temperatures, the dark currents are all below  $10^{-11}$  A, and the currents under UV light are all above  $10^{-7}$  A, maintaining stable photoresponse performance. This result indicates that our OPTs are capable of stably working under high-temperature conditions.



**Figure 8.** a–d) Real-time photoresponse test of devices working at 80, 120, 160, and 200 °C ( $V_{GS} = 10$  V,  $V_{DS} = -60$  V).

### 3. Conclusion

In conclusion, donor material PSeTPTI, which has wide light absorption from UV to visible region, was used to fabricate OPTs. The devices show high carrier mobility under ambient conditions with excellent electrical stability. With dispersed PC<sub>61</sub>BM deposited on the top of the PSeTPTI surface, the photoresponsivity and response speed are both improved as the introduced PSeTPTI/PC<sub>61</sub>BM heterojunction offers a better mechanism of photocurrent generation and meanwhile the disperse PC<sub>61</sub>BM does not influence the OFET performance and photogain.

Besides the visible light, the UV photodetection was also investigated. The OPTs present high UV sensitivity with maximum  $R$  of  $2.2 \times 10^4$  A/W,  $P$  of  $7.3 \times 10^7$ ,  $G$  of  $7.5 \times 10^4$ , and  $D^*$  of  $3.1 \times 10^{16}$  Jones. Moreover, the OPTs are thermally stable at high temperature even up to 200 °C, showing great potential working at high-temperature environments. Our results here should be very encouraging in exploring high-performance and thermally stable OPTs for multicolor detection.

### 4. Experimental Section

**Device Fabrication:** Heavily n-doped silicon was utilized as the common gate electrode and the silicon oxide (300 nm,  $10$  nF cm<sup>-2</sup>) acted as the dielectric film. The source and drain electrodes onto the SiO<sub>2</sub> were prepatterned Ti/Au by standard photolithography. The SiO<sub>2</sub> was modified by an octadecyltrichlorosilane (OTS) formed self-assembly monolayer. Then, the PSeTPTI solution with a concentration of 8 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> was spin coated onto the wafer at 2000 rpm for 30 s with post annealing of 100 °C for just 5 min. All the fabrication processes were performed in air. The PC<sub>61</sub>BM was thermally evaporated at  $0.1$  Å s<sup>-1</sup> under a vacuum pressure of  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa.

**Device Characterization:** UV–vis spectra were recorded using a JASCO V-570 spectrophotometer. The PL spectra were measured using an F-4500 fluorescence spectrophotometer. A Keithley 4200 semiconductor characterization system was utilized for the electrical test. The white light was offered by a halogen–tungsten lamp and the UV illumination was offered by a UV light. Prior to the utilization of the light, the light intensity was calibrated using a mono-silicon detector. The AFM images were acquired using a Veeco NanoScope IV AFM scanning probe microscope with a silicon cantilever in tapping mode. The XPS measurements were performed in a Kratos Ultra Spectrometer (a base pressure of  $1 \times 10^{-9}$  Torr) using a monochromatized Al K $\alpha$  X-ray photons ( $h\nu = 1486.6$  eV) discharge lamp.

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