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## Ternary organic photodiodes with spectral response from 300 to 1200 nm for spectrometer application

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ABSTRACT The light spectrometer is one of the most widely used optical instruments, allowing users to measure and analyze spectral components. However, to reach a broad spectral response range, most spectrometers have to combine a silicon photodiode with an additional photodiode to account for the limited operating wavelength range of each in isolation. Here, we developed organic photodiodes (OPDs) by combining a novel narrow-bandgap non-fullerene acceptor (COTIC-4Cl) with a polymer donor (PCE10) in the presence of PC71BM as the third component. The resulting device based on the ternary blended material showed a wide spectral response from 300 to 1200 nm, beyond the response range of the traditional silicon-based photodiode. Moreover, at the wavelength of 1100 nm, the resulting OPD exhibited a specific detectivity of  $5 \times 10^{12}$  Jones and a responsivity of 0.3 A W<sup>-1</sup>, with a cut-off frequency of >1 MHz and a linear dynamic range of >120 dB, among the best performances of OPDs. Of particular importance is that, as a proof-of-concept, the resulting ternary OPD was successfully utilized as the key component of a spectrometer to measure the absorption across 300-1200 nm. These results indicate the potential applications of the broadband response OPDs for next-generation spectrometers.

**Keywords:** organic photodetector, ternary, non-fullerene acceptor, spectrometer, short-wave infrared

### INTRODUCTION

The spectral response range of a photodiode is one of the most critical parameters for its practical application [1-3]. To date, the most widely used photodiodes have been based on a light-sensitive layer of silicon (Si), which typically has a remarkably high detectivity range of 300 to approximately 1000 nm [4]. However, to extend the spectral response range to the short-wave infrared

(SWIR) region, spectrometers using Si photodiodes must be further equipped with other photodiodes such as germanium (Ge)- or indium-gallium-arsenide (InGaAs)based photodiodes [5,6]. This combination raises the complexity of the optical, electrical, and software design and the overall cost of the spectrometer. In this regard, it is highly desirable to develop a single photodiode with a wide spectral response range. Generally, inorganic semiconductors (such as Si, Ge, and InGaAs) feature singlecrystal structures, the bandgap of which is determined by the lattice constant. Therefore, it is challenging to integrate them into a single photodiode because of crystal lattice mismatches [7,8]. A viable solution to this issue is to use a light-sensitive layer composed of organic semiconducting materials, which have readily tunable absorption spectra and high extinction coefficients that can achieve broad absorption by blending to form bulk-heterojunction films [9–12].

Recent progress has demonstrated that organic semiconducting materials with strong electron-donating and withdrawing moieties can achieve remarkably high photoresponses in the near-infrared (NIR) and SWIR regions [13-16]. For instance, by incorporating an alkoxyl side chain into the core unit to extend the planarity and intramolecular charge transfer effect, the absorption of the resulting molecule (named IEICO-4F) can be considerably extended to approximately 1000 nm [17]. The organic photodiode (OPD) based on IEICO-4F was developed for the applications in visible and NIR spectral regions [18]. The replacement of the indaceno[1,2-b:5, 6-b' dithiophene unit with a strong electron-donating core unit of cyclopentadithiophene in combination with rationally designed molecular symmetry produces a small-molecule acceptor (COTIC-4F), the absorption profile of which can be further extended to approximately

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1130 nm while maintaining relatively high external quantum efficiency (EQE). However, the dark current density of the OPD based on COTIC-4F was relatively high, thus resulting in a moderate detectivity of about  $10^{12}$  Jones (1 Jones = 1 cm Hz<sup>1/2</sup> W<sup>-1</sup>) [19]. These findings testify the great potential of these new organic semiconducting materials as alternative light-sensitive materials relative to their inorganic counterparts, due to their excellent solution-processibility and high extinct coefficients [20].

Herein, we developed a novel non-fullerene acceptor (COTIC-4Cl) containing 2-(5,6-dichloro-3-oxo-2,3-dihydro-1H-inden-1-ylidene)malononitrile as the peripheral unit in the CDT-ThOEH group. The slightly stronger dipole moment of o-dichlorobenzene (2.77 Debye) than that of o-difluorobenzene (2.26 Debye) resulted in a more intense intermolecular charge-transfer [21,22], thus leading to a red-shifted absorption profile that was extended to approximately 1200 nm. The optimized photodiodes based on COTIC-4Cl exhibited a high specific detectivity  $(D^*)$  of  $5 \times 10^{12}$  Jones and a responsivity (R) of  $0.30 \text{ A W}^{-1}$  at 1100 nm, among the best OPDs. These performances, along with response times of <1 µs, a cutoff frequency exceeding 1 MHz, and a large linear dynamic range (LDR) over 120 dB, demonstrated the great potential of this device for practical applications. As a proof-of-concept, we have successfully utilized the fabricated OPD to record the transmittance and absorption of samples from 300 to 1200 nm.

### **EXPERIMENTAL SECTION**

#### Materials

The PCPDTK-Ph was synthesized according to a previously reported method [23,24], and was dissolved in deionized water (1 mg mL<sup>-1</sup>). The poly(indenofluoreneco-triphenylamine) (X-IFTPA) was also synthesized according to a previously reported method [25,26], and was dissolved in chlorobenzene  $(4 \text{ mg mL}^{-1})$ . The poly(3,4ethylenedioxythiophene)-poly(styrenesulfonate) (PED-OT:PSS, PVP AI 4083) was purchased from Heraeus and used as received. The poly[4,8-bis(5-(2-ethylhexyl)thiophen-2-yl)benzo[1,2-b;4,5-b']dithiophene-2,6-diyl-alt-(4-(2-ethylhexyl)-3-fluorothieno[3,4-b]thiophene-)-2-carboxylate-2-6-diyl)] (PCE10) was purchased from ONE Materials Co., Ltd. The COTIC-4Cl was synthesized in our lab (see Scheme S1, <sup>1</sup>H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectra were illustrated in Figs S1 and S2; the electrochemical and optical properties were list in Table S1). Both PC71BM and C60 were purchased from Solenne B. V. The PCE10, COTIC-4Cl and  $PC_{71}BM$  were individually dissolved in chlorobenzene (15 mg mL<sup>-1</sup>) and blended on demand.

### **OPD** fabrication

The indium-tin-oxide (ITO)-coated glass was ultrasonically cleaned by tetrahydrofuran, deionized water, and methanol in sequence. After drying, the substrates were then treated by oxygen plasma (SUNJUNE PLAS-MA VP-R5) for 1 min prior to the film deposition. A 10nm-thick PCPDTK-Ph or 30-nm-thick PEDOT:PSS layer was deposited on the top of the substrates, and annealed at 120°C for 10 min to remove residue moisture. The X-IFTPA layer was spin-coated and annealed at 150°C for 20 min. Then the crosslinked films were rinsed with chlorobenzene to remove any non-crosslinked materials. The binary or ternary bulk heterojunction layers with or without 1 vol% 1-chloronaphthalene were prepared. The C<sub>60</sub>, lithium fluoride (1 nm) and Al (100 nm) layers were deposited in sequence by thermal evaporation at the base pressure of  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa. The device area was 0.0516 cm<sup>2</sup>. To fabricate hole- or electron-dominant devices, MoO<sub>3</sub> was used to replace LiF, or PFNBr was used to replace PCPDTK-Ph, respectively. The resulting device configurations were ITO/PCPDTK-Ph/Active layer/MoO<sub>3</sub>/Al and ITO/PFNBr/Active layer/LiF/Al, respectively.

#### Characterization

The absorption and transmittance spectra were scanned by a commercial spectrometer. The EQE and R spectra were measured by a quantum efficiency measurement system with calibrated Si and Ge detectors (Enlitech QE-R3011). The absorption measurement based on OPD was also performed using this setup. In LDR measurement, we used a 1070 nm light-emitting diode (LED) chip (Thorlabs LED 1070E), an InGaAs photodiode (Newport 818-IG/DB) and a source-meter (Keithley 2400). The light intensity was controlled via a set of neutral-density filters and the driving current of the LED with the voltage unchanged. As for frequency-dependence measurements, we used a signal generator (Tektronix AFG1062) to drive the 1070 nm LED chip, the output current of the device was amplified by FEMTO DHPCA-100 and then recorded by Tektronix TDS3052B. The noise spectral density characteristics of the OPD were measured by a semiconductor parameter analyzer (Platform Design Automation, Inc. FS380 Pro<sup>TM</sup>).

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Fig. 1a shows the molecular structures of the relevant

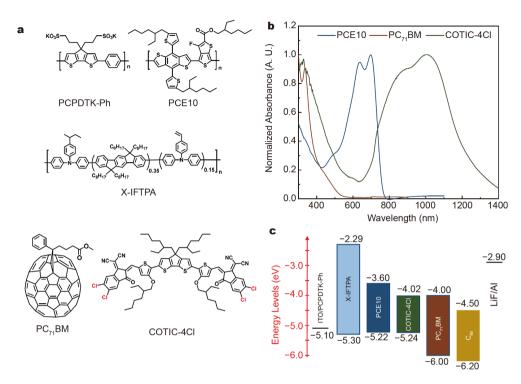


Figure 1 (a) The relevant molecular structures, (b) absorption spectra in film, and (c) energy-level alignment.

materials. The COTIC-4Cl film exhibits broad absorption with a strong absorption band ranging from 600 to about 1400 nm, which is markedly red-shifted relative to its absorption profile in chlorobenzene solution (Fig. S3). Note that the absorption profile of COTIC-4Cl is complementary to that of the electron-donating polymer PCE10, which has a broad absorption band from 300 to 780 nm. Thus, the PCE10:COTIC-4Cl blend film is expected to present a wide range of absorption from approximately 300 to 1200 nm. Moreover, the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) energy levels of COTIC-4Cl were estimated to be -5.24 and -4.02 eV, respectively. We note that although the LUMO energy level of COTIC-4Cl is much lower than that of -3.60 eV for the polymer donor PCE10, their nearly identical HOMO energy levels may not be able to drive exciton dissociation [27]. To confirm that there would be effective charge separation given such a small difference in the HOMO energy levels, we initially fabricated a device with the structure of ITO/PEDOT:PSS/PCE10:COTIC-4Cl/ LiF/Al. Although this device presented only a moderate EQE response upon illumination, its functioning confirmed the effective charge separation. Considering that the widely used PEDOT:PSS shows relatively strong absorbance beyond 900 nm, herein we used an anionic polyelectrolyte, PCPDTK-Ph [23,24], as the interfacial layer to avoid a potential optical loss (Fig. S4). The comparison of the EQE spectra of the devices based on PCPDTK-Ph and PEDOT:PSS demonstrates that the former presents a superior EQE response in the range of 700–1200 nm (Fig. S5).

# Introduction of PC<sub>71</sub>BM as a third component for improved photocurrent

Although we realized a spectral response range from 300 to 1200 nm, we noted that the PCPDTK-Ph-based device exhibited only moderate responsivity (*R*), which was insufficient for practical applications. To address this issue, we incorporated PC<sub>71</sub>BM as the third component in the light-sensitive layer, and predicted that it might improve the film morphology in such a way as to facilitate charge transport and thus enhance the responsivity [28–30]. Based on the space-charge-limited current model, the hole/electron mobilities of the device containing PCE10: COTIC-4Cl:PC<sub>71</sub>BM (with an optimized weight ratio of 9:13:3, Fig. S6) were calculated to be  $8.6 \times 10^{-5}/3.7 \times 10^{-6}$  cm<sup>2</sup> V<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, which were much higher than those of  $1.6 \times 10^{-5}/1.3 \times 10^{-7}$  cm<sup>2</sup> V<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> obtained from binary devices containing PCE10:COTIC-4Cl (with an opti-

mized weight ratio of 1:1.5) as the light-sensitive layer (Fig. S7). This observation is consistent with the enhanced EQE of the ternary blended device, which shows a relatively high EQE response exceeding 40% in a broad spectral response range. The presence of PC71BM not only provides cascade energy levels, but also leads to an optimal film morphology. It was reported that a hierarchical morphology can be achieved upon incorporation of PC71BM into the polymer:non-fullerene acceptor system, resulting in an effective charge transport pathway of  $PC_{71}BM$  that can facilitate charge transport [30,31]. Note that the EQE reaches 33% at a wavelength of 1100 nm, almost twice the magnitude relative to that of the normal Si-based photodiode (Zolix DSi300, ~17%, Fig. 2). In principle, a device with improved EQE (and R) enables a stronger output signal under the same illumination and pixel size in the spectrometer. It is also worth noting that the NIR-enhanced-type Si photodiode (Hamamatsu S3759) [32], which has an extra-thick light-sensitive layer, only exhibits an *R* of 0.18 A  $W^{-1}$  at 1100 nm. Meanwhile, the R of the optimized ternary OPD at 1100 nm is  $0.30 \text{ A W}^{-1}$ . As the Si photodiode was specifically developed to detect and measure yttrium aluminum garnet (YAG) lasers at 1060 nm, our device was expected to be capable of the same.

## Introduction of charge-blocking layers to suppress dark current

An OPD working in photoconductive mode requires not only a highly efficient conversion of the photon flux to current, but also a low noise current in the dark  $(I_d)$ . The specific detectivity  $(D^*)$  is the figure-of-merit used to

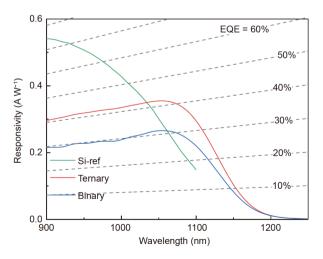


Figure 2 The responsivity characteristics of the binary and ternary OPDs at 0 V with the Si photodiode and EQE contour lines as references.

describe the signal-to-noise ratio. It has been reported that the charge injection at a reversed bias mainly contributes to the  $J_d$  of an OPD [33,34]. Increasing the barrier to charge injection is one of the most effective approaches to dark current suppression, and can be accomplished by incorporating an additional interfacial layer between the organic semiconducting layer and the respective electrode [35,36]. Here, we used a cross-linkable polymer, X-IFT-PA, as the anode interfacial layer, because it has a relatively high LUMO energy level of -2.29 eV. Note that X-IFTPA can form a robust film after crosslinking at 150°C for 20 min [25,26]. This film exhibits excellent solvent resistance and enables the sequential deposition of the organic semiconducting layer without damaging the underlying layer. We also incorporated a thin layer of C<sub>60</sub> as the hole-blocking layer, as this material has a relatively deep HOMO energy level of -6.20 eV (Fig. 1b) [35]. The modified device with the configuration of ITO/PCPDTK-Ph/X-IFTPA/PCE10:COTIC-4Cl:PC71BM/C60/LiF/Al has greater charge injection barriers at reversed bias, which is favorable for reducing the  $J_d$ . As anticipated, the  $J_d$  decreases by two orders of magnitude from  $7.1 \times 10^{-6}$  to  $1.1 \times 10^{-8} \,\mathrm{A \, cm}^{-2}$  at a reversed bias of  $-0.1 \,\mathrm{V}$  after inserting the charge-blocking layers (Fig. 3a), thus confirming that the charge injection under dark conditions can be effectively suppressed. As shown in Fig. 3b, the devices with and without charge-blocking layers exhibit similar spectral responsivity, indicating that the introduction of those layers does not hinder the extraction of photo-generated charge carriers. The slight change in the range of 300-600 nm can be attributed to absorption by X-IFTPA (Fig. S8) and  $C_{60}$  in the visible light range. The optimization of thickness is illustrated in Figs S8 and S9. It is interesting to note that the EQE peak contributed by COTIC-4Cl shifted from 900 to 1050 nm as the thickness of active layer decreased from 100 to 60 nm, and the edge became more and more steep, which could be ascribed to the microcavity effect [35].

Note that although the detector is subject to random noise (e.g., shot noise, 1/f noise) [37], the  $J_d$  is an average of the measured J over a period. In other words, the peak and valley values of J as a function of time, which are due to the random noise, cancel each other. A separate issue is that the measurement of ultra-low J values could potentially be affected by the parasitic capacity, leading to asymmetry current-voltage (J-V) [33,38]. To further confirm the effect of the charge-blocking layers on device performance, we measured the noise power spectra of the devices with or without charge-blocking layers (Fig. S10). The noise current density of the device with charge-

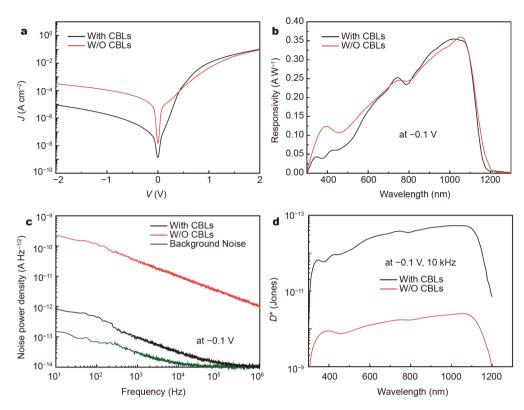


Figure 3 The  $J_{d}$ -V characteristics, (b) noise power density, (c) spectral responsivity, and (d) specific detectivity of OPDs with and without chargeblocking layers (CBLs) at -0.1 V.

blocking layers was measured to be several orders of magnitude smaller than that of the control OPD at a given frequency (Fig. 4b). The specific detectivity can be derived from Equation (1) [39,40]:

$$D^* = \frac{R \sqrt{A}}{i_n},\tag{1}$$

where  $i_n$  is the noise current density, *R* is the responsivity, and *A* is the device area (0.0516 cm<sup>2</sup>). Therefore, the specific detectivity of the OPD with charge-blocking layers was substantially increased. The  $D^*$  at 1100 nm was  $5 \times 10^{12}$  Jones at -0.1 V and 10 kHz, which is better than those of Ge-based (Judson J16, <2 × 10<sup>11</sup> Jones at 1100 nm) and InGaAs-based detectors (Hamamatsu G8370-85, <4 × 10<sup>12</sup> Jones at 1100 nm) [41,42]. The detailed device performances were summarized in Table S2.

### Frequency dependence

Low-speed photodiodes are incapable of sensing a high-frequency or abrupt signal, which causes a distortion in the output signal. The cut-off frequency ( $f_{cut-off}$  or  $f_{-3db}$ ) is a figure-of-merit used to characterize the frequency dependence and response speed, which is defined as the

frequency at which the on/off signal declines to 70.7% (-3 dB) of the original intensity [43]. As shown in Fig. 4a, as the frequency of the input light increased, the output intensity of the OPD became increasingly difficult to maintain. The  $f_{\text{cut-off}}$  of our OPD is approximately 1 MHz, which is among the best values for so far reported organic photodiodes [28,43]. At frequencies larger than the  $f_{\text{cut-off}}$ , the output signal of the OPD was greatly distorted (Fig. S11). In general, the charge carrier is much easier to get rid of trap energy level under strong light illumination. However, in the current case, the  $f_{\text{cut-off}}$  of the fabricated OPD remains as high as 2 kHz at an ultra-low light intensity of 40 nW cm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. S12), indicating its great promise toward practical applications. When OPDs are applied in cameras, the image may be contaminated by a remnant of the previous frame, if the response times  $(t_{rise} \text{ and } t_{drop})$  of the image arrays are too slow, leading to a "ghost shadow" in the video picture. However, the  $t_{rise}$ and  $t_{drop}$  of our device, defined as the times required for the normalized signal intensity to rise from 10% to 90% and drop from 90% to 10%, respectively, are 780 and 940 ns (Fig. 4b), respectively. These values are sufficient

#### Proof-of-concept for spectrometer applications

The spectrometer is a powerful tool in various research areas. To extend the spectral response beyond 1100 nm, conventional spectrometers containing a Si photodiode must integrate an additional photodiode based on a material such as Ge or InGaAs. This hinders the miniaturization of spectrometers and their integration with other instruments. The emerging low-cost OPDs with highly customizable spectral properties are among the most promising candidates for wide-range spectrometers. Although the OPDs with wide-spectral-response have achieved great progress in recent years, the spectrometer based on them was not reported yet. In this section, we prove that our OPD can be used to measure spectra from 300 to 1200 nm, which is approximately 100 nm beyond the limit of Si-based photodiodes. Assuming that the spectral response was fixed at a given light intensity, i.e., the device had an ideal LDR at each wavelength, the transmittance and absorbance could be measured using the setup in Fig. 5a and calculated according to the following Equations (2) and (3):

$$T = \frac{L_{\text{after}}}{L_{\text{before}}} \times 100\% = \frac{S_{\text{sample}}}{S_{\text{blank}}} \times 100\%, \tag{2}$$

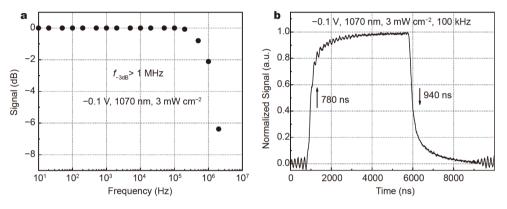
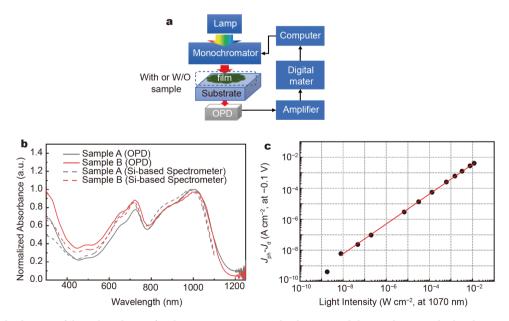


Figure 4 (a) The frequency dependence and (b) response speeds of the optimized OPDs. The raw frequency dependence data are plotted in Fig. S11.



**Figure 5** (a) The diagram of the technical setup for absorption measurement by the OPD and the raw data were displayed in Fig. S13. The device structure is ITO/PCPDTK-Ph/X-IFTPA/PCE10:COTIC-4Cl:PC<sub>71</sub>BM=9:13:3 wt./C<sub>60</sub>/LiF/Al. (b) Comparison of the absorption spectra measured by the OPD and a commercial Si-based spectrometer, the Samples A and B are PCE10:COTIC-4Cl = 1:1.5 (by weight, 190 nm) and PCE10:COTIC-4Cl: PC<sub>71</sub>BM = 9:13:3 (by weight, 120 nm) in films, respectively. (c) The light-intensity dependence at 1070 nm, -0.1 V, and the fitting equation is  $y = 0.3x^{0.963}$ ,  $R^2 = 0.99971$ .

where *T* is the transmittance,  $S_{\text{sample}}$  is the raw signal of the OPD with the sample as the optical filter,  $S_{\text{blank}}$  is the raw signal of the OPD without a sample as the optical filter, and the raw signal S = GI = GRL, where *G* is the gain of the current-amplifier, *I* is the photocurrent, *R* is the responsivity, which is assumed to be identical before and after the filter, and *L* is the incident light intensity.

(3)

As plotted in Fig. 5b, the normalized absorbance measured by the OPD is almost identical to those measured by a commercial system with Si detectors only, benefiting from the relatively high R across the range of 300-1200 nm and the large LDR. We note that the absorption of the ternary blended PCE10:COTIC-4Cl: PC71BM film showed slightly blue-shifted absorption profile regarding to that of the pure COTIC-4Cl film (Fig. 1b), which might be attributed to the less pronounced aggregation of COTIC-4Cl molecules in the ternary blend film. However, a slight difference can still be noted between the curves measured by our OPD and the commercial system. Besides the differences in the measurement setup (e.g., light source, optical grating and signal amplifier), this discrepancy could be attributed to the light-intensity dependence of the OPD device, implying the need for further calibration and correction. The LDR of our device is >120 dB at 1070 nm, comparable to the LDRs of the InGaAs and Ge photodiodes. Note that in the current case, the maximum light intensity was limited by the power of the light-emitting diode chips. As shown in Fig. 5c, the exponent index is 0.963, which means the photocurrent decayed (or increased) less than the variation of incident light intensity, e.g., the former only decreased to 1/963, when the latter decreased by a factor of 1000. At lower light intensities, OPDs usually yield higher R values (EQE) due to the reduced carrier recombination rates at low concentrations of the photogenerated carriers [27,44]. However, in inorganic semiconductors, the binding energy of excitons is low, and the recombination rate is less affected by the light intensity (the exponent index  $\sim$ 1) [41]. We note that to further improve the spectral accuracy, the lightintensity dependence should be characterized at every wavelength to eliminate discrepancies.

### CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we developed an ultra-narrow bandgap acceptor COTIC-4Cl with the absorption spectrum extending to approximately 1200 nm, and constructed OPDs by blending this novel compound with a polymer donor in the presence of PC<sub>71</sub>BM as a third component. To improve the performance, devices with additional hole- and electron-blocking layers were fabricated to increase the *R* and suppress the noise current, respectively. As a result, a peak R of 0.35 A  $W^{-1}$  and a  $D^*$  of >5 × 10<sup>12</sup> Jones could be achieved at 1050 nm with a bias of -0.1 V. The optimized OPD had a rapid response, with a  $t_{\rm rise/fall}$  of 780/940 ns and an  $f_{\rm cut-off}$  exceeding 1 MHz, which are among the best values for any reported OPDs. Compared with a Si-based detector, our OPD had the advantage of a spectral response extended to the wavelength range of 1000-1200 nm. Moreover, our device was successfully used as a key component of a spectrometer to measure the absorption of samples with spectral responses from 300 to 1200 nm. In future, the accuracy of spectrometers based on OPDs could be corrected by using machine learning to compare large numbers of curves measured by the OPD with those obtained by a certified system.

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**Supplementary information** Experimental details and supporting data are available in the online version of the paper.



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### 光谱响应覆盖300-1200 nm的三元有机光敏二极 管及其在光谱仪中的应用

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摘要 光谱仪是科研中应用最广泛的光学仪器之一,常用于测量和 分析光谱成分.为了实现宽且连续的光谱响应范围,光谱仪需将多 种不同波长响应范围的光敏二极管联合起来使用.本文中,我们基 于吸收光谱互补的设计思路将一种新型的窄带隙受体(COTIC-4Cl)与聚合物给体(PCE10)相结合,并引入PC<sub>71</sub>BM作为第三组分, 开发了高性能宽波段的有机光敏二极管(OPD).基于三元混合的光 探测器显示出300至1200 nm的宽光谱响应,超出了传统硅基光电 二极管的响应范围(300-1100 nm).此外,在波长1100 nm处,该器 件表现出5×10<sup>12</sup> Jones的探测率和0.3 A W<sup>-1</sup>的响应率,并且截止频 率大于1 MHz,线性动态范围大于120 dB,是目前报道的OPD中性 能最好的器件之一.为了验证OPD在光谱仪中应用的可行性,我们 将该器件用作光谱仪的关键部件,可以在300-1200 nm波长范围成 功测量样品的吸收光谱.这些结果预示,高性能宽波段的OPDs在下 一代光谱仪中的应用前景十分广阔.