

Supporting Information

Persistent Photoconductivity Enables In-Sensor Binarization and Reservoir Computing in a Single Organic Phototransistor

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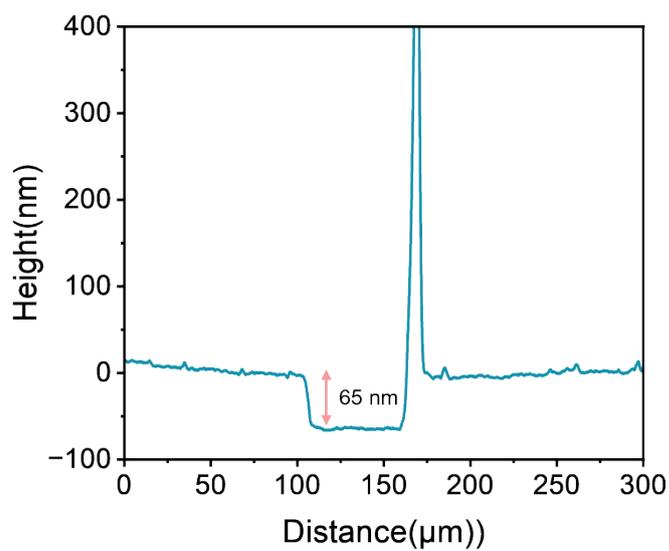


Fig. S1 Step-height profile of PDVT-10 film (65 nm, prepared at 500 rpm/5 s + 2000 rpm/35 s).

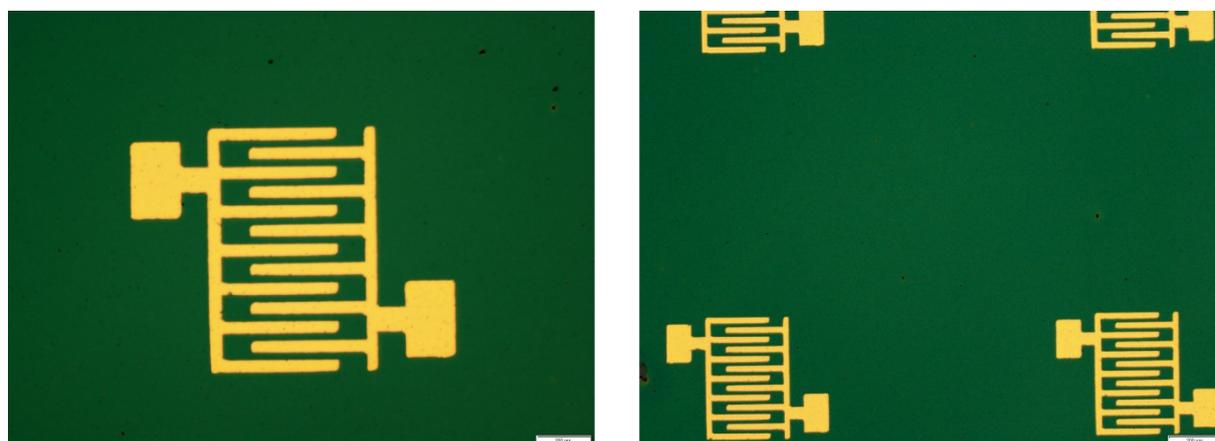


Fig. S2. Photographs of fabricated devices.

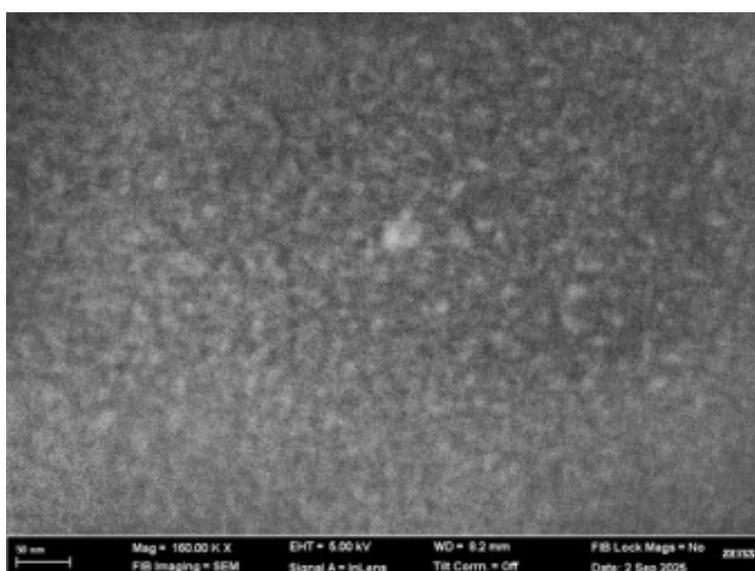


Fig. S3 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of PDVT-10 films.

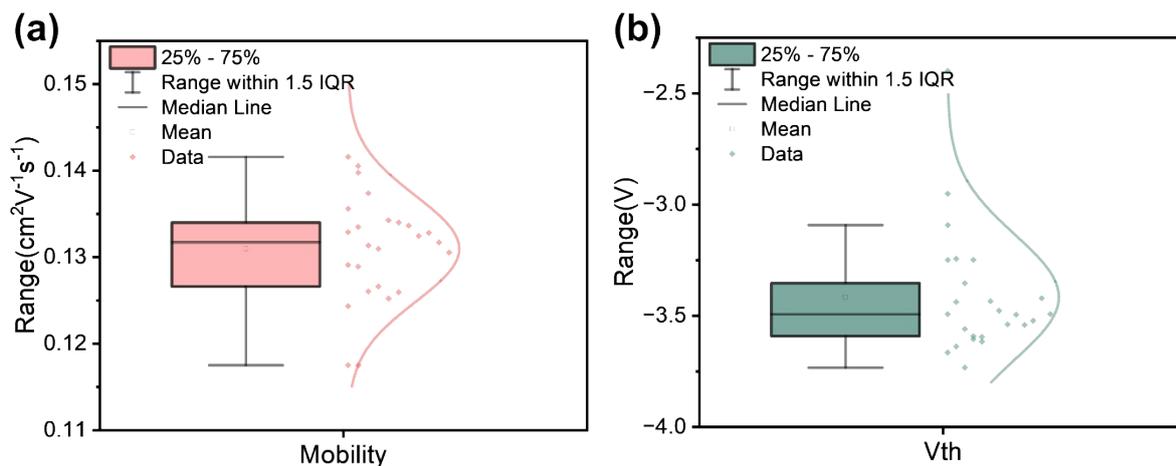


Fig. S4 Statistical distributions of device parameters. Histograms showing (a) field-effect mobility (μ) and (b) threshold voltage (V_{th}) distributions extracted from the transfer characteristics of 25 OPTs from the same sample.

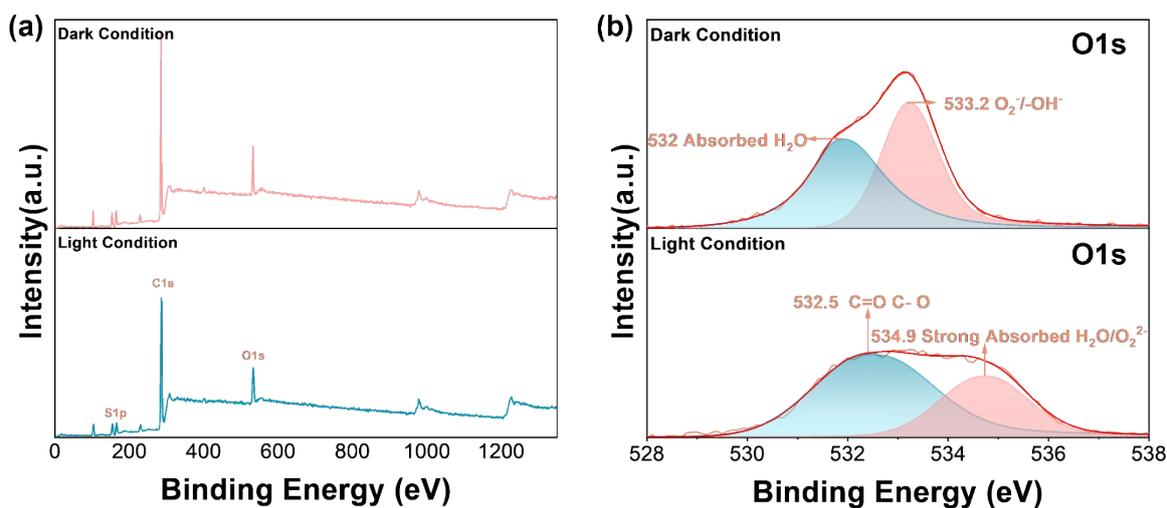


Fig. S5 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) with in situ illumination. (a) Survey XPS spectrum of PDVT-10 films measured under dark and illuminated conditions, (b) High-resolution C 1s spectra.

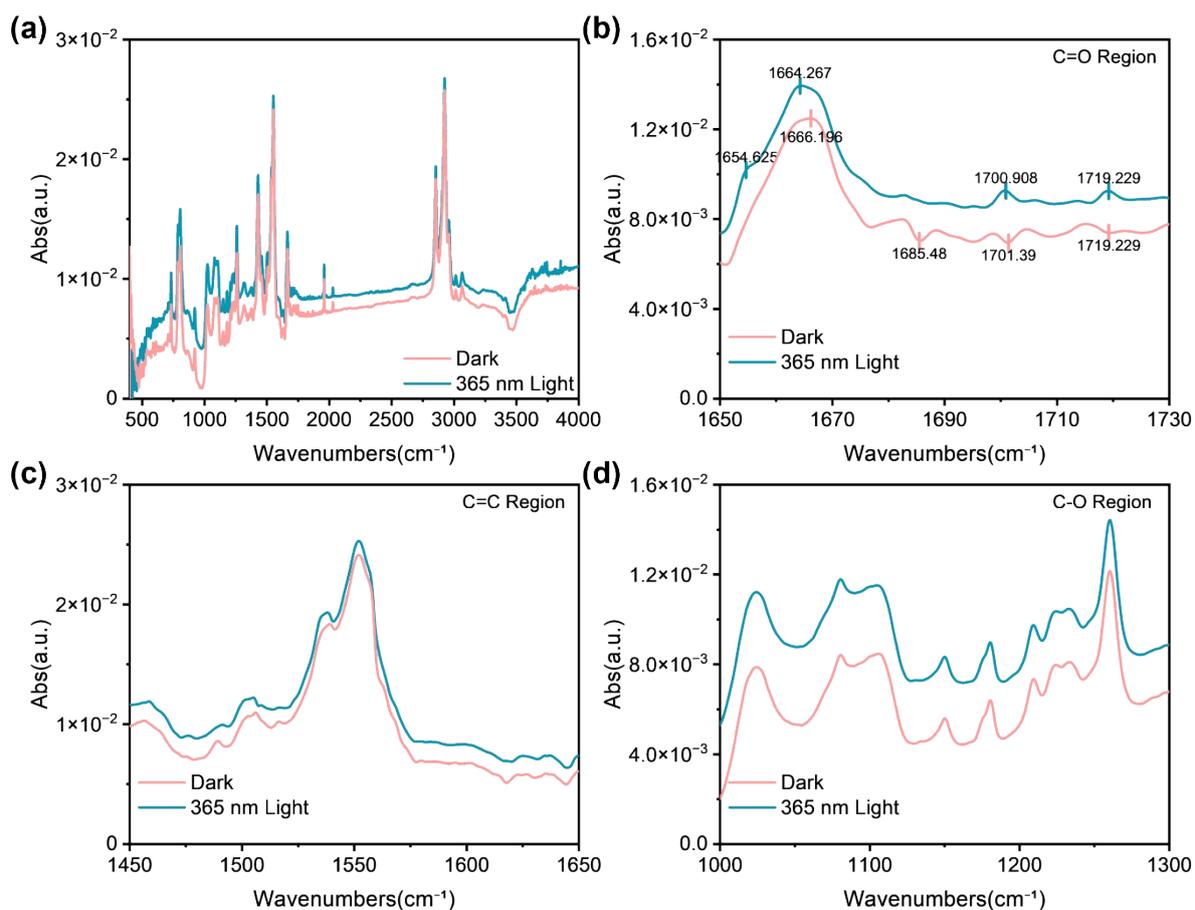


Fig. S6 Fourier-transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy characterization. (a) Full-range FT-IR spectrum of PDVT-10 films (4000–400 cm⁻¹). Enlarged views of characteristic spectral regions: (b) C=O stretching region (1650–1730 cm⁻¹), (c) C=C stretching region (1450–1650 cm⁻¹), and (d) C–O stretching region (1000–1300 cm⁻¹).

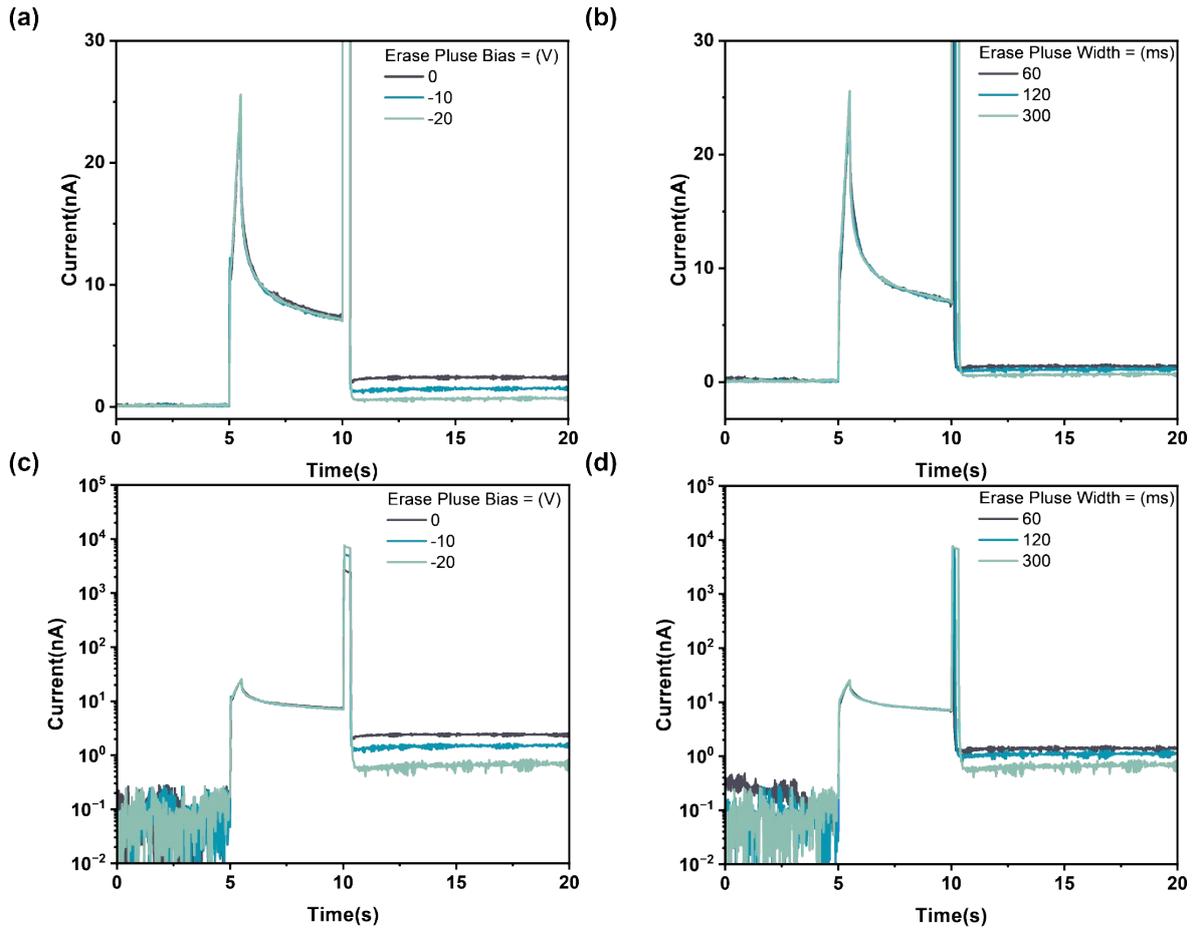


Fig. S7. Optimization of electrical reset parameters. Effects of (a, c) erase pulse bias (V_{gs}) and (b, d) erase pulse width on the photocurrent decay following a "1000" binary optical pulse sequence.

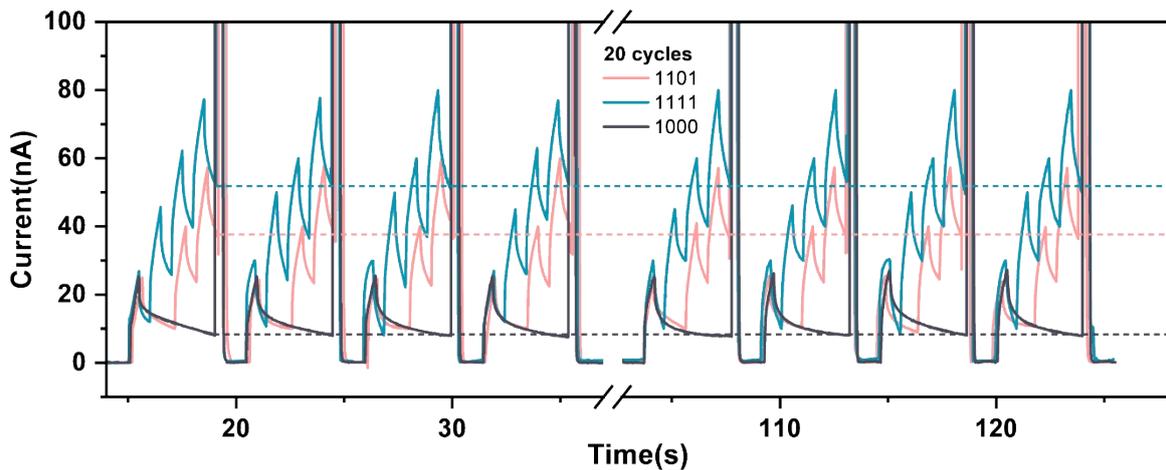


Fig. S8. Cyclic operation stability. Photocurrent response over 20 consecutive cycles, where each cycle consists of a 4-bit binary optical pulse sequence (e.g., "1111") followed by an electrical reset pulse ($V_{gs} = -20$ V, 1 s).

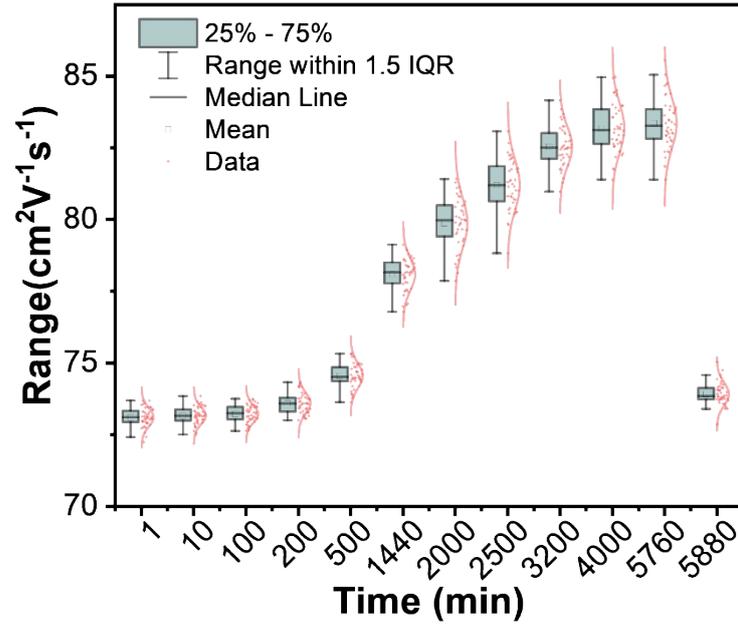


Fig. S9. Long-term operational stability. Time-dependent evolution of the photocurrent response to the "1111" optical pulse sequence over extended operation (>5760 min) under ambient conditions (25 °C, 50% relative humidity, dark storage). The arrow indicates thermal re-annealing at 100 °C for 10 min.

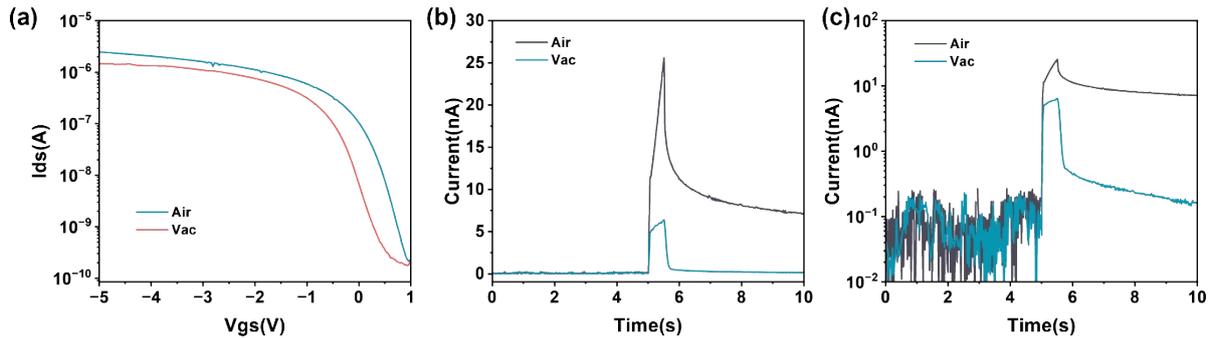


Fig. S10. Environment-dependent photoresponse characterization. (a) Transfer characteristics of PDVT-10 OPTs measured in ambient air and high vacuum (3.3×10^{-4} Pa). Pulsed photoresponse curves in (b) linear and (c) semi-logarithmic scales.

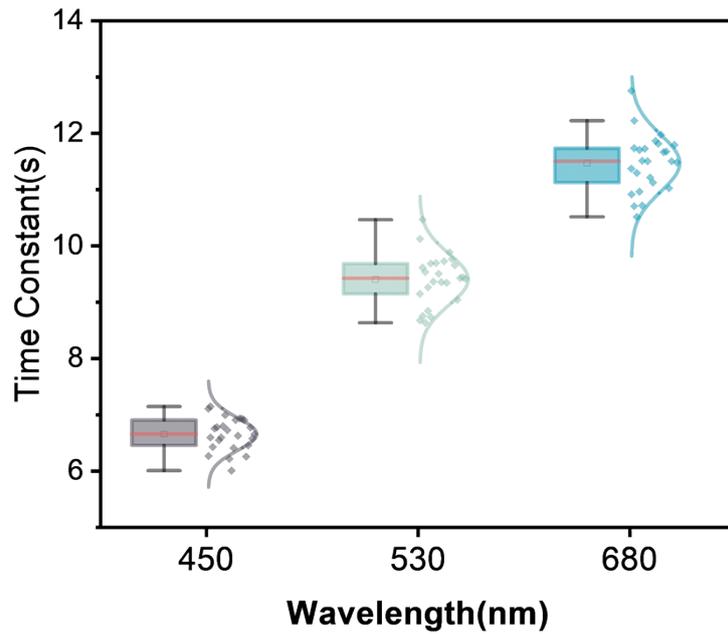


Fig. S11. Device-to-device uniformity of decay time constants. Statistical distributions of τ_2 at 450 nm, 530 nm, and 680 nm extracted from bi-exponential fitting of PPC decay curves across 25 devices ($V_{gs} = 25$ V). The box plots overlaid with individual data points and normal distribution curves illustrate the consistency of the decay dynamics.

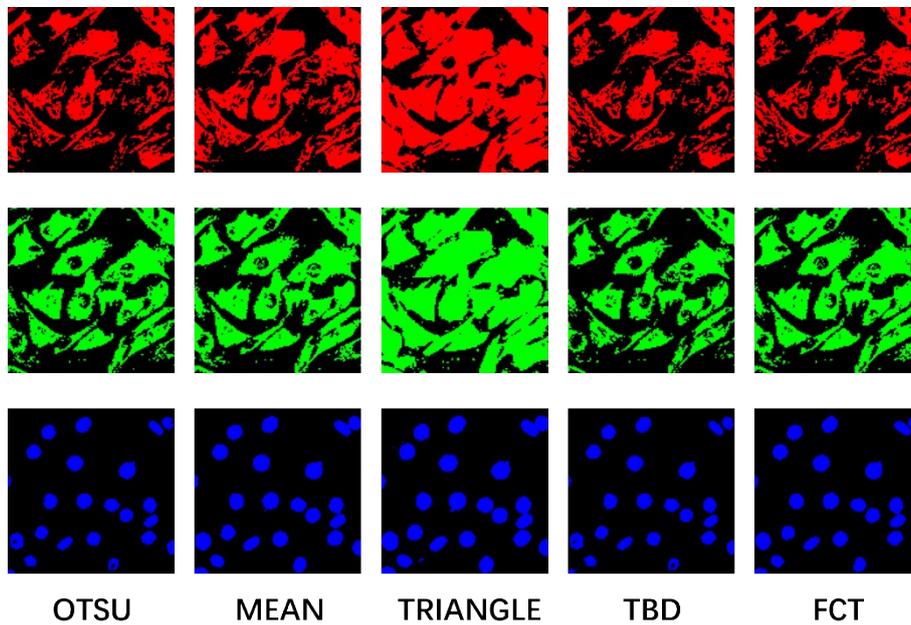


Fig. S12. Comparison of binarization methods. Medical fluorescence images from the Human Protein Atlas (HPA) dataset binarized using different methods: time-dependent binarization (TDB), fixed current thresholding (FCT), and software-based methods (Mean, Triangle, Otsu).

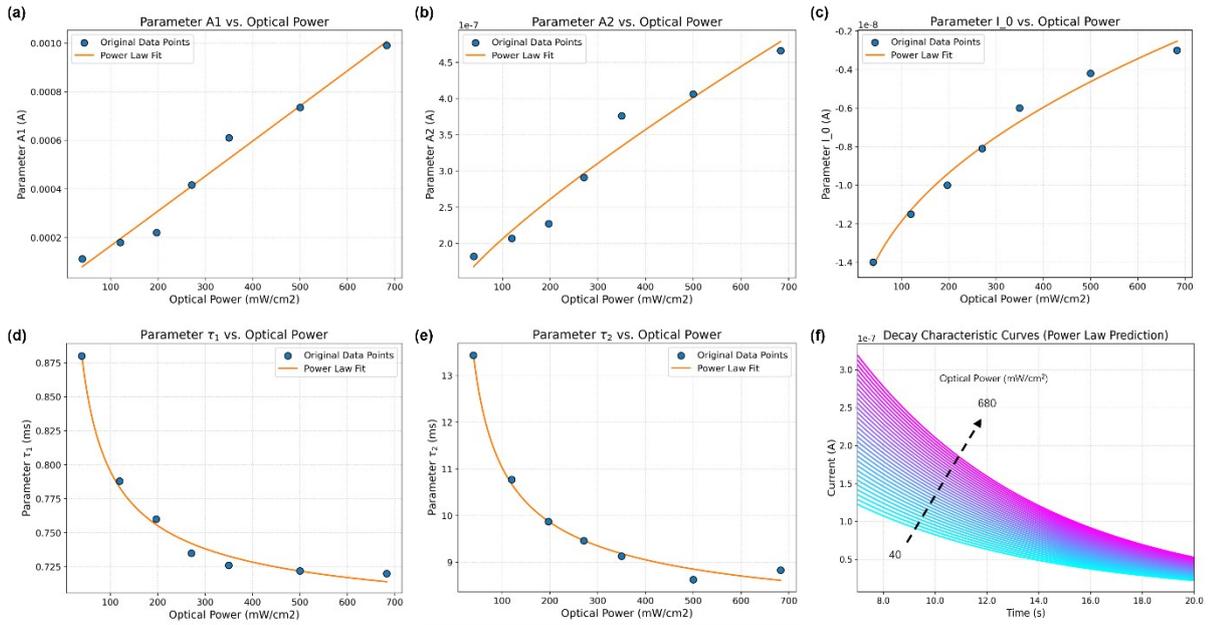


Fig. S13 Parameter interpolation for decay curve reconstruction. (a-e) Fitting of the five extracted decay parameters ($A_1, A_2, \tau_1, \tau_2, I_0$) as a function of optical power (P). Discrete markers represent parameters extracted from experimentally measured decay curves at specific power levels P_i , while solid curves show the power-law fits ($\Theta(P) = a \cdot P^b + c$) used for interpolation. (f) Reconstructed photocurrent decay curves at various optical powers (including untested power levels) using the interpolated parameters.

Table S1. Summary of decay time constants (τ_2) across 25 devices at three wavelengths.

Device #	τ_2 (450 nm)	τ_2 (530 nm)	τ_2 (680 nm)	τ_R/τ_B
1	6.26	8.67	10.91	1.74
2	6.59	9.14	11.37	1.73
3	6.42	8.75	10.70	1.67
4	6.75	9.61	11.73	1.74
5	6.77	9.53	11.29	1.67
6	6.54	9.26	11.70	1.79
7	6.59	9.68	11.51	1.75
8	6.79	9.36	11.72	1.73
9	6.99	9.69	11.50	1.65
10	6.72	9.50	11.21	1.67
11	7.10	10.12	12.75	1.80
12	6.21	8.63	11.12	1.79
13	7.14	10.46	12.22	1.71
14	6.00	8.84	10.51	1.75
15	6.40	9.35	10.96	1.71
16	6.90	9.72	11.86	1.72
17	6.62	9.34	11.81	1.78
18	6.93	9.88	11.97	1.73
19	6.92	9.76	11.66	1.68
20	6.90	9.65	11.67	1.69
21	6.25	9.04	11.02	1.76
22	6.45	8.73	10.71	1.66
23	6.77	9.42	11.50	1.70
24	6.57	9.44	11.79	1.79
25	6.65	9.41	11.48	1.73
Mean	6.60	9.35	11.60	1.76
S.D.	0.29	0.46	0.51	0.05
CV	4.35%	4.86%	4.46%	2.66%

Note S1 XPS and FT-IR Analysis of PDVT-10 Film

For XPS measurements, devices were exposed to air for 30 min before being transferred to the vacuum chamber for in-situ photoirradiation testing, the result was shown in **Fig. 2c** and **Fig. S5**. In the dark, the C1s spectrum of the PDVT-10 film was dominated by C=C, C-S, and C-N bonds, as expected from its pristine, theoretically oxygen-free structure. However, the O1s spectrum indicated the presence of physisorbed oxygen and/or water molecules on the surface, which may be attributed to not being long enough to completely remove water and oxygen molecules from the film during the vacuum process. Upon illumination, a prominent C-O peak emerged at a high binding energy (286.9 eV) in the C1s spectrum. Concurrently, the signal intensity of component corresponding to chemically bonded oxygen (~532.5 eV, C-O/C=O) increased. These changes indicate that photo-generated electrons are trapped by surface-adsorbed oxygen, triggering a chemical oxidation of the polymer¹.

For FT-IR measurements, the film was irradiated with UV light in air for 1 min, followed by immediate analysis, the result was shown in **Fig. S6**. The FT-IR spectrum after photoirradiation showed significant changes, most notably the appearance of new absorption peaks in the C=O region (1650–1730 cm⁻¹). These features correspond to the formation of carbonyl groups (e.g., ketones, aldehydes, or acids/esters). In contrast, the C=C and C–O regions (1000–1300 cm⁻¹) remained largely unchanged, suggesting the polymer's main conjugated backbone was preserved².

The XPS and FT-IR results are in excellent agreement, confirming that PDVT-10 thin film creates a significant number of carbonyl defects. Since the main chain conjugation is intact, these carbonyl defects are identified as the primary source of deep-level electron traps, which cause the device's PPC behavior³.

Note S2. Reconstruction and Physical Basis of Power-Dependent Decay Characteristics

S2.1. Methodology for Decay Curve Reconstruction

To reconstruct decay curves at untested optical power levels (P), we employed a two-step parameter interpolation method.

First, experimentally measured decay curves at discrete power levels (P_i) were parameterized by fitting them to a double-exponential function, yielding five parameters ($A_1, A_2, \tau_1, \tau_2, I_0$) for each P_i .

$$I(t) = A_1 e^{-t/\tau_1} + A_2 e^{-t/\tau_2} + I_0$$

Second, the power-dependent relationship of each parameter (e.g., $A_1(P)$) was established by fitting the discrete ($P_i, Param_i$) data points to a power-law function ($Param(P) = aP^b + c$), generating five continuous functions (shown in **Fig. S13 a-e**).

Finally, these functions were used to interpolate the parameter set $\{\theta_{new}\}$ for any untested power P_{new} . These parameters were substituted back into double-exponential function to reconstruct the full decay curve (**Fig. S13 f**), which was subsequently used for effective threshold calculations.

S2.2. Physical Interpretation of Parameter Trends

The observed parameter trends are consistent with photophysics dominated by carrier trapping and recombination dynamics in synaptic devices⁴.

- (1) A_1, A_2 (Amplitudes): These terms increase (sub-)linearly with P , corresponding to the proportional increase in photogenerated carriers captured by shallow (A_1) and deep (A_2) traps.
- (2) τ_1, τ_2 (Time Constants): These lifetimes (fast/shallow traps and slow/deep traps, respectively) decrease as P increases. This is attributed to accelerated carrier recombination dynamics (e.g., $R \propto n^2$) and trap-filling effects at the higher carrier concentrations (n) generated by stronger optical power.
- (3) I_0 (Baseline/PPC): This persistent current ($t \rightarrow \infty$) rises with P but exhibits clear saturation. This indicates the progressive filling of a finite density of ultra-deep traps responsible for the Persistent Photoconductivity (PPC) effect. This saturation behavior mimics the hard bounds (upper/lower limits) of biological synaptic weights.

Note S3. Detailed Mathematical Framework for Time-Dependent Binarization

S3.1. Bi-exponential Decay Model

The temporal dynamics of the photocurrent decay in PDVT-10 OPT are accurately described by a bi-exponential model (as presented in the main text, Fig. 3a):

$$I(t) = A_1 e^{-t/\tau_1} + A_2 e^{-t/\tau_2} + I_0$$

where τ_1 and τ_2 represent the fast and slow time constants, respectively; A_1 and A_2 represent the amplitude coefficients; and I_0 is the steady-state baseline current. The fast component (τ_1 , typically ~0.3-1 s) is attributed to the photoconductive (PC) effect and detrapping from shallow trap states, while the slow component (τ_2 , typically ~6-12 s) originates from the photogate (PG) effect associated with deep oxygen-induced trap states.

S3.2. Derivation of Effective Threshold from Inverse Decay Function

The time-dependent binarization (TDB) strategy implicitly defines an effective threshold $I_{\text{eff},\lambda}$ for each wavelength channel λ . This effective threshold represents the minimum initial photocurrent required such that, after decaying for the optimized decay time T_d , the current remains above a global threshold $I_{\text{th,global}}$. For a given wavelength λ and optical power P , the photocurrent at time T_d is:

$$I(T_d, \lambda, P) = A_1(\lambda, P) \cdot e^{-T_d/\tau_1(\lambda)} + A_2(\lambda, P) \cdot e^{-T_d/\tau_2(\lambda)} + I_0(\lambda, P)$$

The effective threshold is defined as the optical power P^* (or equivalently, the corresponding initial current I_{eff}) at which $I(T_d, \lambda, P^*) = I_{\text{th,global}}$. Because the decay parameters $\{\tau_1, \tau_2, A_1/A_2\}$ are wavelength-

dependent, the effective thresholds naturally form an ordering: $I_{\text{eff,B}} > I_{\text{eff,G}} > I_{\text{eff,R}}$, which precisely compensates for the device's non-uniform spectral response.

S3.3. Mathematical Proof of Non-Proportional Threshold Scaling

A critical property that enables TDB optimization is that the effective threshold ratios are non-proportional functions of T_d . Consider the ratio of effective thresholds between two wavelength channels λ_1 and λ_2 :

$$\frac{I_{\text{eff},\lambda_1}(T_d, P_1)}{I_{\text{eff},\lambda_2}(T_d, P_2)} = \frac{A_1(\lambda_1, P_1) \cdot e^{-T_d/\tau_1(\lambda_1)} + A_2(\lambda_1, P_1) \cdot e^{-T_d/\tau_2(\lambda_1)} + I_0(\lambda_1, P_1)}{A_1(\lambda_2, P_2) \cdot e^{-T_d/\tau_1(\lambda_2)} + A_2(\lambda_2, P_2) \cdot e^{-T_d/\tau_2(\lambda_2)} + I_0(\lambda_2, P_2)}$$

where P_1 and P_2 denote distinct optical power levels. This ratio is a complex function of T_d because: (1) the exponential decay rates differ between channels ($\tau_1(\lambda_1) \neq \tau_1(\lambda_2)$), (2) the amplitude ratios A_1/A_2 vary with wavelength, and (3) the non-zero baseline contributions I_0 introduce additional T_d -independent terms. Because this ratio is T_d -dependent (not constant), different values of T_d produce different relative threshold orderings and spacing. The optimization of T_d therefore identifies the temporal point at which the dynamically adjusted set of adaptive thresholds achieves optimal collective binarization fidelity across all three channels. As shown in Fig. 4d of the main text, the effective threshold curves for different wavelengths converge at short T_d and diverge at longer T_d , demonstrating this non-trivial T_d -dependence.

References

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