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### Article

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# An Integral Methodology for Predicting Long Term RTN

Kean H. Tok, Mehzebaben Mehedi, Jian F. Zhang, James Brown, Zengliang Ye, Zhigang Ji, Weidong Zhang, John S. Marsland, Asen Asenov, and Vihar Georgiev

**Abstract**—Random Telegraph Noise (RTN) adversely impacts circuit performance and this impact increases for smaller devices and lower operation voltage. To optimize circuit design, many efforts have been made to model RTN. RTN is highly stochastic, with significant device-to-device variations. Early works often characterize individual traps first and then group them together to extract their statistical distributions. This bottom-up approach suffers from limitations in the number of traps it is possible to measure, especially for the capture and emission time constants, calling the reliability of extracted distributions into question. Several compact models have been proposed, but their ability to predict long term RTN is not verified. Many early works measured RTN only for tens of seconds, although a longer time window increases RTN by capturing slower traps. The aim of this work is to propose an integral methodology for modelling RTN and, for the first time, to verify its capability of predicting the long term RTN. Instead of characterizing properties of individual traps/devices, the RTN of multiple devices were integrated to form one dataset for extracting their statistical properties. This allows using the concept of effective charged traps (ECT) and transforms the need for time constant distribution to obtaining the kinetics of ECT, making long term RTN prediction similar to predicting ageing. The proposed methodology opens the way for assessing RTN impact within a window of 10 years by efficiently evaluating the probability of a device parameter at a given level.

**Index Terms**— Noise, Random telegraph noise (RTN), Jitters, Yield, Fluctuation, Device Variations, Time-dependent Variations.

## I. INTRODUCTION

NOISE in MOSFETs adversely affects the performance of circuits [1-12]. IoT edge units are particularly vulnerable to it because the requirement of low power drives the operation voltage towards threshold level and reduces noise toleration [11],[12].

To optimize the circuit design, many efforts were made to model noise [1-12]. When devices are relatively large, there are many traps, and they collectively form  $1/f$  noise. The impact of a single trap typically cannot be clearly observed and the modelling was mainly in the frequency domain [6]. As the device size shrinks to nano-meter scale, there are only a few traps in a device. The impact of a single trap increases and can be observed as Random Telegraph Noise (RTN) [1-12], where drain current exhibits step-like changes. The stochastic nature of trap distribution results in a large device-to-device variation

(DDV) of RTN [1]-[5]. When compared with the time-independent DDV from other sources, such as discrete random dopants and line edge roughness [1], whose outliers can be screened out by pre-shipping tests of chips, the time-dependent DDV by RTN is difficult to screen out, as trapping may not occur within the limited test time window.

It has been reported that capturing one charge carrier by a trap can induce a shift of threshold voltage of tens of millivolts [3] and a fluctuation of current up to 10% [13]. This level of instability is comparable with that typically used to define the ageing-induced device lifetime [14]. They adversely impact circuit performance by causing, for example, jitters and malfunction of SRAM [4]. For future quantum computing at low temperature, this fluctuation can reach 50% [15].

To tackle these RTN-induced challenges, many recent efforts have been made to model RTN in the time domain [4],[5],[16]-[21]. To assess the impact of RTN on a circuit, a circuit designer needs the probability for device parameters at a given level within a time window. This can be accomplished through simulation, if one knows the number of traps in a device, their capture/emission times, and the shift induced by each trap [4],[5],[17]-[21].

To determine the statistical distributions of these parameters, a bottom-up approach was often followed: characterizing individual traps first and then grouping them together to fit an assumed cumulative distribution function (CDF) [3],[4],[19]-[21]. Most attentions have been paid to the CDF of RTN amplitude and the proposed CDFs include Exponential [3],[4],[10], Log-normal [4],[5],[8], and Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) [19]. These early efforts laid the foundation for current work.

For the average capture/emission times of a trap, the proposed CDFs include log-normal [9],[21] and log-uniform [5],[11],[22]. When compared with the amplitude, there is less data available on the capture /emission times [20],[21]. The number of capture/emission times obtained by the bottom-up approach is often less than 100 [20],[21], which is not large enough to reliably determine the CDFs. Without the CDFs of time constants, one could not predict RTN for different time windows. Some early works [13],[20] measured RTN with a time window of tens of seconds, whilst it is well known that RTN-induced fluctuation increases for longer time window. A number of compact models [16]-[18] were proposed by assuming that RTN magnitude and time constants follow

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K. H. Tok, M. Mehedi, J. F. Zhang, J. Brown, Z. Ye, Z. Ji, W. Zhang, and J. S. Marsland are with School of Engineering, Liverpool John Moores

University, Liverpool L3 3AF, UK. Z. Ji now is with School of Microelectronics, Shanghai Jiaotong University, Shanghai 200240, China.

A. Asenov and V. Georgiev is with the Department of Electronics and Electrical Engineering, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, G12 8QQ, U.K.

certain statistical distributions. It is not verified, however, that these models can be used to predict long term RTN.

The aim of this work is two-fold: to develop an integral methodology for extracting the CDF of RTN and, for the first time, to verify that the extracted model can predict long term RTN. This will be achieved through:

- Characterizing the impact of all traps on a device collectively, rather than individually. This removes the need of some early works of selecting devices with analyzable individual traps [13],[20];

- Integrating the RTN of multiple devices into one dataset to enable statistical analysis;

- Introducing the concept of “effective charged traps (ECT)”, which removes the formidable burden of determining the capture and emission time constants of individual traps;

- Replacing the fixed number of traps per device, used by early works, with the time-dependent number of ECT. This mimics the modelling of ageing, where trap number increases with stress time through generation [14]. It transforms the distribution of time constants into the kinetics of ECT, simplifying the prediction of long term RTN;

- Introducing acceptor-like and donor-like traps to enable modeling both positive and negative parameter shift, which is widely observed experimentally but rarely modelled.

## II. INTEGRAL METHODOLOGY

### A. Raw data

Drain current,  $I_d$ , was measured against time under a gate bias,  $V_g$ , of 0.5 V and drain bias,  $V_d$ , of 0.1 V, as reported in [11], and one example is given in Fig. 1(a). The  $V_g$  was chosen to be close to the threshold voltage,  $V_{th}$ , of 0.45 V for low power applications. The devices used are nMOSFETs with a channel length of 27 nm and channel width of 90 nm, fabricated by a 28 nm commercial CMOS technology. To catch fast traps, a sampling rate of 1 MSamples/sec was used and all tests were carried out at 125 °C.

The reference  $I_d$ ,  $I_{ref}$ , for each device was obtained from the average value of the first 10 measurement points. The relative shift of  $I_d$  was evaluated from  $\Delta I_d/I_d = (I_{ref} - I_d)/I_{ref}$ , so that a reduction of  $I_d$  magnitude gives a positive  $\Delta I_d/I_d$ . The corresponding threshold voltage shift is estimated from  $\Delta V_{th} = \Delta I_d/g_m$ , where  $g_m$  is transconductance and measured for each device from the slope of a pulse (3  $\mu$ s)  $I_d$ - $V_g$  at  $V_g = 0.5$  V [23], which was taken before the RTN test. It should be pointed out that the error in  $\Delta V_{th}$  evaluated from  $\Delta I_d/g_m$  can be substantial if  $\Delta I_d$  and  $g_m$  were measured at  $V_g$  well above  $V_{th}$  [23]. In this work, they were measured at  $V_g = 0.5$  V, which is close to the  $V_{th} = 0.45$  V and the error is insignificant.

Based on the  $I_d$  versus time measurement, early works [13],[20] often selected the devices that have analyzable RTN signals for extracting the amplitude and time constants of individual traps and discarded the devices where the fluctuation is too complex for such analysis. In this work, however, we focus on the collective impact of all traps on  $I_d$  and do not decompose the  $I_d$  fluctuation into contributions of individual traps experimentally. This removes the need for device

selection and increases test efficiency.

The test in Fig. 1(a) was repeated on 402 devices and their  $\Delta V_{th}$  at a given time was integrated into one dataset for statistical analysis, as shown in Fig. 1(b). As time increases, the amplitude of fluctuation rises in Fig. 1(a), so that the  $|\Delta V_{th}|$  at a fixed CDF become larger in Fig. 1(b). Knowing this distribution will allow one to determine the probability of  $V_{th}$  at a specified level and in turn assess its impact on circuits. The challenge is how to model this distribution and how to predict it for longer times where test data are not available.

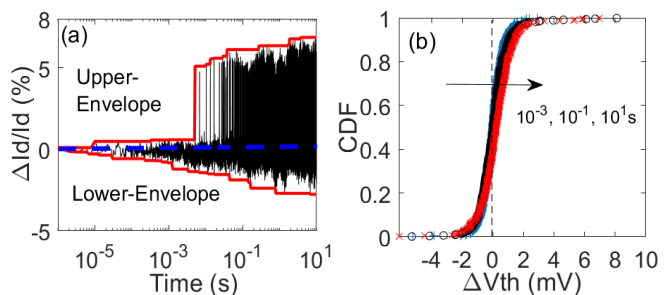


Fig. 1. (a) An example of measured data on one device, where  $\Delta I_d > 0$  represents a reduction of  $I_d$  from its reference value. The black lines are the  $\Delta I_d/I_d$  values, which can be either positive or negative. The red lines represent the upper and lower envelopes of the fluctuation. (b) The CDF of  $\Delta V_{th} = \Delta I_d/g_m$  at different time taken from 402 devices. For each device at a given time, the  $\Delta I_d$  value was taken from a measurement like the one in (a). The distribution is not symmetric in  $\Delta V_{th} > 0$  and  $\Delta V_{th} < 0$ .

### B. The Concept of Effective Charged Traps (ECT)

The probability for a trap to be charged depends on the ratio of its average emission and capture time [2]. The statistical distribution of time constants is difficult to determine experimentally. To simplify tests, attempts were made to focus on either capture [11],[24] or emission [3].

Fig. 1(a) shows how to extract the envelope of the fluctuation, which is reached when multiple traps were simultaneously charged. Fig. 2 shows the average of the envelopes, which can be used to estimate the number of active traps for a given time window. As different devices hit their envelopes at different times, Fig. 2 shows that the average of measured  $\Delta V_{th}$  is substantially smaller than their average envelopes. In Section III.B, we will estimate the percentage of traps that are charged.

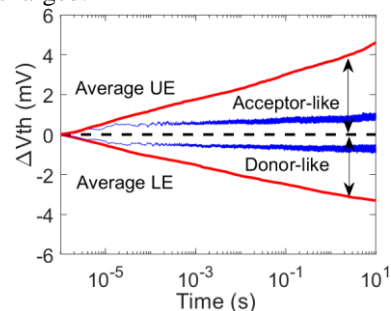


Fig. 2. A comparison of the average  $\Delta V_{th} > 0$  and  $\Delta V_{th} < 0$  of 402 devices (blue lines) with their average Upper and Lower envelopes (UE and LE). Using the envelopes will overestimate the impact of RTN.

The envelopes have been used to estimate the worst impact of RTN [11],[24],[25]. To optimize circuit design, however, one needs to model the probability of  $\Delta V_{th}$  at any level between

the two envelopes, which is the objective of this work.

To effectively take emission into account without evaluating the emission time of individual traps, we propose the concept of ‘effective charged traps (ECT)’. The inspiration for this concept comes from the use of effective trap density for assessing the impact of ageing on devices [14],[26]. To evaluate trap density, one need knowing their spatial distribution in gate dielectric. This spatial distribution, however, is difficult to determine. To overcome this difficulty, one can assume all traps being at the interface so long as they produce the same  $\Delta V_{th}$ . The equivalent density of traps at the interface is referred to as effective trap density [26].

Similarly, to simulate the impact of RTN on devices and circuits, what is needed is the CDF in Fig. 1(b), rather than the detailed physical processes that this CDF originates from. For a given RTN-induced  $\Delta V_{th}$  at a time in Fig. 1(b), one can assume that it originates from a set of traps that are always charged. These ‘effective charged traps (ECT)’ ignore emission, but will produce the same CDF as, i.e. statistically equivalent to, that measured experimentally where emission occurs. By using the collective impact of a set of ECT to model CDF, as detailed in Section II.D, this integral approach does not require characterizing the capture and emission time of individual traps, greatly reducing modelling and testing time.

### C. Acceptor-like and Donor-like Traps

Fig. 1(a) shows that  $\Delta I_d = (I_{ref} - I_d)$  can be either positive or negative, resulting in the corresponding positive and negative  $\Delta V_{th}$  in Fig. 1(b). Early works [3],[4],[8],[10] typically only modelled  $\Delta V_{th} > 0$ , since the popular Exponential and Log-normal distributions require  $\Delta V_{th} > 0$ . Fig. 3 shows that the distribution of  $\Delta V_{th}$  in both  $\Delta V_{th} > 0$  and  $\Delta V_{th} < 0$  is considerable and there is little correlation between them, so that we must model the fluctuation in both directions, as we cannot infer one from the other.

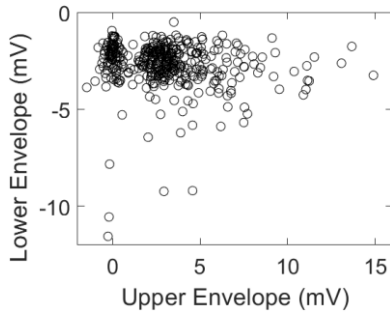


Fig. 3. The lower-envelope is plotted against the upper-envelope at 10 sec for 402 devices. There is little correlation between these two.

The shift in positive direction, i.e.  $\Delta V_{th} > 0$ , for nMOSFETs is widely interpreted as traps capturing electrons from the conduction channel. Such traps can be either neutral or negatively charged and will be referred to as acceptor-like traps [26]. There can be different explanations for  $\Delta V_{th} < 0$ . One of them is that some traps were pre-filled with electrons when  $I_{ref}$  was measured. These pre-filled electrons could be emitted during measurement, resulting in  $\Delta V_{th} < 0$ . Another is that there

are donor-like traps, which can be either neutral or positive [26], and positive charges can result in  $\Delta V_{th} < 0$ .

The measured data in this work cannot determine which explanation is correct and such determination is not required for achieving the aim of this work: proposing an integral method for predicting the long term RTN. For the convenience of presentation, we will use the acceptor-like traps for  $\Delta V_{th} > 0$  and donor-like traps for  $\Delta V_{th} < 0$ , hereafter [26]. This allows  $\Delta V_{th}$  being modelled in both directions through,

$$\Delta V_{th} = \Delta V_{th_A} + \Delta V_{th_D}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\Delta V_{th_A} > 0$  and  $\Delta V_{th_D} < 0$  represent the contribution from acceptor-like and donor-like traps, respectively.

### D. Modelling Procedure at a given time

To model the RTN-induced CDF in Fig. 1(b) by a set of ECTs at a given time, one needs to determine the number of traps per device,  $n$ , and the statistical distribution of threshold voltage shift caused by one trap,  $\delta V_{th}$ . It should be noted that  $\delta V_{th}$  is the shift per trap, which is different from the shift per device,  $\Delta V_{th}$ .

Statistically, it is well accepted that  $n$  follows a Poisson’s distribution [4],[10]. The agreement on the distribution of  $\delta V_{th}$  has not been reached and the popular assumptions include Exponential [3],[4],[10] and Log-normal [4],[5],[8]. In addition, Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distribution has been proposed recently [19]. All three will be used in this work.

For a given  $\delta V_{th}$  probability distribution function (pdf), the pdf of  $n_A$  number of acceptor-like traps can be evaluated from:

$$\begin{aligned} pdf_A(\Delta V_{th_A}) \\ = Conv[ pdf(\delta V_{th_1}), pdf(\delta V_{th_2}) \dots pdf(\delta V_{th_{n_A}}) ], \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta V_{th_A}$  is the combined shift caused by  $n_A$  acceptor-like traps. When an analytic formula is not available, the Convolution (Conv) in Eq.(2) can be carried out numerically trap-by-trap: first between  $pdf(\delta V_{th_1})$  and  $pdf(\delta V_{th_2})$ , the result is then convoluted with  $pdf(\delta V_{th_3})$ . This continues until  $pdf(\delta V_{th_{n_A}})$  is convoluted.

To overcome the difficulty that Exponential and Log-normal pdf requires  $\delta V_{th} > 0$ , we evaluate the magnitude of  $\delta V_{th}$  for  $n_D$  donor-like traps by,

$$\begin{aligned} pdf_D(|\Delta V_{th_D}|) \\ = Conv[ pdf(|\delta V_{th_1}|), pdf(|\delta V_{th_2}|) \dots pdf(|\delta V_{th_{n_D}}|) ]. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

The  $pdf[\Delta V_{th} = \Delta V_{th_A} - |\Delta V_{th_D}|]$  can be evaluated from:

$$\begin{aligned} pdf[\Delta V_{th}(n_A, n_D)] = \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} pdf_A[\Delta V_{th}(n_A, n_D) + x] pdf_D(x) dx. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

The  $pdf[\Delta V_{th}(n_A, n_D)]$  in eq.(4) is the probability for a device to have a  $\Delta V_{th}$ , if every device has  $n_A$  acceptor-like and  $n_D$  donor-like traps. After taking into account that both acceptor-like and donor-like traps follow Poisson distributions, the  $pdf(\Delta V_{th})$  becomes:

$$pdf(\Delta V_{th}) = \sum_{n_A=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n_D=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{N_A} N_A^{n_A}}{n_A!} \frac{e^{N_D} N_D^{n_D}}{n_D!} pdf[\Delta V_{th}(n_A, n_D)], \quad (5)$$

where  $N_A$  and  $N_D$  are the average number of effective acceptor-like and donor-like traps per device, respectively.

Finally, the measured  $\Delta V_{th}$  contains both RTN and thermal noise, which follows a Normal distribution. The thermal noise is taken into account by using:

$$pdf(\Delta V_{th}) = Conv[pdf(\Delta V_{th}_{RTN}), pdf(\Delta V_{th}_{Thermal})]. \quad (6)$$

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### A. Extracting model parameters

Based on the equations (1)-(6), the model parameters are extracted by the Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) [19]. They include the statistical distribution parameters of  $\delta V_{th}$  in Table I, the average number of acceptor-like and donor-like traps per device,  $N_A$  and  $N_D$ , and the standard deviation of thermal noise.

As an example, Fig. 4(a) shows that the fitted CDFs with test data at 10 sec by assuming Exponential, Log-normal and GEV distributions, respectively. To quantify the discrepancy between the data and the fitted CDF, Fig. 4(b) gives the sum of square error (SSE) per device. The SSE reduces in the order of Exponential, Log-normal, and GEV.

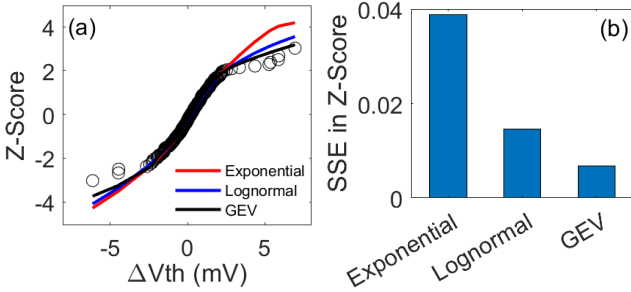


Fig. 4. (a) The CDF fitted based on the effective charged traps at 10 sec. The symbols are test data and the lines are fitted. (b) compares the sum of squared errors (SSE) per device for the three statistical distributions.

Table I. The pdf formula and their average parameter values extracted between  $10^{-4}$  and 10 sec. The parameters  $\eta$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\sigma$  have the unit of mV.

	PDF of $\delta V_{th}$	Acceptor	Donor
Exponential	$\frac{1}{\eta} e^{-\frac{\delta V_{th}}{\eta}}$	$\eta = 0.56$	$\eta = 0.48$
Lognormal	$\frac{1}{\delta V_{th} \theta \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(\ln(\delta V_{th}) - \epsilon)^2}{2\theta^2}}$	$\epsilon = -0.43$ $\theta = 0.12$	$\epsilon = -0.71$ $\theta = 0.16$
GEV	$\frac{1}{\beta} (k)^{\xi+1} e^{-k}$ $k = \left(1 + \xi \left(\frac{\delta V_{th} - \alpha}{\beta}\right)\right)^{\frac{1}{\xi}}$	$\xi = 0.35$ $\alpha = 0.43$ $\beta = 0.34$	$\xi = 0.42$ $\alpha = 0.59$ $\beta = 0.19$
Thermal	$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\Delta V_{th}}{\sigma}\right)^2}$	Exponential, $\sigma = 0.11$ Lognormal, $\sigma = 0.13$ GEV, $\sigma = 0.13$	

Similar to Fig. 4 at 10 sec, the test data at other times are also fitted. Figs. 5(a) and 5(b) show the extracted average number of acceptor-like ( $N_A$ ) and donor-like ( $N_D$ ) traps per device against time, respectively. As expected, they increase with time, as longer time activates slower traps. There are more acceptor-like traps than donor-like traps, resulting from the skewed distribution towards positive  $\Delta V_{th}$  in Fig. 1(b). GEV gives the highest numbers, while Exponential has the lowest ones. At 10 sec, GEV has  $N_A = 2.3$  and  $N_D = 2$ .

The extracted average  $\delta V_{th}$  induced by one trap,  $\mu$ , is given in Figs. 5(c) and 5(d) for acceptor-like and donor-like traps, respectively. In agreement with early work [20],[25],  $\mu$  is independent of the time. The acceptor-like traps have larger  $\mu$  than the donor-like traps. GEV gives the largest  $\mu$  and Exponential gives the lowest. It should be noted that the average  $\mu$  is in a range of 0.5 ~ 0.8 mV, indicating that there are small  $\delta V_{th}$  that can be difficult to measure directly.

The other parameters for  $\delta V_{th}$  distributions are insensitive to time, either, since  $\delta V_{th}$  is the shift per trap. Their values are given in Table I.

#### B. Prediction of effective charged traps

Using the concept of ECT for modelling RTN converts the distribution of traps' time constants into a time dependent number of ECT, as shown in Figs. 5(a) and 5(b). This transforms the prediction of long term RTN to finding the kinetics of ECT, similar to predicting device ageing [14]. For ageing, power law is the well-known kinetics [14]. For the time constant distribution of RTN, two distributions were proposed: a uniform distribution against logarithmic time (Log-uniform) [5],[11] and a scaled Log-normal distribution [9],[21]. These three kinetics will be tested against the experimental data next.

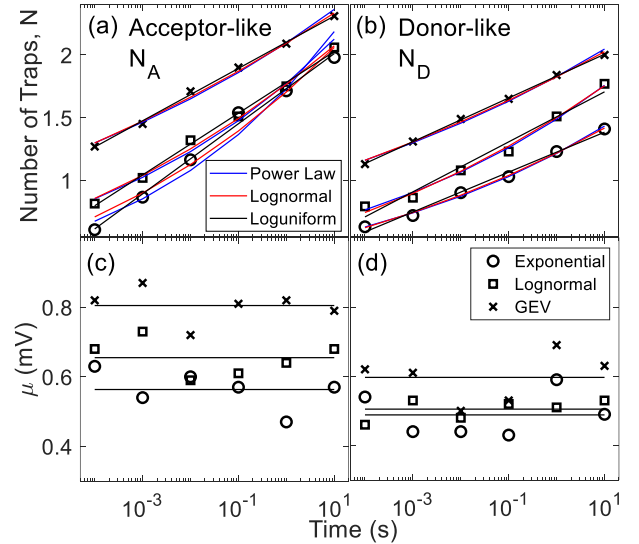


Fig. 5. The extracted average number of acceptor-like (a) and donor-like (b) traps per device at different time, based on different  $\delta V_{th}$  distributions. The lines in (a) and (b) are the fitted kinetics. The extracted average  $\delta V_{th}$  per trap,  $\mu$ , is given in (c) for acceptor-like traps and in (d) for donor-like traps. The lines in (c) and (d) are the mean values.

All three kinetics can fit test data reasonably well over five orders of magnitude in time between  $10^{-4}$  and 10 sec with the

relative Root-Mean-Square-Error (RSME) of a few percent. As a result, good fitting with test data is not sufficient to justify a model. If a model is correct, it should be able to not only fit test data, but also predict the long term RTN where test data is not used for fitting.

To further verify these kinetics, the RTN tests were extended from 10 to  $6 \times 10^4$  sec. In Fig. 6, the symbols are extracted from test data. The data scattering beyond 10 sec is larger, since 402 devices were used between  $10^{-4}$  and 10 sec and only 51 devices were used for the time-consuming tests of  $6 \times 10^4$  sec.

The solid lines in Fig. 6 were the kinetics fitted with data between  $10^{-4}$  and 10 sec and the data beyond 10 sec were not used for the fitting. These fitted kinetics were then extrapolated from 10 to  $6 \times 10^4$  sec, as represented by the dashed lines. Although the differences between the fitted solid lines appear small, they become substantial for the extrapolated dashed lines as time increases. The sum of squared errors is summarized in Figs. 7(a) and 7(b) and discussed next.

For the Exponential  $\delta V_{th}$  distribution, the Log-normal kinetics gives the lowest error for  $N_A$  in Figs. 6(a) and 7(a), but  $N_D$  agrees better with the power law, as shown in Fig. 6(d) and 7(b). It should be noted, however, even though the power law gives the lowest error for  $N_D$  with Exponential  $\delta V_{th}$ , i.e. the first blue bar on the left in Fig. 7(b), this blue bar is higher than the errors of Lognormal and GEV  $\delta V_{th}$ .

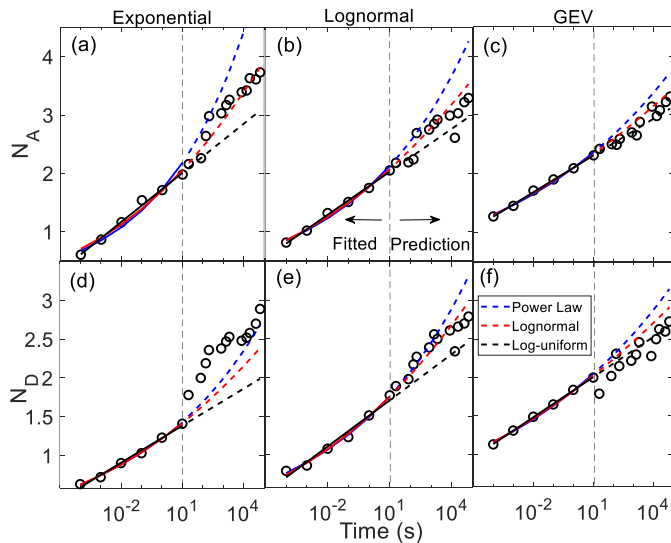


Fig. 6. Predicting the average number of acceptor-like traps,  $N_A$ , in the top row (a, b, c) and donor-like traps,  $N_D$ , in the bottom row (d, e, f). Symbols are extracted by fitting with the  $\delta V_{th}$  distribution of Exponential in the left column (a, d), Log-normal in the middle column (b, e), and GEV in the right column (c, f). The solid lines were fitted with symbols between  $10^{-4}$  and 10 sec for different kinetics. The dashed lines were extrapolated to  $6 \times 10^4$  sec. The symbols beyond 10 sec were not used for fitting.

For  $N_A$  with Log-normal  $\delta V_{th}$  distribution, Fig. 7(a) shows that power law has the highest error and errors are similar for Log-normal and Log-uniform kinetics. For  $N_D$ , Figs. 6(e) and 7(b) show that Log-normal kinetics has the lowest error. For GEV  $\delta V_{th}$  distribution. Figs. 6(c), 6(f), 7(a) and 7(b) show that Log-uniform has the lowest error for both  $N_A$  and  $N_D$ .

The CDF of Log-normal kinetics should lead to an eventual saturation of  $N_A$  and  $N_D$  as time increases [11]. It, however, can

fit the test data within the measurement window without approaching its saturation. As a result, we cannot rule it out based on current data.

Based on Figs. 6 and 7, the power law gives poor prediction of RTN overall. The RTN and ageing follows different kinetics, therefore. RTN interacts with device ageing. On one hand, the traps responsible for the RTN can also contribute to the charge build-up during ageing tests, such as bias temperature instability (BTI) [27],[28]. On the other hand, it has been reported that, after stress, some RTN signal can disappear for some time and then reappear [27]. One may speculate that stress releases some hydrogenous species, which interact with the RTN trap through temporary bonding, deactivates the RTN, and then migrate away [14],[27]. The detailed physical process is beyond the scope of this work.

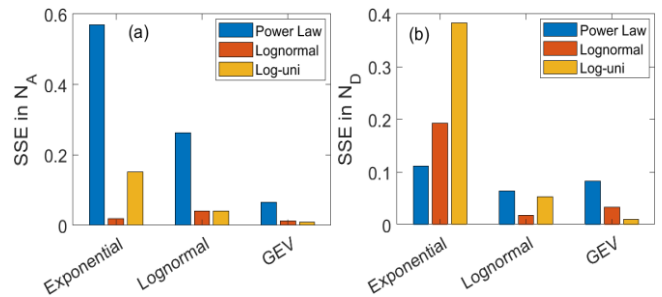


Fig. 7. The sum of squared errors for the prediction in Fig. 6 for acceptor-like (a) and donor-like (b) average number of traps per device. The lowest errors were obtained for Log-uniform kinetics with GEV  $\delta V_{th}$  distribution.

We now estimate the percentage of ECTs against the active traps available for a given time window. The average number of active acceptor-like ( $N_{EA}$ ) and donor-like ( $N_{ED}$ ) traps per device can be estimated from the Upper- and Lower-Envelopes in Fig. 2 by dividing their average  $\delta V_{th}$  per trap, i.e.  $\mu$ , given in Figs. 5(c) and 5(d), respectively. Fig. 8 gives the ratio of ECT, i.e.  $N_A$  and  $N_D$  extracted for the GEV distribution in Figs. 6(c) and 6(f), against  $N_{EA}$  and  $N_{ED}$ , respectively. This ratio represents the average occupancy of traps. The time in Fig. 8 is the time window for measuring RTN. At short time window, over 50% traps are effectively charged. The occupancy decreases for longer time window and settles around 1/3. As longer time window allows capturing slower traps, this indicates that slower traps have lower occupancy than faster traps.

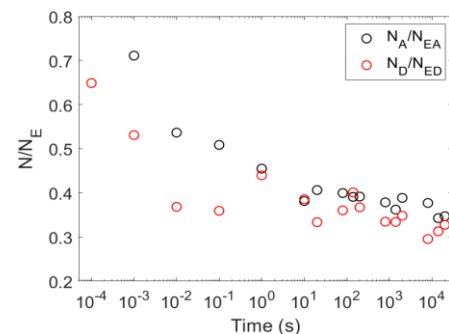


Fig. 8. The ratio of Effective Charged Traps,  $N_A$  and  $N_D$ , against the active traps available estimated from the Upper-envelope,  $N_{EA}$ , and Lower-Envelope,  $N_{ED}$ , respectively.

Figs. 2 and 6 show that the number of traps is time window dependent. In some early works, the number of traps in a device is specified without clearly giving a time window. In our opinion, this specification is incomplete. For example, when measured with a limited time window, a device may have zero trap. It, however, does not rule out that there are slower traps in this device. As a result, a time window should be given when specifying the number of traps in a device. If the time constant of traps follows a Log-uniform distribution, one cannot determine the total number of traps in a device in principle, although some devices can have a limited number of traps statistically.

### C. The CDF Prediction of long-term RTN

As discussed in the introduction, the probability distribution function is what a designer needs for assessing the impact of RTN within a given time window. The question is how well one can predict the long-term CDF of RTN, based on the parameters extracted over a short time. For the first time, we attempt to predict the CDF of RTN at  $6 \times 10^4$  sec by the model extracted from the data between  $10^{-4}$  and 10 sec.

For each  $\delta V_{th}$  distribution, the number of acceptor-like and donor-like traps at  $6 \times 10^4$  sec is predicted by the kinetics of the lowest errors, as given in Table II. The statistical parameters of  $\delta V_{th}$  distribution and thermal noise are assumed to be independent of time and their values given in Table I were used. With these parameters, the probability for one device to have a given  $\Delta V_{th}$  can be calculated directly, making the RTN simulation more efficient than the Monte Carlo simulation.

Figs. 9(a) and 9(b) compare the measured and predicted CDF at  $6 \times 10^4$  sec for the Exponential, Log-normal and GEV  $\delta V_{th}$  distributions. For the Exponential, the kinetics used is Log-normal for acceptor-like traps and power law for donor-like traps. For the Log-normal  $\delta V_{th}$  distribution, Log-normal kinetics were used for both acceptor-like and donor-like traps. For the GEV, Log-uniform kinetics were used for both acceptor-like and donor-like traps. Fig. 9(c) shows that the errors reduce in the order of Exponential, Log-normal, and GEV. A reasonable agreement is obtained with test data, as shown in Figs. 9(a) and 9(b). This verifies the integral methodology proposed and its ability to predict the RTN at  $6 \times 10^4$  sec based on data measured between  $10^{-4}$  and 10 sec, a factor of  $6 \times 10^3$  ahead. If one uses the data between  $10^{-4}$  and  $6 \times 10^4$  sec to make the prediction, it is reasonable to expect that one can predict a factor of  $6 \times 10^3$  ahead, again. This will take the time to  $3.6 \times 10^8$  sec, which is beyond 10 years.

Table II. The kinetics fitted with data between  $10^{-4}$  and 10 sec.

$\delta V_{th}$ distribution	ECT	Kinetics
Exponential	$N_A$	$12.8 * \left[ \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left( -\frac{\ln(t) - 21.5}{19.1\sqrt{2}} \right) \right]$
	$N_D$	$1.2152 * t^{0.0716}$
Lognormal	$N_A$	$13.1 * \left[ \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left( -\frac{\ln(t) - 24.8}{22.5\sqrt{2}} \right) \right]$
	$N_D$	$13.3 * \left[ \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left( -\frac{\ln(t) - 29.04}{24.2\sqrt{2}} \right) \right]$
GEV	$N_A$	$0.091 * \ln(t) + 2.1$
	$N_D$	$0.076 * \ln(t) + 1.83$

## IV. CONCLUSIONS

The capability to predict the long term RTN by the models developed in early works has not been verified and this work proposes an integral methodology and verifies its capability to make this prediction. Instead of characterizing the contribution of individual traps to RTN, the impact of traps in a device was measured collectively and there is no need for selecting devices. Through integrating RTN measured on multiple devices into one dataset and using the concept of effective charged traps (ECT), the statistical distribution of device parameters at a given time is modelled, removing the formidable burden of characterizing the time constants of individual traps. This transforms the distribution of time constants to the kinetics of ECT, making the prediction of long term RTN similar to predicting ageing. The accuracy of RTN amplitude distribution per trap proposed by early works was assessed, including Exponential, Log-normal, and Generalized Extreme Value (GEV). The three kinetics examined are power law, Log-normal, and Log-uniform. The power law gives poor prediction and RTN follows different kinetics from ageing. Fluctuations in both positive and negative directions are modelled through using acceptor-like and donor-like traps. The work shows that this integral methodology can predict RTN by a factor of  $6 \times 10^3$  ahead, opening the way for predicting RTN to 10 years based on measurements in a time window of one day.

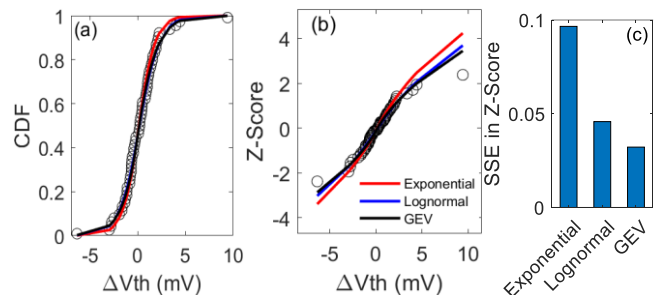


Fig. 9. Predicting the CDF of RTN at  $6 \times 10^4$  sec based on the models extracted from the data between  $10^{-4}$  and 10 sec. The symbols were measured data and the lines were the predicted CDF by using the  $N_A$  and  $N_D$  predicted in Fig. 6 and the average  $\mu$  in Figs. 5(c) and 5(d). The CDF is plotted linearly in (a) and in Z-score in (b). The lines in (a) and (b) are the CDF fitted with different  $\delta V_{th}$  distributions. (c) shows that the minimum error was obtained with GEV  $\delta V_{th}$  distribution and Log-uniform kinetics.

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