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## Article

## A generalized noise study of solid-state nanopores at low frequencies

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# A generalized noise study of solid-state nanopores at low frequencies

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KEYWORDS: flicker noise, nanopore, electrical double layer, model, power spectrum density, low frequency range, Hooge's theory

ABSTRACT: The nanopore technology has been extensively investigated for analysis of biomolecules, and a success story in this field concerns DNA sequencing using a nanopore chip featuring an array of hundreds of biological nanopores (BioNs). Solid-state nanopores (SSNs) have been explored to attain longer lifetime and higher integration density than what BioNs can offer, but SSNs are generally considered to generate higher noise whose origin remains to be confirmed. Here, we systematically study low-frequency (including thermal and flicker) noise characteristics of SSNs measuring 7 to 200 nm in diameter drilled through a 20-nm thick SiN<sub>x</sub> membrane by focused ion milling. Both bulk and surface ionic currents in the nanopore are found to contribute to the flicker noise, with their respective contributions

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2  
3 determined by salt concentration and *pH* value in electrolytes as well as bias conditions.  
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5 Increasing salt concentration at constant *pH* and voltage bias leads to increase in the bulk  
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7 ionic current and noise therefrom. Changing *pH* at constant salt concentration and current  
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9 bias results in variation of surface charge density, and hence alteration of surface ionic current  
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11 and noise. In addition, the noise from Ag/AgCl electrodes can become predominant when the  
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13 pore size is large and/or the salt concentration is high. Analysis of our comprehensive  
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15 experimental results leads to the establishment of a generalized nanopore noise model. The  
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17 model not only gives an excellent account of the experimental observations, but can also be  
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19 used for evaluation of various noise components in much smaller nanopores currently not  
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21 experimentally available.  
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28 Nanometer-size pores formed in an insulating membrane have been developed as chemical  
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30 and biological sensors for several decades,<sup>1-4</sup> primarily with the aim to detect DNA,<sup>5</sup> RNA,<sup>6</sup>  
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32 proteins,<sup>7</sup> large chemical molecules,<sup>8,9</sup> and even small particles.<sup>10</sup> A success example is the  
33  
34 use of biological or synthetic nanopores (BioNs), such as  $\alpha$ -Hymolysin, immobilized onto a  
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36 biological membrane to sequence DNA,<sup>11-13</sup> a pursuit that already began in the 1990's and has  
37  
38 led to a portable DNA sequencing system MinION being commercialized by Oxford  
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40 Nanopore Technologies.<sup>14</sup> However, nanopore sensors based on the BioN-membrane  
41  
42 combination usually suffer from mechanical fragility with short lifetime and sensitivity to  
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44 working environments.<sup>11</sup> Compatibility with the well-developed silicon process technology is  
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46 also highly desired in order to achieve massively parallelized sequencing at low costs.<sup>11,15</sup>  
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48 Solid-state nanopores (SSNs) have, therefore, been intensively explored in recent years as a  
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50 competitive alternative to the biological ones for high-throughput sequencing of single DNA  
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52 strands.  
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3 One of the major challenges with SSNs is its high background noise level,<sup>11,16</sup> which can  
4 severely distort the very weak signal carrying critical information of the detected molecules.  
5  
6 Our recent simulation of DNA sequencing based on a simple nano-disc model<sup>17</sup> indicates that  
7 the noise level measured in current should be controlled to be at least 5 times smaller than 1%  
8 of the open-pore ionic current in order to discriminate the four nucleotides on a translocating  
9 DNA strand. Noise control requires identification of the origin and improved understanding  
10 of the characteristics of the various noise sources, which has motivated extensive research  
11 activities. In short, noise in SSNs has been studied with respect to the mechanism and  
12 characteristics of flicker noise,<sup>18-23</sup> dielectric noise,<sup>24</sup> and capacitive noise.<sup>25</sup> Noise generated  
13 by nanobubbles has also been considered a source of flicker noise in nanopores.<sup>26</sup>  
14 Dependence of noise on bandwidth,<sup>27</sup> leakage current,<sup>28</sup> device structure,<sup>29</sup> and surface  
15 conditions<sup>30,31</sup> has also been the subject of investigation. Moreover, low noise readout circuits  
16 have been designed.<sup>32-34</sup> However, the source of flicker noise still remains to be confirmed.<sup>35</sup>  
17  
18 Furthermore, the analyses up to date are mostly single-issue-focused and a more generalized  
19 treatment that takes into account all sources and aspects of noise is necessary. In doing so,  
20 practical solutions to mitigating the noise of different origins can be outlined and  
21 implemented. Finding a generalized model, especially in the low-frequency (LF) range to  
22 which the desired translocation speed for, e.g., DNA sequencing, corresponds, is what the  
23 present work is aiming at.

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46 In this work, we employ nanopores of different diameters from 7 to 200 nm etched through a  
47 20-nm thick SiN<sub>x</sub> membrane to systematically investigate the noise characteristics in the 0.1-  
48 1000 Hz range. We scrutinize how a range of parameters, including salt concentration, pH  
49 value, nanopore size, and bias current, affect the noise characteristics. Based on a  
50 conventional descriptive model of noise in the literature,<sup>16,30</sup> a generalized model  
51 encompassing all aspects and all parameters investigated is developed. The model results are  
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3 found to agree well with the experimental data. The model is further used to analyze and  
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5 predict the significance of each and every noise component under different conditions,  
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7 especially for nanopores of more constricted dimensions than experimentally achieved.  
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## 10 11 12 13 14 **Results and Discussion**

### 15 16 17 **A. General properties of SiN<sub>x</sub> nanopores**

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20 Our nanopores were fabricated by drilling through a 20-nm thick, suspended SiN<sub>x</sub> membrane  
21  
22 using focused ion beam milling with either helium (for pores of sub-10 nm in diameter) or  
23  
24 gallium (for pores of 20 nm and above in diameter), see fabrication details in Methods. The  
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26 measurement setup is shown in Figure S1 (Supplementary Information). The two electrolyte  
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28 reservoirs on the two sides of the SiN<sub>x</sub> membrane were filled with potassium chloride (KCl)  
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30 solutions of equal concentration during the measurement. The micrograph in Figure 1a shows  
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32 the transmission electron microscope (TEM) image of a representative nanopore achieved  
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34 using helium ions. As seen, the pore has an irregular shape far from being circular. A linear  
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36 current-voltage relationship shown in Figure 1b indicates an ohmic electrical property, for  
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38 three salt solutions of different KCl concentrations from 10 mM to 1 M. By employing the  
39  
40 well-established conductance model for nanopores,<sup>36,37</sup> an effective diameter of this particular  
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42 pore is extracted to be 7.2 nm, which is illustrated by the green dash circle in the figure. The  
43  
44 difference between the effective and observed pore size could arise from unknown surface  
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46 effects on nanopore conductance. Thus in what follows, all the diameter values referred to are  
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48 effective since they were determined by current measurement and subsequent model  
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50 extraction.  
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3 A typical pattern of the noise power spectrum density (PSD) for the 7.2 nm nanopore is  
4 shown as Figure 1c. The noise PSD was converted from the time-domain current waveform  
5 recorded under 1 nA current bias in a 1 M KCl solution using fast Fourier transform. In the  
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10 0.1 Hz-1 kHz range, the current waveform was recorded for 30 s at 10 kHz sampling rate. For  
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12 the 1 kHz-100 kHz range, the sampling was conducted for 1 s at 250 kHz. In order to reduce  
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14 uncertainty, all the noise PSDs given in this paper represent the average of five measurements  
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16 for each data point. The samples were cleaned in piranha solution with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>O=3:1 and  
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18 deionized water prior to the measurement and the data acquisition was not performed until the  
19  
20 noise characteristics was stabilized. The PSD of a SSN can be described as:<sup>16,30</sup>

$$S_I = a_1 \frac{1}{f^\beta} + a_2 + a_3 f + a_4 f^2 \quad (1)$$

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28 where,  $f$  is frequency and  $a_{1,2,3,4}$  are coefficients. It is composed of LF flicker noise  $a_1/f^\beta$  with  
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30  $\beta$  between<sup>26,38</sup> 1 and 2, white thermal noise  $a_2$ , dielectric noise<sup>27,39</sup>  $a_3 f$ , and capacitive noise<sup>40</sup>  
31  
32  $a_4 f^2$ . The white thermal noise shown as the black horizontal dash line in Figure 1c is  
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34 calculated from the nanopore resistance by:

$$S_{IT} = a_2 = \frac{4kT}{R} \quad (2)$$

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43 where,  $k$  is Boltzmann constant,  $T$  is absolute temperature in degrees Kelvin, and  $R$  is the  
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45 resistance of the nanopore. We could not clearly identify the capacitive noise component in  
46  
47 our measurement, most likely because 100 kHz is still too low to allow its observation in our  
48  
49 nanopore system. The drop of PSD beyond 30 kHz is caused by the low-pass filter in the  
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51 amplifier. The high-frequency noise components, i.e. dielectric and capacitive, are mainly  
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53 related to the capacitance of the system.<sup>27,39,40</sup> According to the geometry and material of our  
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55 nanopore chip, the parasitic capacitance is estimated to be 30 pF. As the amplitude of the  
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3 capacitance noise will not become compatible with that of the  $1/f$  noise at 1 Hz until the  
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5 frequency is raised above 1 MHz. However, the noise in the LF range is strongly dependent  
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7 on several key parameters, such as pore size, salt concentration, and  $pH$  value of the solution,  
8  
9 that can be designed and engineered for optimal nanopore sensing. In the remainder of this  
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11 work, we will focus on the noise behavior of nanopores in the LF range (<1 kHz). For this  
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13 purpose, nanopores of relatively large diameters were used to help reveal more details and  
14  
15 facilitate the investigation of various LF noise components with high fidelity since a large  
16  
17 range of bias currents within the equipment compliance and a large span of KCl  
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19 concentrations are both possible.  
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## 27 **B. Dependence of LF noise on nanopore size and salt concentration**

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30 The noise PSDs of a 65-nm nanopore are shown in Figure 2a-c for measurements with three  
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32 different KCl concentrations, 10 mM, 100 mM, and 1 M, respectively. For each  
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34 concentration, the PSD was measured under various current biases from 5 to 100 nA. Since  
35  
36 the maximum voltage bias allowed by the amplifier is 1 V, the ionic current cannot reach 100  
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38 nA for small-diameter nanopores or with the highly resistive 10 mM KCl solution. The PSD  
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40 in the LF range is dominated by the  $1/f$ -shape noise and the level of this component increases  
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42 with increasing current. Further, increasing KCl concentration reduces the difference in PSDs  
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44 corresponding to different current biases. In other words, the PSD is less dependent on ionic  
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46 current in solutions of higher KCl concentration. This observation is in sharp contrast to the  
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48 general understanding that the PSD of the flicker noise should have a current-square  
49  
50 dependence as follows:<sup>18,41</sup>  
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$$56 \quad S_{IF} = \frac{a_1}{f^\beta} = \frac{\alpha_H I^2}{N_C f^\beta} \quad (3)$$

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3 where,  $\alpha_H$  the Hooge parameter and  $N_c$  is the total number of conducting carriers. This  
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5 relationship also indicates that lower noise is anticipated for higher salt concentration with  
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7 larger  $N_c$ , at a given  $I$ . However, the opposite is observed experimentally as mentioned above,  
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9 which can be better visualized using the root mean square (RMS) value of noise as shown  
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11 below.

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14 In order to identify the cause(s) responsible for such inconsistencies, possible noise sources in  
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16 the measurement system were analyzed. We first found that the Ag/AgCl electrodes could  
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18 generate current-independent  $1/f$  noise, see Supporting Information Figure S1. We infer that  
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20 this current-independency results from thermal noise that is further modulated to the  $1/f$   
21  
22 shape,<sup>42</sup> rather than from flicker noise; this specific thermal noise component originates from  
23  
24 the electrode-electrolyte interface and contributes to the PSD as a voltage source that induces  
25  
26 current fluctuations in the nanopore resistance, see a detailed analysis in Supporting  
27  
28 Information. Hence, it appears as a background floor at zero-bias current in the PSD, which is  
29  
30 increased when the solution resistance of the nanopore is decreased by increasing KCl  
31  
32 concentration and/or nanopore diameter. We will use “ $1/f$  noise” to denote any noise that  
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34 results in the  $1/f$ -shape in PSD, being aware of its different sources – the flicker noise from  
35  
36 the ionic current and the  $1/f$ -shape noise from the electrodes.

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39 The dependence of flicker noise PSD on KCl concentration should follow eq. (3), i.e.  
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41 increasing KCl concentration (increasing  $N_c$ ) lowers noise, in contrast to the rising noise floor  
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43 from the Ag/AgCl electrodes due to a lowered solution resistance. In effect, the decreasing  
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45 PSD levels (of the flicker noise) at different current biases are pushed back by the rising noise  
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47 floor (from the Ag/AgCl electrodes) and become less current dependent. Alternatively, it can  
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49 be viewed as that the current-independent noise floor from the electrodes dominates at high  
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51 KCl concentrations, while the current-dependent flicker noise from the nanopore itself  
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53 governs at low KCl concentrations. Hence, the PSD curves at 5, 10, and 20 nA in Figure 2c  
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3 lie close to one another, which basically represents the noise floor from the Ag/AgCl  
4 electrodes. Their PSDs display a strong frequency-dependency with  $\beta=1.5$ , which differs  
5 from  $\beta=1$  for the flicker noise of the nanopore.  
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10 The RMS values of noise from 3 Hz to 1 kHz versus current bias are depicted in Figure 2d for  
11 the three different KCl concentrations. Indeed, the noise level represented by RMS is found  
12 to be higher with 1 M than with 100 mM KCl at the same current 5 nA, which contradicts the  
13 prediction by eq. (3) for flicker noise. In accordance with the PSD characteristics, the noise  
14 RMS shows a stronger current dependency at lower KCl concentrations. Furthermore, the  
15 current dependence of the noise RMS is weakened by the growing white thermal noise  
16 (shown as the horizontal dash lines in Figure 2a-c) with increasing KCl concentration. Also  
17 seen in Figure 2d is a concentration-independent noise RMS at low current bias conditions,  
18 which is set by the noise floor from the Ag/AgCl electrodes.  
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31 The LF noise PSD for nanopores of different sizes all with the 1 M KCl solution is compared  
32 in Figure 3. The PSDs of the 20, 95, and 192 nm nanopores in Figure 3a-c, respectively,  
33 show the same pattern of development as that with the 65 nm nanopore in Figure 2. By  
34 plotting the noise RMS of all the nanopores in Figure 3d, the effects of ionic current and  
35 nanopore size as well as the development trends are clearly evident: the flicker noise becomes  
36 invisible and the  $1/f$ -shape noise floor from the Ag/AgCl electrodes dictates for large-diameter  
37 pores. The weakened dependence of RMS on current with increasing pore size due to the  
38 dominance of the electrode noise is also clearly visualized. The white thermal noise level  
39 from the nanopore itself is continually raised when increasing pore size (i.e. decreasing pore  
40 resistance) seen in Figures 2c and 3a-c, which also contributes to the observed leveling-off of  
41 the noise RMS in Figure 3d. Overall, the total noise becomes more dominated by the flicker  
42 noise for smaller nanopores, as validated by the noise characteristics of the pore 7.2 nm in  
43 diameter shown in Supporting Figure S6a as well as its comparison with the other pores in  
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3 terms of noise RMS summarized in Supporting Figure S6b. Its noise PSD in Figure S5a  
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5 shows a near current-square dependence, which illustrates that the  $1/f$  noise in such small  
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7 pores is almost totally determined by the flicker noise, as expected.  
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### 10 11 12 13 14 **C. Origin of the nanopore flicker noise** 15

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17 The origin of nanopore noise in SSNs has been a subject of intensive studies and the  
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19 frequency-dispersion of noise is well understood.<sup>19</sup> However, the constituents of flicker noise  
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21 remain unclarified. The following discussion will build on our understanding of flicker noise  
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23 in semiconductor devices that generally results from the fluctuation of charge carrier number  
24  
25 and mobility.<sup>41</sup> For the ionic current in a nanopore, it is known to consist of two components:  
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27 surface current representing the movement of ions confined within the boundary of the  
28  
29 electrical double layer (EDL) at the pore-electrolyte interface and bulk current describing the  
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31 convection flow with ions beyond EDL.<sup>36,43,44</sup> Thus, the source of flicker noise may also be  
32  
33 related to these two components. The respective effects of surface and bulk current are  
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35 analyzed by conducting the PSD measurements with solutions of different KCl concentrations  
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37 at constant  $pH$  and voltage bias (Figure 4a) and with solutions of different  $pH$  values at  
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39 constant KCl concentration and current bias (Figure 4b). Constant  $pH$  and voltage bias were  
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41 necessary in order to attain an invariable surface current, while constant KCl concentration  
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43 and current bias were applied so as to reach an invariable bulk current.  
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49 A relatively large pore measuring 95 nm in diameter was chosen in Figure 4a to minimize the  
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51 potential influence of the surface thus warrant the predominant effect of the bulk. The noise  
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53 was measured at a constant voltage bias of 0.1 V in order to generate a sufficiently large  
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55 current so as to minimize the probable effect of the Ag/AgCl electrodes on the  $1/f$  noise.  
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57 Surface current is merely influenced by the surface charge whose density stays nearly  
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3 constant at a given  $pH$  value. According to the site binding model of EDL,<sup>45</sup> the variation of  
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5 surface charge density on  $SiN_x$  is below 15% when the KCl concentration is varied from 1 M  
6  
7 to 10 mM (see Supporting Figure S7). Hence, surface current should remain the same in  
8  
9 solutions of different KCl concentrations. If surface current is the only source of flicker  
10  
11 noise, the noise level would not change by varying KCl concentration. Thus, the results in  
12  
13 Figure 4a clearly prove the important contribution of bulk current to flicker noise, since  
14  
15 increasing KCl concentration from 10 mM to 1 M at a constant  $pH=5$  has led to a continuous  
16  
17 increase in the  $1/f$  noise.  
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21 A smaller pore of 40 nm in diameter was used in Figure 4b to enhance the surface effect. The  
22  
23 noise was measured at a constant current bias of 100 nA and the  $pH$  value was successively  
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25 increased from 2.5 to 11, but with an invariant KCl concentration at 100 mM. The results in  
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27 Figure 4b undoubtedly show variations of flicker noise by changing  $pH$  value, but not in a  
28  
29 monotonous manner. The noise PSD level first increases with increasing  $pH$  to around 5.  
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31 Further increase in  $pH$  value leads to decrease in noise PSD. The maximum noise PSD level  
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33 appears  $pH\sim 5$ , which is close to the point of zero charge of  $SiN_x$ .<sup>46</sup> Since the bulk current is  
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35 kept constant and so is its noise component, the observed  $pH$  related variations of noise PSD  
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37 can only be attributed to the change in surface charge density, thereby confirming the  
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39 contribution of surface current to flicker noise. As a final proof, the flicker noise of smaller-  
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41 diameter pores shows a stronger  $pH$  dependence when the noise PSD is compared for  
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43 nanopores of different sizes (see Supporting Information Figure S8), since larger effects of  
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45 surface current are expected for smaller-diameter pores.  
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#### 55 **D. Noise model and modeling results**

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The clear trends observed in Figures 2 and 3 constitute the basis for the development of a comprehensive and generalized model of LF noise in SSNs in this B-section. Apart from the white thermal noise from the nanopore resistance expressed in eq. (2), the  $1/f$  noise includes two contributions: flicker noise from the nanopore and the  $1/f$ -shape noise from the electrodes. The flicker noise comprises components from the EDL region around the SSN and from the bulk in the nanopore beyond the EDL. Hence, the complete model of LF noise should read:

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_I(f) &= S_{IS} + S_{IB} + S_{IE} + S_{IT} + S_{ID} \\
 &= \frac{\alpha_H I_S^2}{N_{C,S} f^\beta} + \frac{\alpha_H I_B^2}{N_{C,B} f^\beta} + \frac{a_e}{f^\beta} + \frac{4kT}{R} + 8\pi kT d C_{chip} f
 \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where,  $S_{IS}$ ,  $S_{IB}$ ,  $S_{IE}$ ,  $S_{IT}$ , and  $S_{ID}$  represent the current noise PSD components for surface flicker noise, bulk flicker noise, electrode noise, white thermal noise, and dielectric noise, respectively;  $I_S$  and  $I_B$  are the surface and bulk current, respectively;  $N_{C,S}$  and  $N_{C,B}$  are the total number of charge carriers inside the EDL (surface) and the bulk;  $a_e$  is the current noise parameter for the electrodes;  $d$  is the dielectric loss factor of the membrane capacitance;  $C_{chip}$  is the capacitance of the membrane on which the nanopore is drilled. Derivation of eq. (4) is found in Appendix. According to the widely used conductance model for nanopores,<sup>36,37</sup> the nanopore resistance can be calculated based on the nanopore size and KCl concentration. Thus,  $I_S$  and  $I_B$  can be derived separately at a specified voltage bias. Except for  $\alpha_H$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $a_e$  that can be obtained through fitting the model to the measured noise PSD curves, all other parameters are determined with their respective values given in Table S1 (Supporting Information). A high fidelity of model fitting to the experimental noise PSD results can be concluded from Figure 5a-c for the 65 nm nanopore with 10 mM, 100 mM and 1 M KCl, respectively. The fitting yields  $a_H$  and  $a_e$  for each data group, while  $\beta$  is tuned from 1 to 1.7 in order to give the most optimized match at all current biases but for a given KCl concentration.

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3 Hence, our noise model captures the main features of the SSN noise and can be used for  
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5 analysis of the general noise behavior of SSNs. The extracted values of  $\alpha_H$  and  $a_e$  from 18  
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7 groups of data are shown in Figure 5d-e, respectively. The extracted  $\alpha_H$  data points have an  
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9 average value of  $1.9 \times 10^{-4}$ , which agrees well with the Hooge parameter reported by  
10  
11 others.<sup>19,30,47</sup> The noise parameter for the electrodes,  $a_e$ , increases almost linearly with KCl  
12  
13 concentration and this behavior validates our earlier conclusion that higher KCl  
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15 concentrations give rise to lower solution resistances and thus higher current noise levels from  
16  
17 the electrodes.  
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21 The model is also used to illustrate the contribution of surface current to the total flicker noise  
22  
23 as a function of KCl concentration and nanopore diameter. This contribution in Figure 6 is  
24  
25 measured in percentages of the total flicker noise including both surface and bulk  
26  
27 components. Note that the membrane thickness has no influence on the flicker noise as the  
28  
29 access region<sup>17</sup> close to the nanopore is not considered in the model. As expected, the surface  
30  
31 flicker noise predominates (i.e. >50%) at low KCl concentrations and for small-diameter  
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33 pores, since under such conditions the EDL occupies a considerable fraction of the pore  
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35 opening and the surface plays a predominant role. The dominance of the two flicker noise  
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37 components in the LF noise is clearly shown in Supporting Figure S9. The contribution from  
38  
39 either the solution resistance (thermal) or the Ag/AgCl electrodes is almost negligible.  
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45 The model is further used to predict the noise RMS for pores of very small dimensions  
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47 (diameters 2 and 5 nm and membrane thicknesses 1 and 2 nm) where the surface flicker noise  
48  
49 prevails. The squared noise RMS values (for them to be added) in the LF range (0.1 Hz-1  
50  
51 kHz) are found to vary much more strongly with KCl concentration than with current bias, as  
52  
53 shown in Supporting Figure S10. The nanopores are characterized by higher noise in more  
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55 dilute solution under larger current bias. The results point to severe challenges with rising  
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3 noise level when using small-diameter pores in thin membranes to boost signal and improve  
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5 base resolution in DNA sequencing.<sup>17</sup>  
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### 10 11 **E. Strategies for signal enhancement and noise control** 12

13  
14 It is commonly acknowledged that the pore dimensions should become comparable with the  
15 size of biomolecules to be detected in order to enhance signal in nanopore sensing including  
16 DNA sequencing.<sup>11</sup> However, shrinking the pore diameter directly leads to the predominance  
17 of the surface current contribution and a decrease in number of carriers thereby increase in  
18 fluctuation of ionic current. This signal-noise dilemma may find remedies by examining the  
19 root causes of noise and the relationship between noise and operational conditions. Since the  
20 flicker noise from the nanopore surface is predominant for small-diameter pores, it is possible  
21 to suppress it by increasing the surface charge density through, e.g. tuning the *pH* value of the  
22 salt solution as shown in Figure 4b and Figure S8, coating the pores with functional layers,  
23 etc. Understanding the noise behavior of solid-state nanopores is, therefore, of significant  
24 implications in design and operation of nanopore devices to attain large signal and low noise  
25 in applications including DNA sequencing, protein analysis, and biochemical detection in  
26 general.  
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### 48 **Conclusions** 49

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51 Based on the noise PSD measured on SiN<sub>x</sub> nanopores of a wide range of diameters and with  
52 salt solutions of different KCl concentrations and *pH* values, we have identified several major  
53 sources of LF noise: fluctuation of ionic current in the nanopores (i.e. the flicker noise) and  
54 fluctuation of charge carriers at the electrode-solution interface (i.e. the  $1/f$ -shape noise from  
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3 the Ag/AgCl electrodes). The noise from the electrodes behaves as a voltage source and  
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5 induces current fluctuation on the solution resistance of the nanopore. The flicker noise arises  
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7 from fluctuations in both surface and bulk current. The former is determined by the surface  
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9 charge density that can be tuned by varying  $pH$  value, while the latter is influenced by the salt  
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11 concentration. The improved understanding has led to the establishment of a generalized  
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13 model encompassing most noise mechanisms especially in the LF range. The model results  
14  
15 agree well with the experimental data for a wide range of nanopore diameters with in a large  
16  
17 span of KCl concentrations. The surface component of the flicker noise becomes more  
18  
19 dominant in smaller nanopores with lower salt concentrations. The relative importance of  
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21 surface versus bulk flicker noise is largely proportional to their conductance ratio.  
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23 Knowledge gained in this study can be employed for guiding design and operation of the  
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25 nanopore sensor devices.  
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## 33 **Methods**

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37 **Fabrication of SiN<sub>x</sub> nanopores.** Our nanopore fabrication started from a 300  $\mu\text{m}$  thick  
38  
39 silicon (100) wafer with double-side polished surfaces. A layer of 50 nm thick SiO<sub>2</sub> was first  
40  
41 grown on the substrate wafer by dry oxidation, followed by the deposition of a 20 nm thick  
42  
43 low-stress SiN<sub>x</sub> film in a low-pressure chemical vapor deposition (LPCVD) reactor. To  
44  
45 fabricate the SiN<sub>x</sub> membrane structure, a 425  $\mu\text{m}$   $\times$  425  $\mu\text{m}$  square window was opened on the  
46  
47 rear side of the wafer by a combination of photolithography and reactive ion etching (RIE) to  
48  
49 remove the SiN<sub>x</sub> and SiO<sub>2</sub> in the window, followed by wet etching of the bulk silicon  
50  
51 substrate in KOH (30 wt%, 80 °C, 5 h) and then the front SiO<sub>2</sub> in buffered HF (40 s). Those  
52  
53 process steps left the remaining front 20 nm thick SiN<sub>x</sub> film as a free-standing membrane.  
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55 Since the wet silicon etch by KOH is strongly surface orientation dependent, e.g. etch of the  
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3 (111) surface being much slower than that of the (100) surface, the window became  $20\ \mu\text{m} \times$   
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5  $20\ \mu\text{m}$  right at the  $\text{SiN}_x$  membrane. When the  $\text{SiN}_x$  membrane was ready, the nanopore was  
6  
7 drilled either with gallium ions on a focus ion beam system (FIB, Strata DB235, FEI  
8  
9 Company) with an operation voltage of 30 kV or with helium ions on a Helium Ion  
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11 Microscope (Zeiss Orion). Different diameters were obtained by changing the exposure time  
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13 and/or beam current.  
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17 **Electrical measurement setup.** The nanopore chip was sandwiched by two homemade lids  
18  
19 each containing its own inlet and outlet for salt solution injection (shown in Figure S1a). An  
20  
21 Ag/AgCl electrode (2 mm in diameter, Warner Instruments, LLC.) was mounted in the middle  
22  
23 of each lid with a silicon rubber O-ring (8 mm in diameter and 1 mm in thickness) set  
24  
25 between the chip and the lid in order to prevent solution leakage. The sealed containers on  
26  
27 both sides of the nanopore chip have a volume around  $50\ \mu\text{L}$ . The ionic current in the  
28  
29 nanopore was picked up and amplified using Axon Axopatch 200B (Molecular Device LLC.)  
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31 with an input capacitance around 70 pF, digitalized by Axon Digidata 1550A (Molecular  
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33 Device LLC.), and recorded by the software Axon pCLAMP 10 (Molecular Device LLC.).  
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35 The RMS value of noise was simultaneously monitored using digital multimeter (34411A,  
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37 Keysight Technology).  
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#### 42 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

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45 **Supporting Information.** The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS  
46  
47 Publications website at ....  
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50  
51 The following files are available free of charge.

52  
53 Analysis of the noise from the Ag/AgCl electrodes; the noise PSD of a 7.2 nm nanopore; the  
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55 dependence of surface charge density on KCl concentration; the *pH* dependent noise in  
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3 nanopores of different sizes; the noise level predicted by our model; the parameters used in  
4  
5 the model for fitting. (PDF)  
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7

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### 17 **Author Contributions**

18  
19 ‡These authors contributed equally.  
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### 22 **Notes**

23  
24 The authors declare no competing financial interest  
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## Appendix – The generalized noise model

The low-frequency noise from a solid-state nanopore is composed of four components: the flicker noise from the pore  $S_{IF}$ , the  $1/f$ -shape noise from the Ag/AgCl electrodes  $S_{IE}$ , the white thermal noise  $S_{IT}$ , and the dielectric noise  $S_{ID}$ :

$$S_I(f) = S_{IF} + S_{IE} + S_{IT} + S_{ID} \quad (\text{A1})$$

Since the flicker noise in the pore is contributed by both surface and bulk currents, the following is valid:

$$S_{IF} = S_{IS} + S_{IB} \quad (\text{A2})$$

According to Hooge's theory on flicker noise:

$$S_{IS} = \frac{\alpha_H I_S^2}{N_{C,S} f^\beta}, \quad S_{IB} = \frac{\alpha_H I_B^2}{N_{C,B} f^\beta} \quad (\text{A3a,b})$$

where,  $f$  is frequency;  $\beta$  is a constant ranging from 0 to 2;  $\alpha_H$  is a constant named Hooge parameter;  $N_{C,S}$  and  $N_{C,B}$  are the total number of carriers in the surface and bulk region, respectively;  $I_S$  and  $I_B$  are the current in the surface and bulk region, respectively. For a given nanopore in a solution of a specified KCl concentration, the solution resistance,  $R$ , is the sum of pore resistance and access resistance.<sup>36</sup>

$$R = \frac{H}{\pi D} [ecN_A(\mu_+ + \mu_-) \frac{D}{4} + \sigma\mu_+]^{-1} + [ecN_A(\mu_+ + \mu_-)D]^{-1} \quad (\text{A4})$$

where,  $H$  is the membrane (nanopore) thickness,  $D$  is the nanopore diameter,  $e$  is element charge,  $c$  is salt concentration,  $N_A$  is the Avogadro constant,  $\mu_+$  and  $\mu_-$  are the mobility of cation and anion, respectively, and  $\sigma$  is the surface charge density. At voltage bias  $U$ , the current in the surface and bulk regions can be expressed as:

$$I_S = U\sigma\mu_K \frac{\pi D}{H} \quad (\text{A5a})$$

$$I_B = Uec(\mu_K + \mu_{Cl}) \frac{\pi D^2}{4H} \quad (\text{A5b})$$

The total carrier numbers in the surface and bulk regions are:

$$N_{C,S} = \sigma\pi DH \quad (\text{A6a})$$

$$N_{C,B} = \frac{\pi}{2} D^2 H c N_A \quad (\text{A6b})$$

For the  $1/f$ -shape noise from the electrodes, it can be expressed as:

$$S_{IE} = \frac{a_e}{f^\beta} \quad (\text{A7})$$

where,  $a_e$  is a coefficient representing the noise intensity from the electrodes. Finally, the white thermal noise and dielectric noise are, respectively:

$$S_{IT} = \frac{4kT}{R} \quad (\text{A8})$$

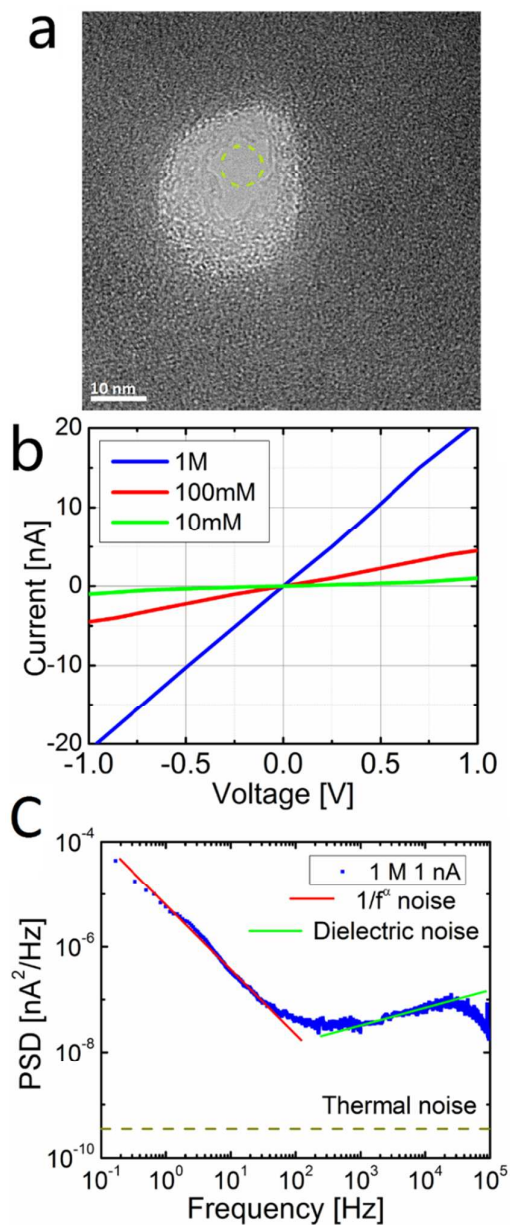
$$S_{ID} = 8\pi kT d C_{chip} f \quad (\text{A9})$$

where,  $k$  is Boltzmann constant;  $T$  is temperature in K;  $R$  is the solution resistance;  $d$  is the dielectric loss factor of the membrane capacitance; and  $C_{chip}$  is the membrane capacitance.

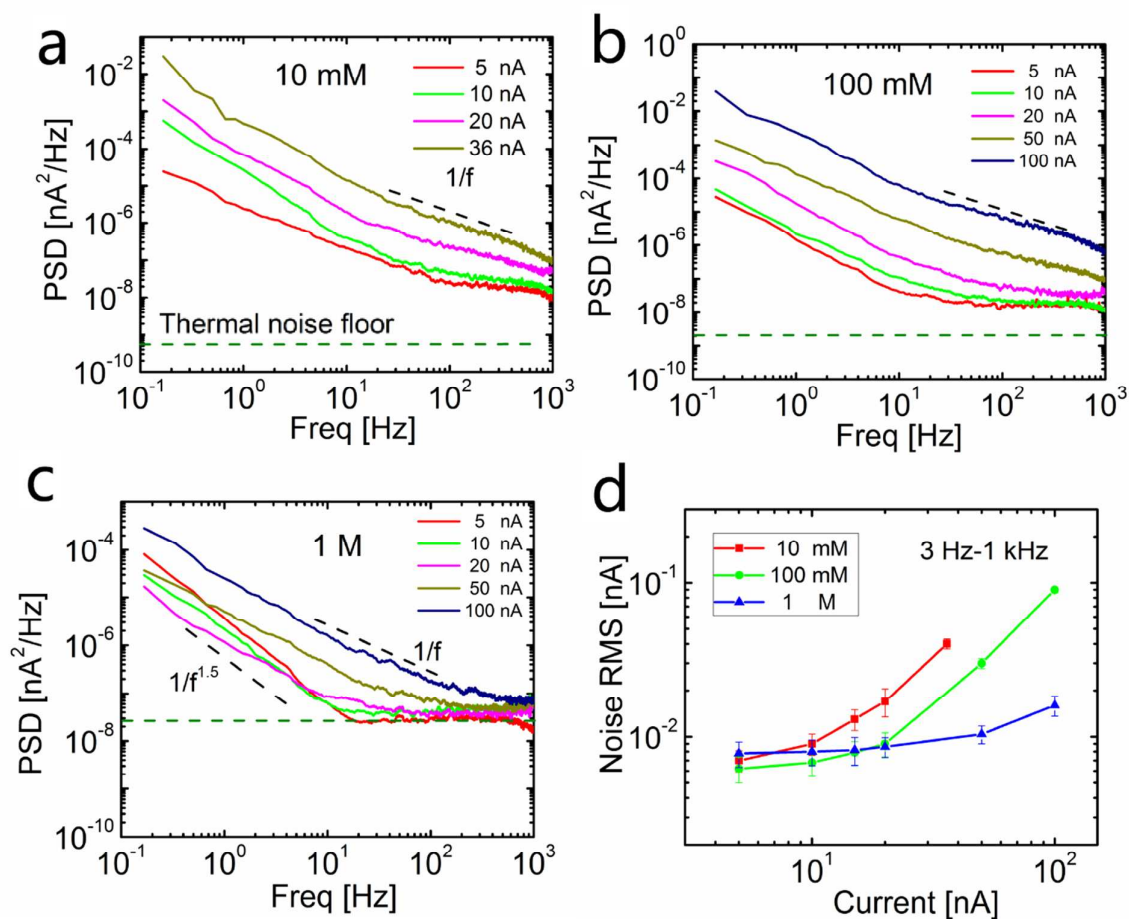
Thus, the total current noise of the solid-state nanopore becomes:

$$S_I(f) = \frac{\alpha_H I_S^2}{N_{C,S} f^\beta} + \frac{\alpha_H I_B^2}{N_{C,B} f^\beta} + \frac{a_e}{f^\beta} + \frac{4kT}{R} + 8\pi kT d C_{chip} f \quad (\text{A10})$$

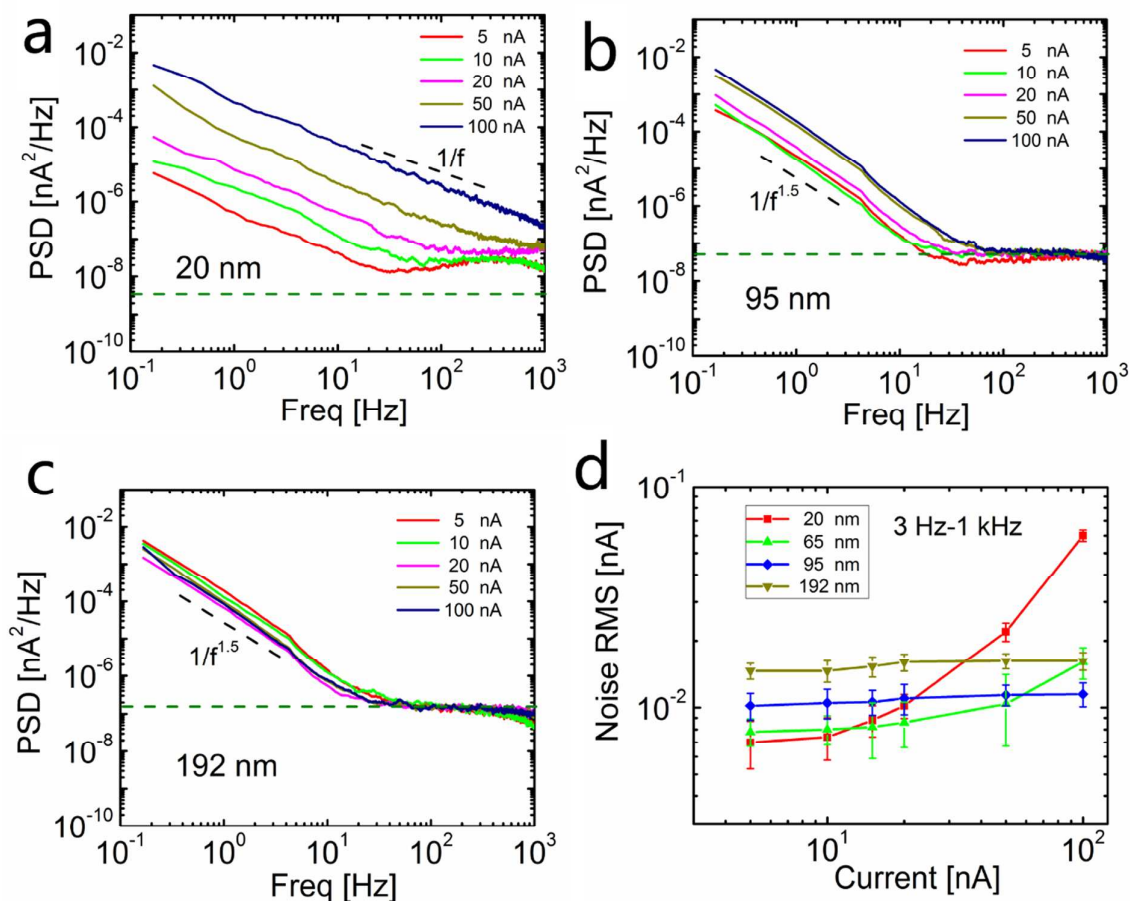




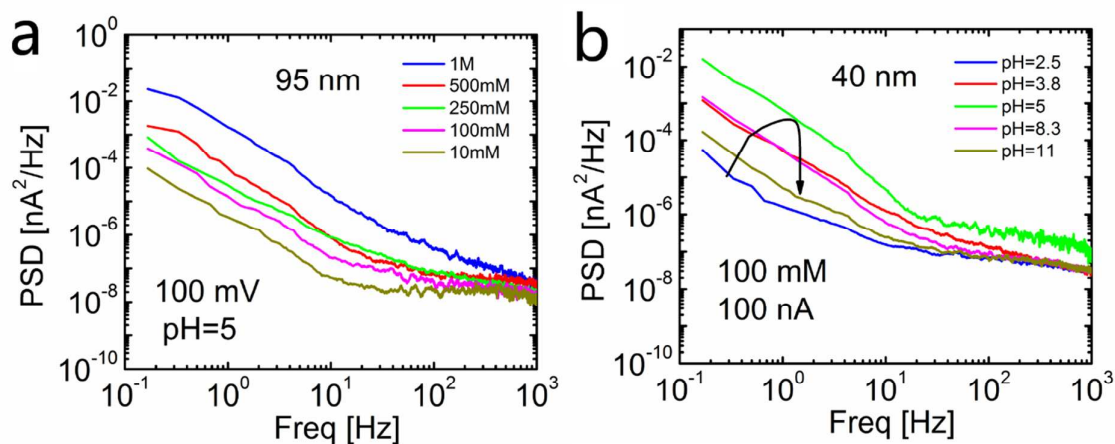
**Figure 1.** General SiN<sub>x</sub> nanopore characteristics of a 7.2 nm pore. (a) TEM image of the nanopore with the green dash line to indicate how a 7.2 nm pore would fit in. Scale bar: 10 nm. (b) Voltage-current characteristics at three different KCl concentrations. (c) Typical noise PSD in 1 M KCl solution under 1 nA current bias.



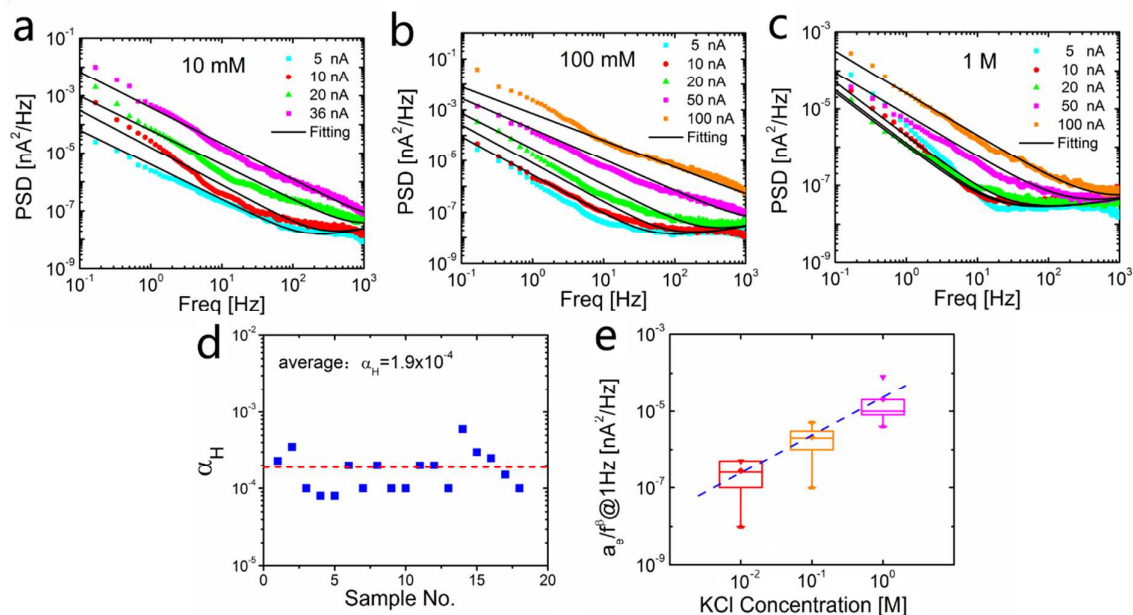
**Figure 2.** Noise PSD of a 65 nm SiN<sub>x</sub> nanopore in salt solutions of different KCl concentrations. (a-c) Noise PSD under different current biases at 5 to 100 nA in 10 mM, 100 mM, and 1 M KCl solution, respectively. (d) Variation of noise RMS with current bias for the three different KCl concentrations.



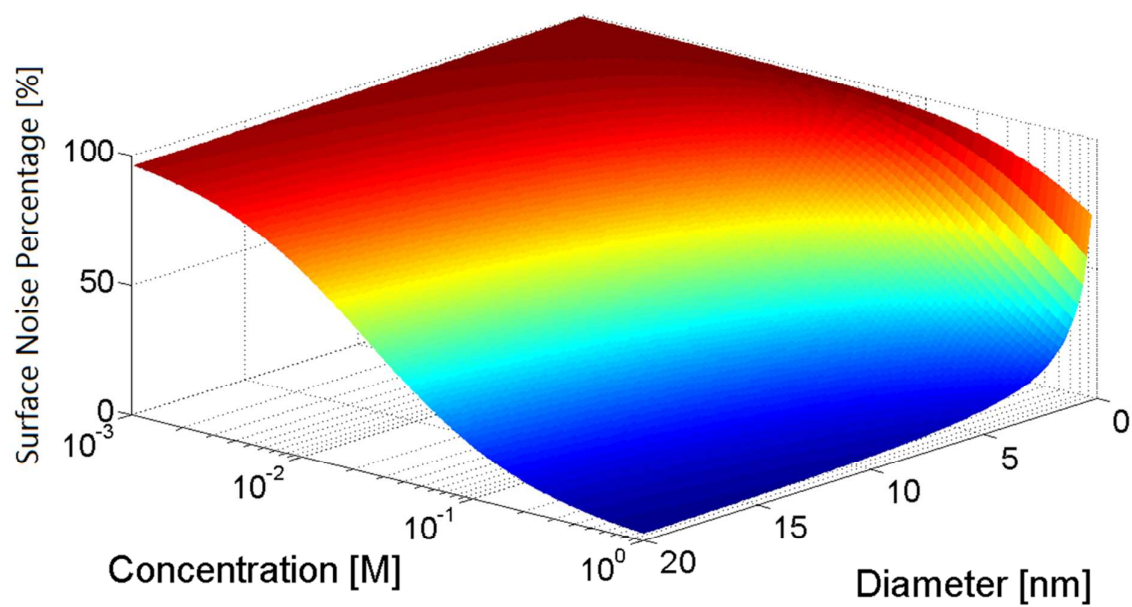
**Figure 3.** Noise PSD of SiN<sub>x</sub> nanopores of different sizes in 1 M KCl solution. (a-c) Noise PSD of the nanopores of 20, 95, and 192 nm in diameter, respectively. (d) Variation of noise RMS with current bias for the four nanopores, with the data for the 65 nm nanopore from Figure 2c.



**Figure 4.** Dependence of noise PSD on salt concentration and  $pH$  value. (a) Noise PSD of the 95 nm nanopore in salt solutions of different KCl concentrations under a constant voltage bias of 100 mV and with  $pH=5$ . (b) Noise PSD of a 40 nm nanopore in salt solutions of 100 mM KCl but different  $pH$  values, under a constant current bias of 100 nA, with the curled arrow helping show how the noise level first increases and then decreases with increasing  $pH$  value.



**Figure 5.** Model application. (a-c) Model fitting to the noise PSD of the 65 nm nanopore under different current biases in salt solutions of 10 mM, 100 mM, and 1 M KCl concentrations, respectively. (d) Hooge parameter extracted from 18 groups of noise PSD data, with the horizontal red dash line representing the average. (e) Variation of extracted current noise parameter from the electrodes,  $a_e$ , with KCl concentration.



**Figure 6.** Contribution of the surface noise to the total flicker noise measured in percentages versus nanopore diameter and KCl concentration.

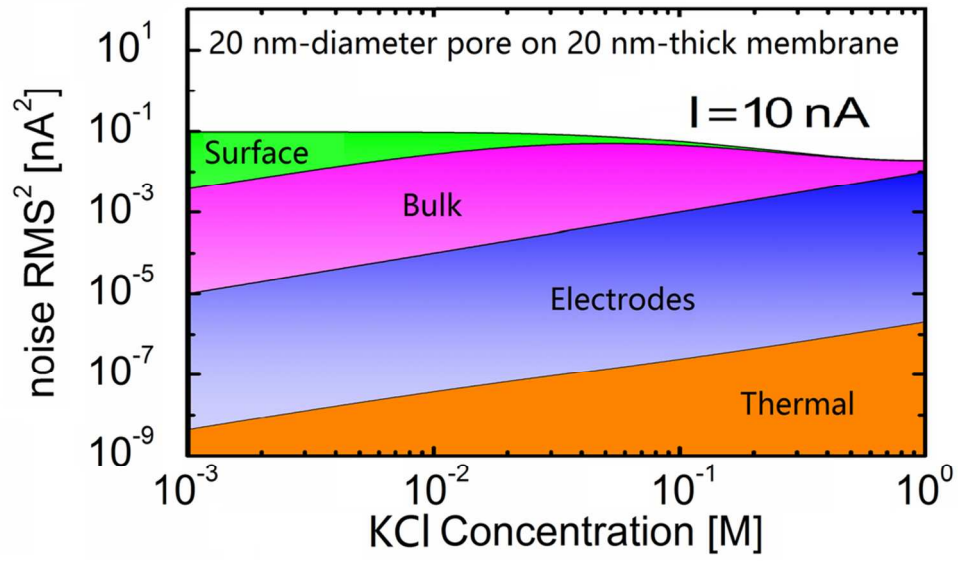


Table of contents graphic

47x26mm (600 x 600 DPI)