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# Random telegraph signal generation based on magnetic tunnel junction for security and unconventional computing applications

To cite this article: Jiajia Jian *et al* 2026 *J. Phys. D: Appl. Phys.* **59** 015005

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## Random telegraph signal generation based on magnetic tunnel junction for security and unconventional computing applications

RECEIVED  
24 June 2025REVISED  
27 October 2025ACCEPTED FOR PUBLICATION  
10 December 2025PUBLISHED  
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E-mail: [zheng.chai@xjtu.edu.cn](mailto:zheng.chai@xjtu.edu.cn) and [tai.min@nju.edu.cn](mailto:tai.min@nju.edu.cn)**Keywords:** magnetic tunnel junction, random telegraph signal, stochastic computing, artificial neural network**Abstract**

Random telegraph signals (RTS) can serve as a physical entropy source for hardware security, stochastic computing, and artificial intelligence, yet the conventional implementations of RTS face critical limitations: CMOS-based approaches suffer from area inefficiency; emerging memristors offer probabilistic switching but lack controllability; while existing spintronic RTS solutions require external magnetic fields with limited tunability. This work introduces a field-free, electronically modulated RTS methodology using a single magnetic tunnel junction. By exploiting voltage-controlled stochastic magnetization switching, we generate intrinsically random RTS with demonstrated cryptographic-grade randomness. The RTS platform successfully executes key exchange protocols and real-time voice encryption. Crucially, the core parameters of RTS—state occupation ratio and transition time constants—can be dynamically modulated via excitation amplitude adjustment. This controllable RTS also successfully achieved image edge detection without post-processing and played a significant role in suppressing overfitting of neural networks. This voltage-modulated RTS paradigm bridges hardware stochasticity with algorithmic demands, establishing a robust foundation for secure and efficient computing systems.

**1. Introduction**

Random telegraph signals (RTS), characterized by random fluctuations between discrete voltage or current levels [1], represent a promising physical entropy. Their inherent randomness, low energy consumption, and minimal transistor footprint make them highly attractive for critical applications such as hardware security [2], unconventional computing paradigms [3, 4], and artificial intelligence [5].

Among naturally occurring RTS, random telegraph noise (RTN) stands as a widely reported example [6, 7]. RTN arises from the stochastic trapping and detrapping of charge carriers at oxide defects within nanoscale semiconductor devices, including MOSFETs [8, 9]. This phenomenon plays a vital role in several potential and promising applications, including true random number generators (TRNGs) [10–12], neuromorphic computing [13], physical unclonable functions (PUFs) [14], and temperature sensors [15].

However, the practical utilization of naturally occurring RTN faces fundamental challenges. The random spatial distribution of defects makes RTN inherently scarce and unpredictable in standard CMOS devices. Harvesting usable RTN signals necessitates laborious screening of large device arrays, often requiring sophisticated algorithms or manual characterization [16, 17]. Furthermore, RTN's capture and emission time constants ( $\tau_c$  and  $\tau_e$ , respectively)—critical parameters for RTN-based systems—exhibit

pronounced sensitivity to process, voltage, and temperature variations [18, 19] that degrade application performance. While approaches like electrical stress or dedicated AC operation have been proposed to enhance RTN occurrence or robustness [20], they inevitably increase power consumption and complexity without fully resolving the core issue of reliance on stochastic defects.

To overcome these limitations of defect-dependent natural RTS, research has shifted towards artificially generating controllable RTS instead of finding RTN from the device. Emerging devices with probabilistic switching characteristics (such as memristors [21, 22]) are attractive for this task. Unlike CMOS technology, the storage mechanism of these novel memories relies on resistance changes to achieve different logical states [23]. Due to the specific physical architecture, these emerging devices can provide an intrinsic ultra-small entropy source and have the potential to be a new technology for RTS generation.

In this context, magnetic random-access memory (MRAM) emerges as a particularly promising platform [24, 25] due to its fast switching, exceptional endurance, inherent stability, and low power consumption [26]. Indeed, magnetic tunnel junctions (MTJs) have emerged as versatile platforms for TRNG, leveraging diverse mechanisms including superparamagnetic switching [27–29], voltage-controlled magnetic anisotropy [30, 31], and spin-orbit torque [32, 33]. These methods exploit thermal fluctuations to harvest randomness, often achieving high-speed, low-power entropy generation.

Among them, low-barrier MTJs with controllable switching probability have been developed, but it requires special processes [34] and is different from MRAM used for memory applications. And they cannot control the time each state stays in individually. Besides, existing RTS generation schemes based on MRAM typically require the application of both electrical pulses and external magnetic fields [35, 36], which complicates integration with commercial integrated circuits. In addition, the generated RTS is only marginally tunable under variable externally applied magnetic fields, further limiting its practical applications due to limited adaptability.

This paper addresses these critical challenges by proposing a novel method for generating tunable spintronic RTS. Our approach operates exclusively within a single MRAM device and relies solely on electronic operations, eliminating the need for external magnetic fields. We demonstrate that the generated RTS exhibits excellent randomness, validating its efficacy in demanding applications like encryption (including key exchange and real-time voice encryption). Crucially, we show that key RTS parameters—namely the state occupation ratio and time constants—can be precisely modulated by simply varying the amplitude of the applied electrical waveform. This inherent controllability paves the way for efficient deployment in random computing and neuromorphic networks, offering a robust, integrable, and energy-efficient entropy source that overcomes the fundamental drawbacks of both natural RTN and existing artificial generation methods.

## 2. Experimental methods

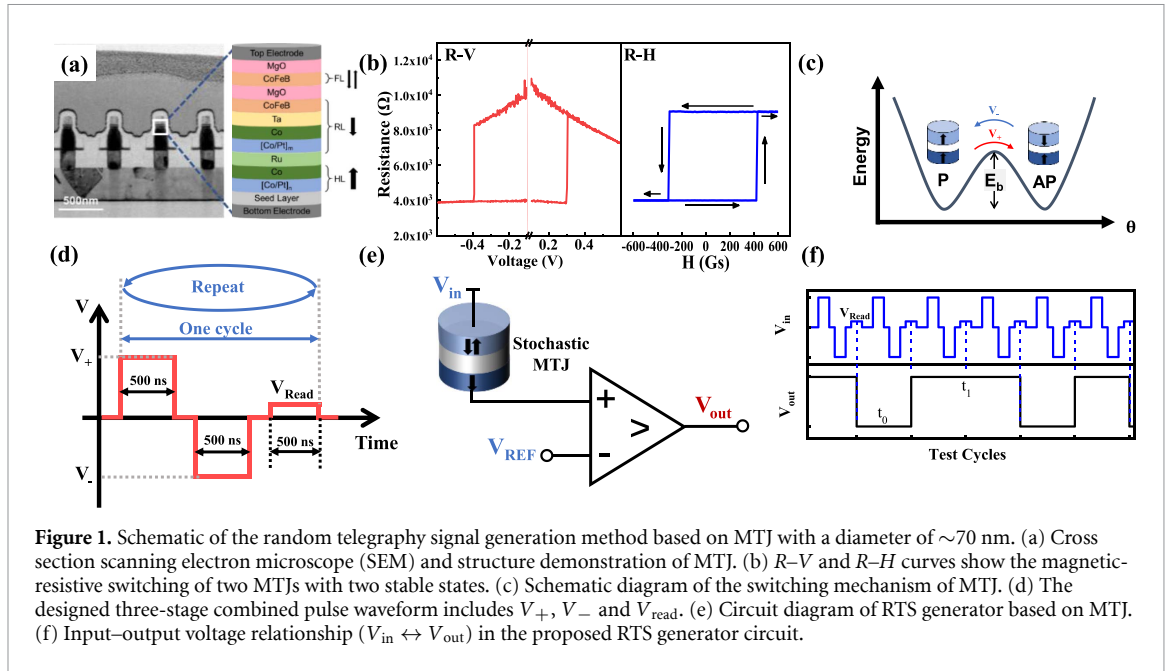
In this study, we utilize spin transfer torque MRAM (STT-MRAM) as the device for generating spintronic RTS. The core storage element of the STT-MRAM consists of a bottom-pinned perpendicular magnetic anisotropy (PMA) MTJ. Figure 1(a) presents a cross-sectional schematic and structural diagram of the MTJ with a diameter of  $\sim 70$  nm and  $\Delta = 80$  at 298.15 K used in this work. All electrical measurements were performed using pulse measurement units in a Keithley 4200 semiconductor characterization system.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. RTS generator based on MTJ

The switching process of the MTJ is governed by the combined effects of STT and thermal fluctuations.  $R$ - $V$  curve and  $R$ - $H$  curve (figure 1(b)) shows the magneto-resistive switching between the low resistance (P) state and the high resistance (AP) state, as the industrial-ready device is thermally stable. As shown in figure 1(c), upon application of a positive voltage ( $V_+$ ), STT-driven alignment induces anti-parallel magnetization between the free and pinned layers, establishing a high-resistance state (AP). Conversely, under  $V_-$  bias, parallel alignment is energetically stabilized, transitioning the device to a low-resistance state (P). Thermal fluctuations introduce stochasticity into the switching dynamics, enabling probabilistic state transitions, which behaves stochastic switching at applied voltages below the critical threshold. The stochastic switching of MTJ device can be explained by the Néel–Brown in equation (1) and (2),

$$P(t) = 1 - \exp(-t/\tau) \quad (1)$$



**Figure 1.** Schematic of the random telegraphy signal generation method based on MTJ with a diameter of  $\sim 70$  nm. (a) Cross section scanning electron microscope (SEM) and structure demonstration of MTJ. (b)  $R$ - $V$  and  $R$ - $H$  curves show the magnetic-resistive switching of two MTJs with two stable states. (c) Schematic diagram of the switching mechanism of MTJ. (d) The designed three-stage combined pulse waveform includes  $V_+$ ,  $V_-$  and  $V_{\text{read}}$ . (e) Circuit diagram of RTS generator based on MTJ. (f) Input-output voltage relationship ( $V_{\text{in}} \leftrightarrow V_{\text{out}}$ ) in the proposed RTS generator circuit.

where  $P(t)$  is the thermal switching probability, and  $\tau$  is the relaxation time,

$$\tau = f_0^{-1} \exp(E_b/k_B T) \quad (2)$$

where  $f_0$  is the attempt frequency,  $E_b$  is the energy barrier, and  $T$  is the temperature.

Accordingly, a composite pulse waveform was designed in figure 1(d), comprising three functional phases: A positive-voltage pulse ( $V_+$ ) inducing probabilistic switching from the parallel (P) to antiparallel (AP) state; A negative-voltage pulse ( $V_-$ ) driving reverse magnetization switching; A measurement pulse sampling the MTJ resistance state. The bipolar voltage pulses have been previously explored to induce stochastic MTJ switching [37] used this waveform to model the switching process via Markov chains and then solve a linear algebra problem [38]. By contrast, this work transforms the underlying physical mechanism into a programmable entropy source, generating an intrinsic RTS that enables broader application. This opposing-polarity excitation induces stochastic oscillation between P and AP states, yielding an intrinsic RTS. An RTS generator is proposed in figure 1(e), comprising two core components: stochastic MTJ unit and a comparator circuit.  $V_{\text{in}}$  inputs a combined pulse waveform, then MTJ generates RTS randomly after receiving the stimulus. The RTS is read and compared with the reference value to generate digital RTS sequence. When the MTJ assumes an AP state, the digital output signal corresponds to logic level ‘1’; conversely, a P state yields logic level ‘0’. The RTSs shown in this article were generated at a sampling rate of 0.28 MHz and a duty cycle of 0.43. It is worth noting that the sampling rate can be as high as 100 MHz or more due to the ultra-fast switching of the MTJ [39], which is orders of magnitude faster than the existing MTJ-based superparamagnetic oscillation in milliseconds [40].

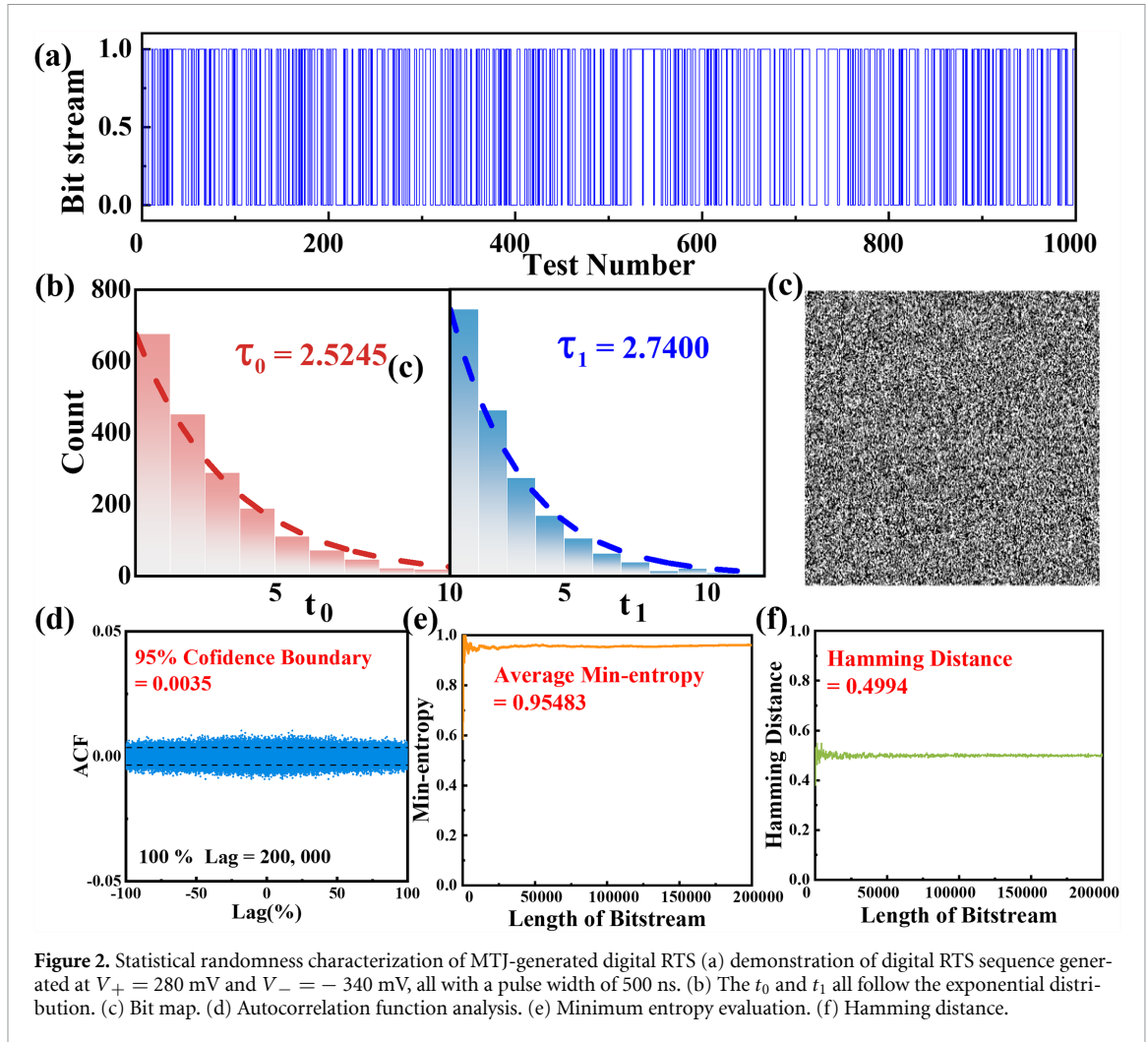
Figure 1(f) illustrates the temporal relationship between input stimulus and output bits. Each comparison cycle produces one random bit, with  $V_{\text{ref}}$  and  $V_{\text{in}}$  maintained constant throughout repeated cycles to generate a digital bit stream of any length. In the proposed MTJ-based RTS, the durations of continuous P and AP states are denoted as  $t_0$  and  $t_1$ , respectively, with  $\tau_0$  and  $\tau_1$  denoting their corresponding averages—both critical parameters for RTS in equation (3). Herein, the ‘duration’ refers to the number of consecutive identical bits,

$$\tau_x = \frac{1}{N_x} \sum t_x \quad (3)$$

where  $t_x$  is the  $i$ th dwell time for state  $x$ , and  $N_x$  is the total number of segments observed in that state.

### 3.2. Randomness evaluation

Under pulse amplitude of  $V_+ = 280$  mV,  $V_- = -340$  mV, all with a pulse width of 500 ns, a 200 000-bit digital RTS was generated, with figure 2(a) depicting an exemplary segment of this sequence. Theoretically, RTSs—including RTN, stochastic switching in ovonic threshold selectors [41], and



stochastic magnetic oscillators [4]—conform to Poisson processes, where inter-state transition intervals follow an exponential distribution. Experimentally, as evidenced by the exponential distributions of  $t_0$  and  $t_1$  in figure 2(b), the generated spintronic RTS in figure 2(a) exhibits Poissonian statistics consistent with this theoretical framework.

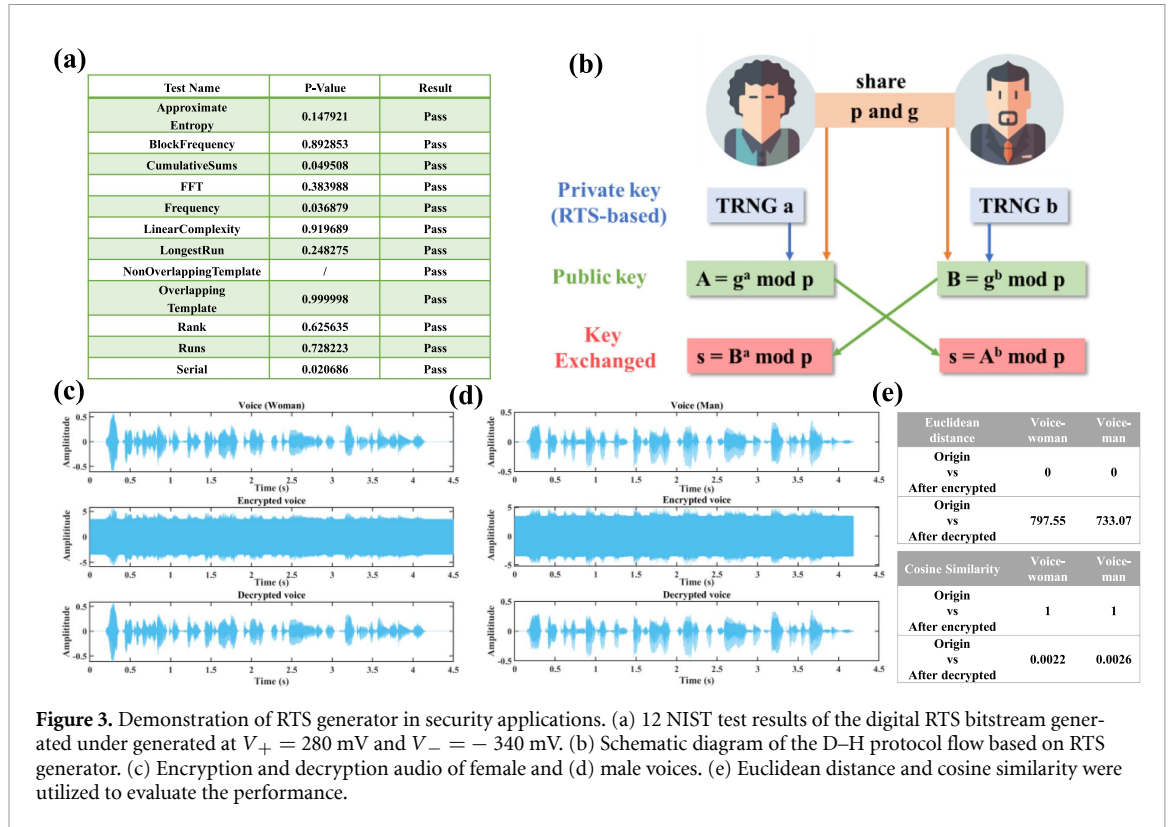
Statistical tests are conducted to evaluate the randomness quality of the generated bitstream. Figure 2(c) presents the bit distribution map, where logical 1 and 0 states are represented by black and white units. They account for 51% and 49% of the total sequence respectively. The absence of any discernible pattern supports the good randomness of the RTS.

Figure 2(d) shows the relative autocorrelation scatter plot of the generated random numbers, and the 95% boundary (95% confidence interval, 95% CI) of the relative autocorrelation is 0.0035, indicating that the generated random numbers have low autocorrelation and good randomness. Entropy is a measure of the uncertainty of a random sequence. The average entropy of the generated random number sequence is 0.954 83 in figure 2(e), indicating excellent unpredictability. In addition, hamming distance (HD) is employed to determine the dissimilarity between two equal-length signals from original RTS. Figure 2(f) shows that the HD is 0.4994 when the length of bitstream is 200 000, which further shows that the generated random numbers are evenly distributed and have good unbiasedness.

### 3.3. Applications of RTS generator

#### 3.3.1. RTS generator for cryptographic applications

Random signals intended for cryptographic applications need satisfy more stringent requirements than those for general purposes, including uniform statistical independence, unpredictability, and absence of discernible patterns. The NIST Statistical Test Suite (NIST) evaluates these critical characteristics. As evidenced by figure 3(a), the generated true random sequence successfully passed all 12 statistical tests in the NIST SP 800–22 standard, validating its suitability for cryptographic implementations.



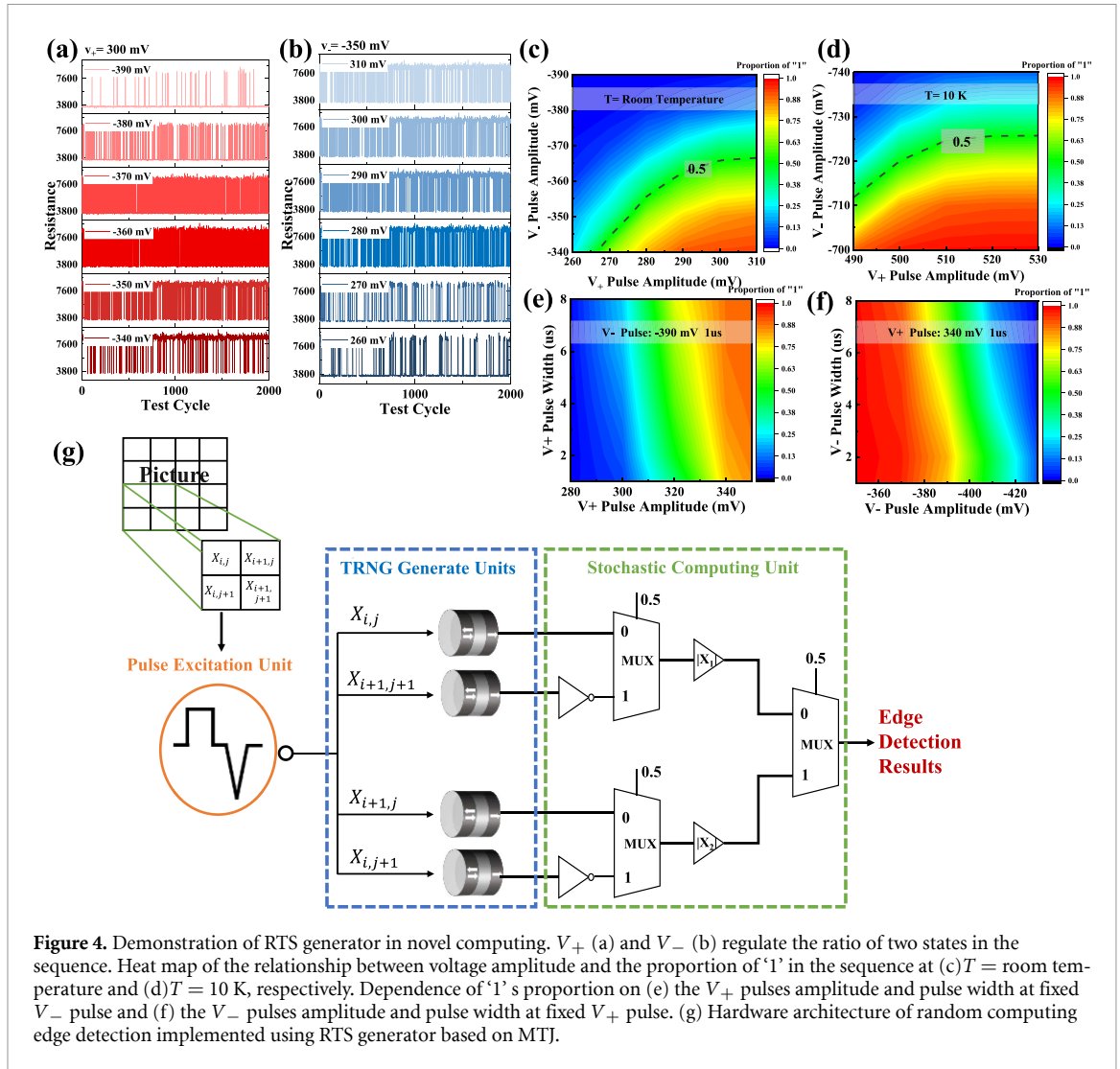
The proposed RTS generator can be used for cryptographic implementations in both digital and analog domains. An RTS generator based Diffie–Hellman (D–H) Key Exchange protocol is demonstrated in figure 3(b) in a digital form. D–H key exchange allows two communicating parties to create a shared secret key over an insecure channel. Both parties only share  $p$  and  $g$ , obtain their own random private keys through RTS generator, and obtain a shared private key through calculation after transmitting information in the public channel.

The cryptographic application of analog signals is validated through speech encryption/decryption. As shown in figures 3(c) and (d), a symmetric algorithm [42] employs male and female audio signals as validation benchmarks. The encryption process implements equation (4), while decryption executes equation (5),

$$x(n)_d = \frac{x(n) - RTS_5 - RTS_1}{RTS_4} + RTS_3 \quad (4)$$

$$x(n) = (((x(n)_d - RTS_3) * (RTS_2)) + RTS_1) * RTS_4 + RTS_5. \quad (5)$$

The input signal  $x(n)$  represents an audio sequence containing the text: ‘Welcome to the center for spintronic materials and quantum devices.’ Encryption employs five distinct random sequences ( $RTS_1$ – $RTS_5$ ) generated by original RTS and  $x(n)_d$  represents the encrypted speech sequence. Despite spectral disparities between male and female vocal inputs, both signal types exhibit effective encryption, manifested that original content auditorily unrecognizable. And lossless decryption is confirmed by waveform reconstruction. These results collectively validate the cryptographic robustness of the proposed RTS generator for digital and analog security applications. To quantitatively validate the audio encryption/decryption process, we compared vectorized representations of the original, encrypted, and decrypted signals (figure 3(e)). Euclidean distance analysis confirms strong encryption distortion. The original-to-encrypted distance approaches zero, while the original-to-decrypted distance is significant—indicating effective restoration [43]. Complementary cosine similarity metrics further verify this behavior. The encrypted signal shows near-orthogonality to the original (value  $\approx 1$ , denoting minimal overlap), while the decrypted signal exhibits extremely low similarity to its encrypted counterpart [44]. Together, these results demonstrate both effective encryption and precise waveform recovery.

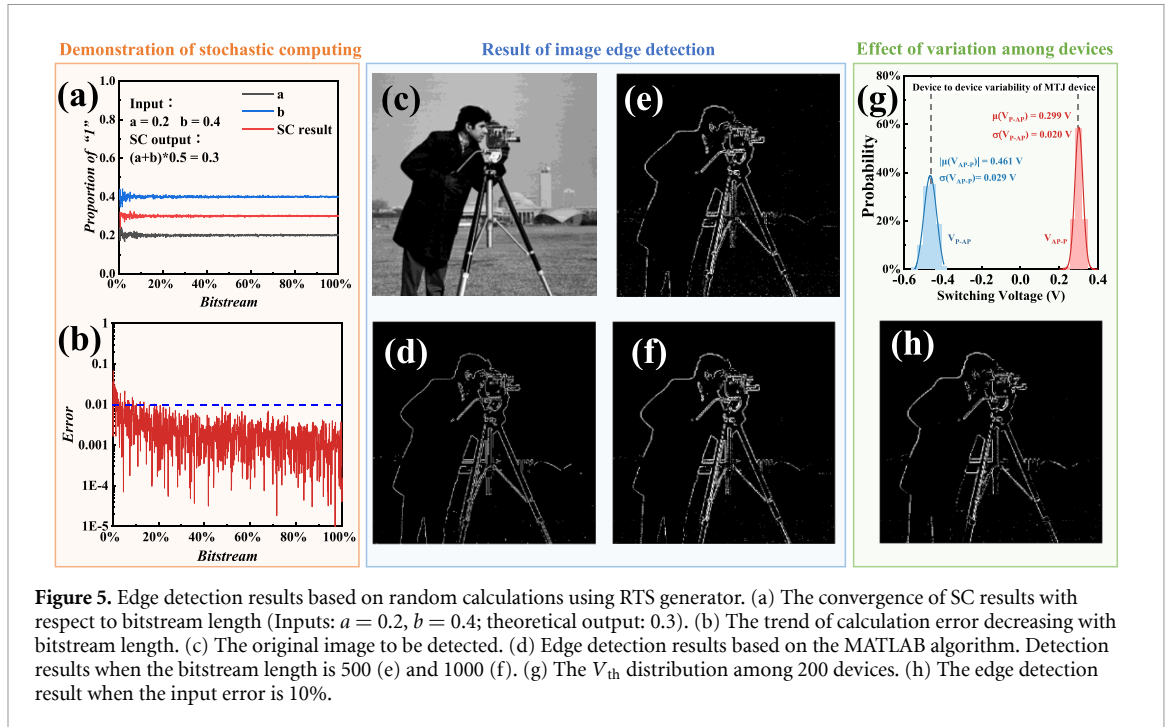


**Figure 4.** Demonstration of RTS generator in novel computing.  $V_+$  (a) and  $V_-$  (b) regulate the ratio of two states in the sequence. Heat map of the relationship between voltage amplitude and the proportion of '1' in the sequence at (c)  $T = \text{room temperature}$  and (d)  $T = 10 \text{ K}$ , respectively. Dependence of '1' s proportion on (e) the  $V_+$  pulses amplitude and pulse width at fixed  $V_-$  pulse and (f) the  $V_-$  pulses amplitude and pulse width at fixed  $V_+$  pulse. (g) Hardware architecture of random computing edge detection implemented using RTS generator based on MTJ.

### 3.3.2. RTS generator for stochastic computing

It is also hoped that RTS can show good controllability. Given that  $V_+$  and  $V_-$  respectively govern stochastic switching in opposite MTJ magnetization orientations, the probability distribution of output bits (0/1 ratio) becomes tunable through excitation amplitude modulation. As figure 4(a) demonstrates, increasing  $V_+$  elevates the probability of state 1 occurrence, while figure 4(b) reveals an inverse relationship where  $V_-$  reduces this probability. These voltage parameters enable control over both temporal characteristics and state offers significant advantages for emerging computational paradigms—particularly stochastic computing (SC). In SC, real numbers are represented through weighted bit-streams, enabling complex arithmetic operations via streamlined distributions in the digital RTS sequence. This modulation bitwise logic on probabilistically encoded data streams. Critically, figure 4(c) confirms the output state ratio spans the range of 0–1, thereby satisfying the complete numerical range requirement for stochastic computational applications. Furthermore, as shown in figure 4(d), state ratio control at  $T = 10 \text{ K}$  maintains identical trends to room-temperature operation. This demonstrates both the electrical control's wide-temperature versatility and its capacity for temperature compensation. Moreover, the results demonstrate tunability and robust operational margins as shown in figures 4(e) and (f). By adjusting either the amplitude or width of  $V_-$  or  $V_+$ , we also can control the proportion of '1's in the bitstream across the full range (0–1).

Stochastic computing finds foundational application in edge detection (ED). This technique employs convolutional kernels that process each image pixel to compute gradients, followed by adaptive



**Figure 5.** Edge detection results based on random calculations using RTS generator. (a) The convergence of SC results with respect to bitstream length (Inputs:  $a = 0.2$ ,  $b = 0.4$ ; theoretical output: 0.3). (b) The trend of calculation error decreasing with bitstream length. (c) The original image to be detected. (d) Edge detection results based on the MATLAB algorithm. Detection results when the bitstream length is 500 (e) and 1000 (f). (g) The  $V_{th}$  distribution among 200 devices. (h) The edge detection result when the input error is 10%.

thresholding for image edge extraction. The Roberts is used as a kernel in our study, which is one of the earliest ED operators and is represented by a  $2 \times 2$  matrix.

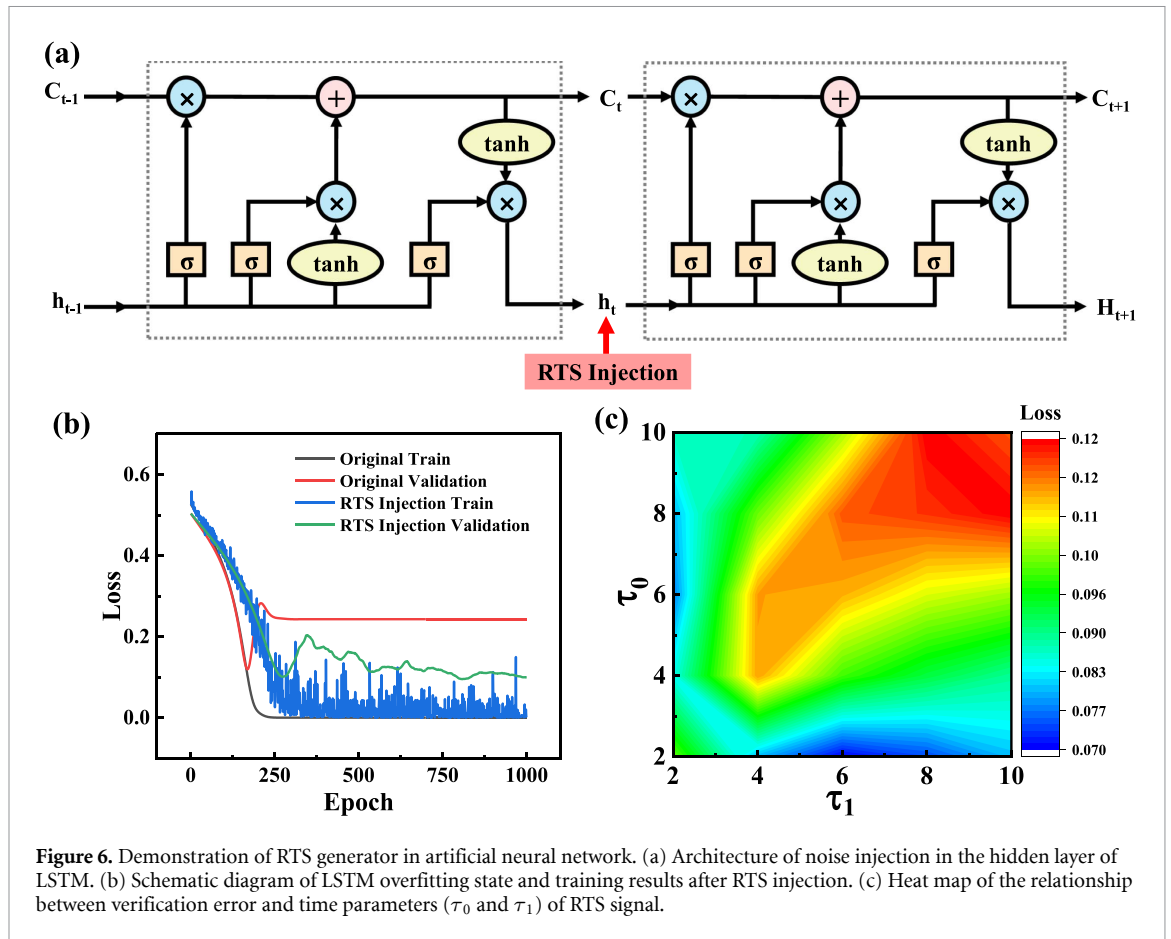
Figure 4(g) presents the ED system implemented using the controllable RTS generator. Following grayscale conversion and normalization, pixel intensities are probabilistically encoded through the RTS generator based on MTJ, where ‘1’ occurrence probability corresponds to grayscale values. The true random sequence representing the grayscale value matrix is processed through a multiplexer-based convolution to execute multiply–accumulate obtain the final ED result.

Figure 5(a) further illustrates the relationship between bitstream length and precision. It is observed that the method achieves high accuracy rapidly: with a bitstream length of only 1000 bits, the error is maintained within 1% in figure 5(b). Figure 5(c) depicts the original test image, while figure 5(d) displays the reference ED result obtained using MATLAB’s edge function. The 500-bit random sequence implementation in figure 5(e) exhibits residual background artifacts and edge noise. Figure 5(f) demonstrates comparable accuracy to software algorithms at 1000-bit sequences. By modulating electrical parameters to rapidly generate value-specific true random sequences, this approach provides a low-power, compact hardware solution for compute-intensive operations like ED.

Besides, a statistical analysis of the device-to-device switching probability variation is important for practical applications. The threshold voltage ( $V_{th}$ ) of 200 MTJ devices from the same wafer was measured. Figure 5(g) show that the  $V_{th}$  exhibits a very narrow Gaussian distribution in both the  $P \rightarrow AP$  and  $AP \rightarrow P$  directions. Their relative standard deviations ( $\sigma/\mu$ ) are only 6.3% and 6.7%, respectively. Then the performance of an image ED application was systematically simulated under varying degrees of variation. As shown in figure 5(h), even with an artificially introduced input error of 10% (exceeding the measured maximum relative deviation of 6.7%), the results show that core edge information remaining clearly visible due to the inherent error tolerance of stochastic computing [45].

### 3.3.3. RTS generator for artificial neural networks

Beyond serving as an entropy source for stochastic computation, the controllable RTS generator also play a key role in artificial neural networks. While prior studies indicate stochastic noise can mitigate neural network overfitting, physical noise sources typically lack extractability and tunability. The RTS generator addresses this limitation through enhanced randomness and modulation ability. As demonstrated in figure 6(a), we implement a long short-term memory networks (LSTM) for weather prediction with deliberately constrained training data (small training set/large validation set ratio) to simulate real-world data scarcity. Without intervention, figure 6(b) reveals classic overfitting: training error monotonically



**Figure 6.** Demonstration of RTS generator in artificial neural network. (a) Architecture of noise injection in the hidden layer of LSTM. (b) Schematic diagram of LSTM overfitting state and training results after RTS injection. (c) Heat map of the relationship between verification error and time parameters ( $\tau_0$  and  $\tau_1$ ) of RTS signal.

decreases with epochs, while Injection of RTS into LSTM's hidden layer (figure 6(a)) significantly suppresses overfitting over 50%. Critically, figure 6(c) demonstrates time-parameter-dependent modulation of overfitting suppression—this controllability has the potential to further reduce the validation set error beyond what is currently possible.

#### 4. Conclusion

This work establishes a voltage-driven spintronic RTS paradigm that overcomes fundamental limitations in entropy-source design. Existing RTS generation technologies have problems such as difficulty in extracting entropy sources and limited parameter control, which greatly restricts their practical applications as shown in table 1. In contrast, by exploiting electronic modulation within a single MTJ device, we demonstrate field-free RTS generation exhibiting cryptographic-grade randomness without external magnetic controls. The method enables dynamic parameter tuning of state occupation ratios (0–1) and transition time constants via excitation amplitude modulation, thereby facilitating adaptive stochastic computing. Validation across multiple domains confirms efficacy in secure communications (D–H protocols/voice encryption), edge detection, and machine learning (>50% overfitting suppression). This solution bridges intrinsic stochasticity with algorithmic requirements, establishing a new standard for secure, efficient intelligent hardware platforms.

**Table 1.** Comparison of RTS generation technologies.

	VLSI'16 [16]	VLSI'18 [20]	TED'19 [35]	SMACD'25 [46]	TVLSI'17 [12]	This Work
Entropy Source	MOSFETs	MOSFETs	MTJ	MOSFETs	MOSFETs	MTJ
Entropy Source	Intrinsic gate oxide defects	Electrically stressed oxide traps	Thermally stable MTJ and external field	Intrinsic gate oxide defects	Intrinsic gate oxide defects	Voltage-controlled stochastic magnetization switching
Entropy extraction method	Screening of large device arrays	Electrical stress and dedicated AC operation	Magnetic field assistance	Need to find transistors with specific defects	Silicon Measurements	Fully electronic operation
NIST SP 800–22 tests result	Untested	9 tests passed	Untested	6–13 tests passed	9 tests passed	12 tests passed
Tunable parameters	None	Bit rate only	State dwell times ( $\tau_{ap}$ and $\tau_p$ )	Limited bit rate only	Bit rate only	State ratio ( $P(1)$ ) and time constants ( $\tau_0$ , $\tau_1$ )
Throughput	N/A	3 Mbps	~1 kbps	N/A	~100 bps	0.2–100 Mbps (Pulse-controlled)
Energy per bit	N/A	<1 pJ/bit	>10 nJ/bit	N/A	N/A	~ 10 nJ/bit
Tuning mechanism	Not tunable	AC gate voltage and device stress	Dual bias: Voltage and magnetic field	Manual search	Gate voltage	Voltage amplitude only ( $V_+/V_-$ )
Key applications	Variability characterization	TRNG only	p-bit modeling	TRNG, PUF	TRNG	TRNG, SC, ANN

## Data availability statement

All data that support the findings of this study are included within the article (and any supplementary files).

## Acknowledgments

This work was financially supported by the National Key R&D Program of China (Grant No. 2025YFA1016400), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant Nos. 62104188 and 12327806).

## Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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