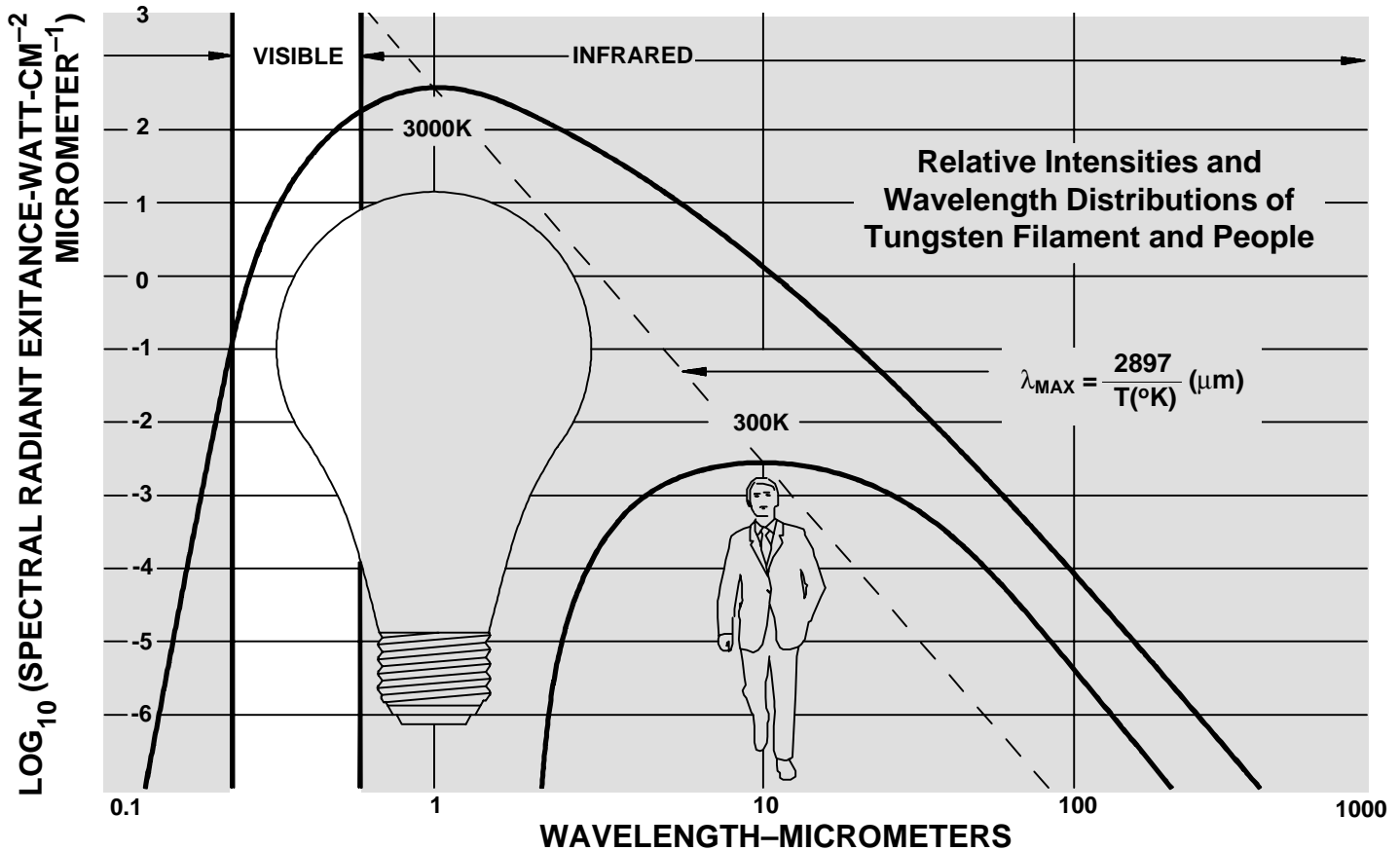




ELTEC INSTRUMENTS, INC.

## ELTECdata # 100

# Introduction To Infrared Pyroelectric Detectors



### Use Infrared: It's Already There

Pyroelectric detectors make mid-range infrared affordable. You use what is already there — 100% natural and harmless.

You can use the invisible glow of objects and people to detect, count, monitor, locate, activate, conserve, protect, or warn. It is passive technology.

### Beyond Photodiodes

Visible light goes from 0.4 to 0.7 micrometers on the wavelength spectrum. Beyond that is infrared. Photodiodes are inexpensive and practical even to 1 micrometer. But, 1 micrometer corresponds to the

"wavelength of maximum energy" of a blackbody at about 2,900 Kelvin (4,700°F) which is the temperature of an incandescent bulb's white-hot filament.

To use the infrared emitted from ourselves or objects that we can touch, wavelengths well beyond 1 micrometer and especially those around 10 micrometers must be detected.

### Pyroelectrics Are Practical

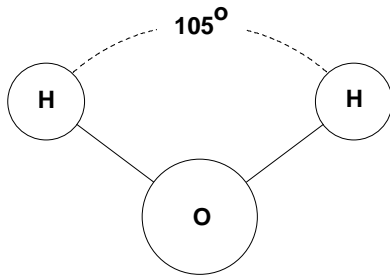
Detection of mid-range infrared is not new. Thermistors and thermopiles (thin-film thermocouples) have long been available. Although these components are relatively inexpensive, the circuitry required to

make them work is not. Moreover, both thermistors and thermopiles are generally found wanting in terms of signal strength and speed of response.

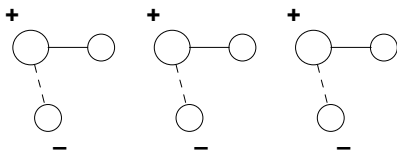
Pyroelectrics are today's practical choice for broad-band IR detection. Pyroelectrics offer technical advantages in signal strength, speed of response and in minimizing interconnecting circuitry. And, as has happened with other components, use of more sophisticated production techniques pioneered at ELTEC INSTRUMENTS, INC., has increased the availability of lithium tantalate pyroelectric detectors while lowering cost.

**The Pyroelectric Effect:  
The Material**

If a material has an internal electrical symmetry, it's neutral. If it's unsymmetrical — like water — it has a permanent electric dipole. Most unsymmetrical materials in bulk have a zero dipole effect because of a random or self-cancelling arrangement.



**Water is unsymmetrical**



**Dipoles acting in unison**

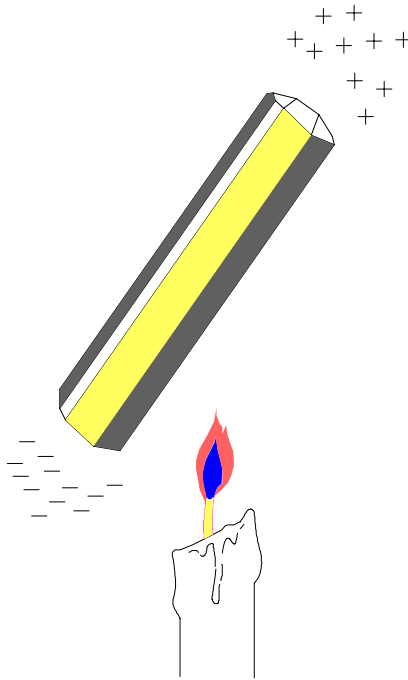
There are some unsymmetrical materials which maintain a net dipole orientation even in bulk. Heating such a material (within limits) doesn't randomize the dipoles, but rotates them in unison and thus maintains a polarization. Since this occurs in the absence of an external electric field, it is called spontaneous polarization.

Dipoles will act in unison to an upper temperature point called the Curie point. Lithium tantalate is a practical pyroelectric material because it has a Curie point of 610° C. Also, lithium tantalate is a very responsive synthetic crystal with an established, long-term stability.

**The Pyroelectric Effect: Simplified**

The Greeks discovered the pyroelectric effect 23 centuries ago. They observed that when tourmaline was placed in hot ashes, it first attracted and then repelled them (charge generation ... attraction by induction ... contact/reversal ... repul-

sion of like charge). Hence "pyro", for fire, plus electric !

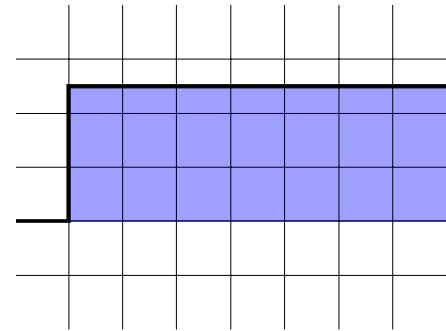


**Heated tourmaline develops electric charges**

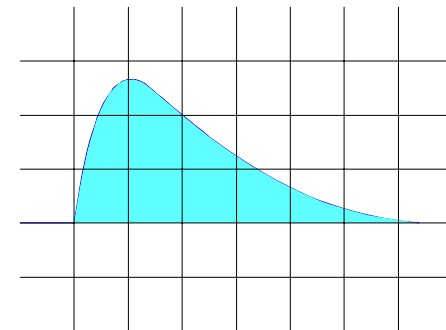
Pyroelectric isn't thermo-electric. In a thermoelectric device, like a thermocouple, a steady voltage is produced when two junctions of dissimilar metals are held at steady but different temperatures. In a pyroelectric device, a change in temperature creates a change in polarization. "Electrical polarization" is just another way of saying "electrical charge". The charge is collected by electrodes on the crystal. So the "open circuit" Voltage = (Q, charge) / (C, crystal capacitance).

In THEORY, if the crystal were levitated in a vacuum in a perfectly reflective Dewar, at infinite impedance (and some other conditions), and a thermal step function applied, the voltage would follow the step function.

In REALITY, the crystal has a thermal time constant, so it will quickly thermalize to its environment (return to ambient) after a step input. This releases the strain on the crystal lattice and the crystal "reabsorbs" the electrons as the lattice returns to its neutral state. Thus, "step function in," "voltage pulse out."

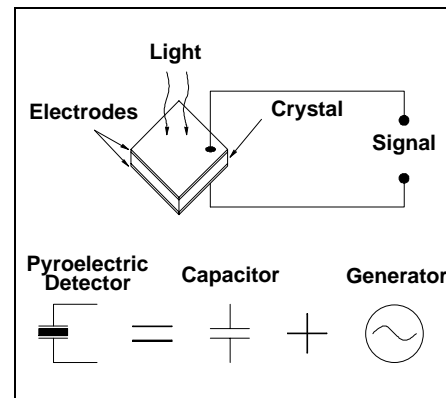


**Infrared input to detector (step)**



**Response of pyroelectric detector**

The nature of the pyroelectric detector makes it both fast and useful. Since every object is emitting infrared light, every object is a transmitter. And since the infrared detector responds to infrared, it is a receiver. An intruder entering a room is like an invisible light being turned on; the detector responds to the change in infrared light, generating a useful signal. A glass object (transparent in the visible and near-infrared) may pass right through a light beam undetected, but its infrared emissions will identify it every time. In short, wherever there's a change in infrared light, there's a potential pyroelectric application.



## The Pyroelectric Detector

A thin wafer of lithium tantalate has electrodes deposited on both faces. The electrodes gather the charge which is unable to leak through because the material is such a good dielectric (insulator). In its simplest form, the pyroelectric detector is both a capacitor and a charge generator (in response to infrared light striking a face, being absorbed as heat, creating change in polarization). And all this at room temperature, without the need for cooling or electrical biasing.

### Electrical Considerations

Think of a pyroelectric detector as a tiny flat-plate Active Capacitor. Typical capacitance is about 30 picofarads. Insulation resistance is  $5 \times 10^{12}$  Ohms. So, except in laser applications, the extreme source impedance makes use of the crystal by itself impractical. PRACTICAL pyroelectrics contain either a JFET source follower (Voltage Mode) or a transimpedance amplifier (Current Mode).

For a rough idea of the signal you might get using a pyroelectric detector, use the following formula:

**V responsivity = (current responsivity)(effective impedance)**

$$I \cdot (R / \sqrt{1 + (2\pi fRC)^2})$$

for I, use 0.5 to 1 microamp per watt

for R, use either your load resistor value or feedback resistor value

for C, use detector capacitance for Voltage Mode (typically 30 pF) or use stray feedback capacitance for Current Mode (typically 0.03 pF)

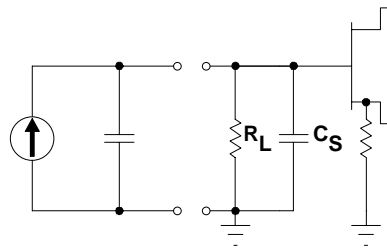
The formula is very useful to get an approximation of voltage responsivity at different frequencies (modulation rates).

Both of these amplification schemes have positive and negative features. The voltage mode circuit will generally yield the best signal to noise ratio and it can operate at a very small supply voltage and current. However, it does not have a large output responsivity and output response will be frequency dependent (unless a low value  $R_L$  is used). The current mode offers a substantial

increase in output signal. It can have a "flatter" frequency response and that response can be set independent of the crystal. Unfortunately, the noise characteristics of the operational amplifier limit the signal-to-noise ratio and the operating voltage and current requirements are greater.

NOTE: Although the voltage (Field Effect Transistor) or current (Op Amp) circuits can be added externally to the basic detector package, it is accomplished with the addition of stray capacitance, susceptibility to EMI, testing problems, expense and possibly a compromise in reliability. To circumvent these problems, detectors are offered with the FET and appropriate load resistor or op amp and appropriate feedback resistor in the detector package.

**Detector connected with source follower**



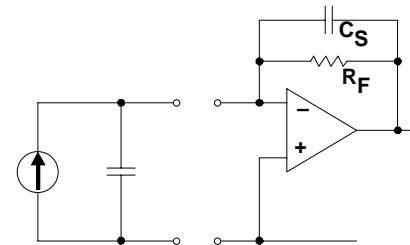
The voltage follower is basically a FET connected as a source follower.

In this configuration, the voltage output will be:

$$R_V = R_i \cdot Z_{eff} \cdot A_o$$

where  $R_V$  = voltage response in V/W  
 $R_i$  = current responsivity  
 $Z_{eff}$  = lumped impedance of crystal,  $R_L$ , and stray capacitance at the input  
 $A_o$  = follower gain (approx. 0.8)

**Detector connected with a current to voltage converter**



The current to voltage converter can be an operational amplifier connected as shown.

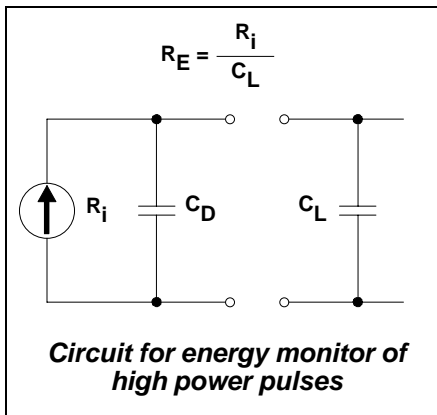
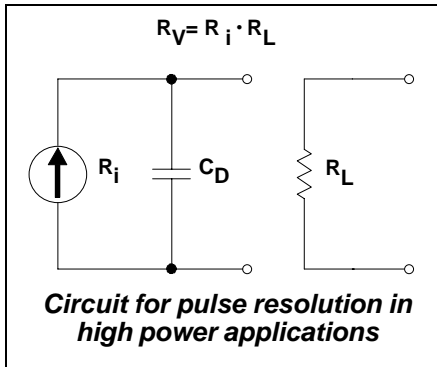
In this configuration the voltage output will be:

$$R_V = R_i \cdot Z_F$$

where  $Z_F$  = lumped impedance of feedback loop including  $R_F$  and  $C_S$ , stray feedback loop resistance and capacitance

## Laser Applications

In high speed or fast pulse applications with a great deal of incident power, the detector can be operated without an impedance converter. If pulse resolution is required, the detector can be loaded down with a resistor – the value of which is determined by the speed of the event to be monitored. In this case, responsivity is  $R_V$ . The detector can also be used as an energy monitor by loading the output with a capacitor. In this case, responsivity is  $R_E$ .



## Demystifying D-Star

The ultimate sensitivity of an infrared detector is determined by the signal-to-noise ratio. No matter how precise or noise-free the amplification scheme, there is a point where the output signal cannot be distinguished from background noise. This point, when related back to the responsivity of the detector gives the minimum detectable power level. In IR jargon, this is called "Noise Equivalent Power" or NEP. It is defined as:

$$NEP = \frac{\text{Noise}}{\text{Responsivity}} = \frac{\text{Watts}}{\sqrt{\text{Hz}}}$$

Note that the NEP for any given detector is dependent on wavelength, operating frequency, noise center frequency, noise bandwidth (usually 1 Hz), and temperature. For example:

$$NEP = 2.2 \times 10^{-10} \frac{W}{\sqrt{\text{Hz}}}$$

(500°K, 20Hz, 1 Hz, RT)

The source temperature is 500°K and implies the optical bandwidth; 20 Hz is the operating frequency and noise center frequency; 1 Hz is the noise bandwidth; RT (25°C) is the temperature of the sensor.

Since minimum noise power is desired, the smaller the NEP the better. Unfortunately, sensor manufacturers want to complicate sensor performance factors even further by also specifying a parameter called D-Star ( $D^*$ ). This parameter normalizes the NEPs to a given constant detector area. This permits all detectors to be compared on an equivalent basis.

$$D^* = \frac{\sqrt{A_d}}{NEP}$$

where  $A_d$  = area of detector in  $\text{cm}^2$ .

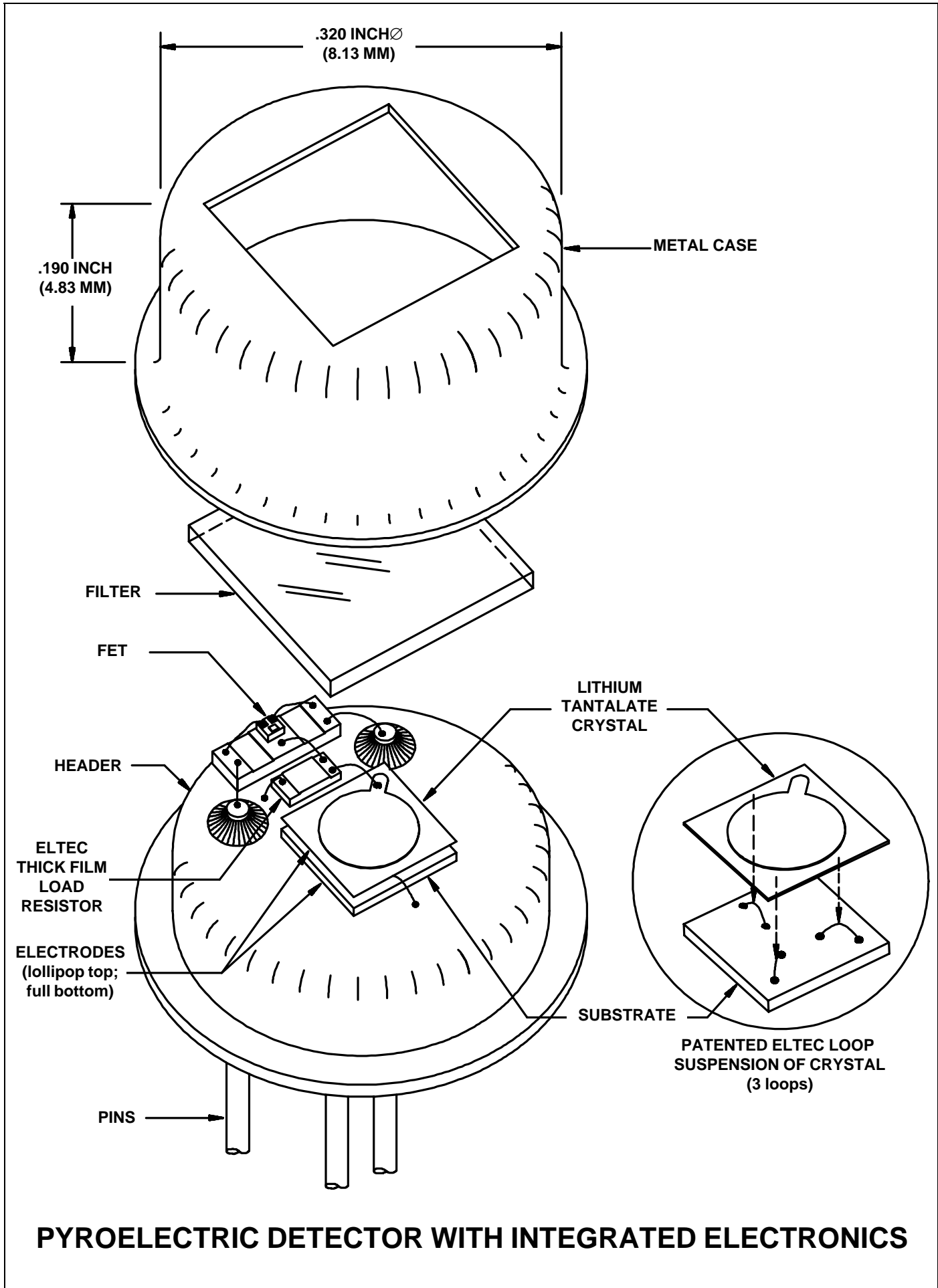
The larger the  $D^*$  the better.

As with NEP,  $D^*$  must be specified for wavelength, frequency, noise bandwidth and temperature. For example:

$$D^* = 2.8 \times 10^8 \frac{\text{cm}\sqrt{\text{Hz}}}{\text{Watt}}$$

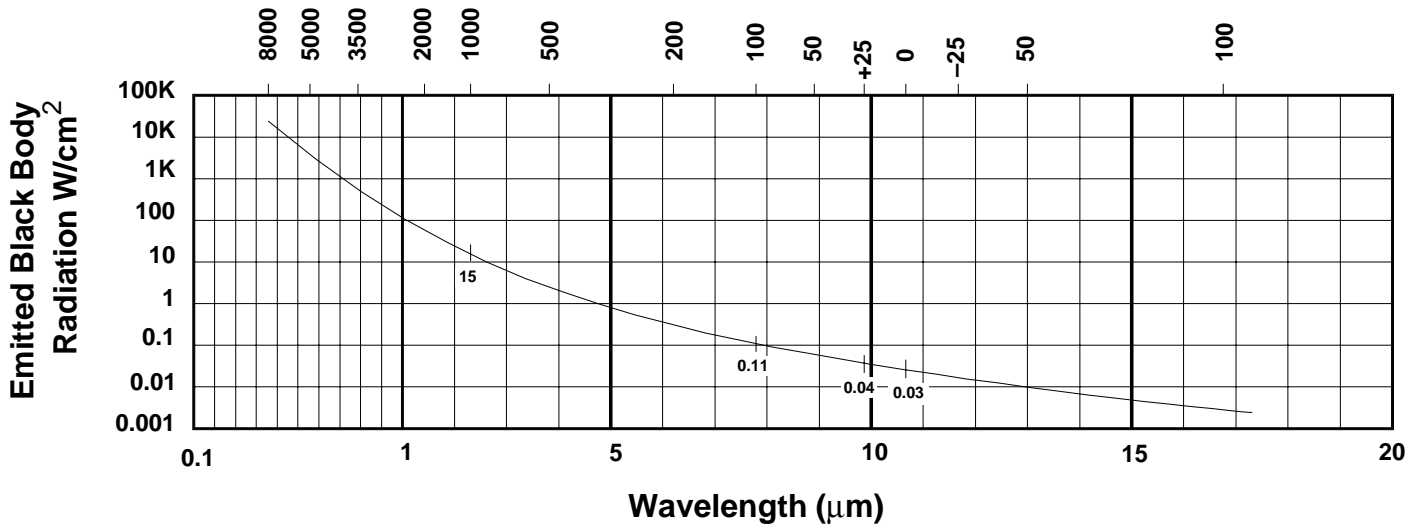
(10.6  $\mu\text{m}$ , 10 Hz, 1 Hz BW, RT)

Even though the concepts of NEP and  $D^*$  were created to facilitate apples-to-apples comparisons, practical pyroelectric detector performance is area-dependent rather than square-root-of-the-area-dependent (see ELTECdata #103). Consequently, direct comparison of different detectors with different sizes is still difficult. Also, the temperature of the sensor is often not specified (and some other types of IR sensors are very temperature dependent) and also some devices have outputs which are not linear with input power.



# OBJECT TEMPERATURE VS. WAVELENGTH

Temperature (°C)



The top abscissa on the curve above shows an object's temperature while the bottom abscissa shows the wavelength of the maximum energy for an object at the corresponding temperature. Note that there is always a distribution of energy over all wavelengths for any object with about

25% of all energy in wavelengths shorter than the wavelength of maximum energy and 75% in the longer wavelengths.

The curve within the coordinate system relates the temperature/maximum wavelength to the total emitted

energy given in watts per square centimeter of surface on the ordinate axis. The value given are for a true blackbody and the value for any real object will be a percentage representing the ratio of the actual radiation emitted to the energy emitted by a blackbody at the same temperature.

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