

# An Introduction to Current Feedback Amplifiers for Audio

A concise introduction to voltage feedback (VFA) and current feedback (CFA) audio power amplifiers, in which the two topologies are compared, and their strengths and weaknesses evaluated.

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**Introduction.** CFA topology amplifiers have been around in the IC industry for 30 years. Following a patent claim by David Nelson, the earliest commercial offering was a module from Comlinear in 1982 and a few years later, IC's from both Comlinear and Elantec. Prior to this, they were also described and analyzed in a number of papers. With regard to discrete based audio amplifiers, the topology has been used by a few esoteric brands in audio, with [Accuphase](#), a Japanese company based in Yokohama, being a notable exponent. Cyrus, a small UK company, has also marketed CFA based power amplifiers. There are examples of Pioneer amplifiers from the early 1970's that used CFA, which apparently even pre-date the IC offerings and Mark Alexander [published a design](#) as an ADI application note in the 1980's, while Marantz have also marketed CFA power amplifiers. CFA topology audio amplifiers continue to be somewhat upstaged by their more widely understood and deployed VFA counterparts – a situation not helped by the fact that neither Cordell nor Self touched the subject in their otherwise wide ranging audio design books. A CFA's operation is not as intuitive as a VFA and there are some subtleties in regard to whether a transimpedance (TIS) or transadmittance (TAS) second stage is used and certainly the guidelines used by power amplifier designers to set the ULGF on VFA's do not apply to CFA's. The upshot of these and other factors meant designers preferred to go with something that is generally more widely documented and traditional – i.e. VFA. There is a lot of misinformation out in the audio industry and DIY community about CFA's, with some notable commentators dismissing them altogether, which is a pity since they do bring very specific properties to the table that are of benefit in audio power amplifiers.

There are many explanations about IC CFA topologies like [this](#) or [this](#). Some plunge into math, loop gain equations and so forth, leaving the reader none the wiser, while this [one](#) (equations 1~4 and associated gain plots) from Hans Palouda is altogether easier to understand, as is ADI's [here](#). For VFA's, [Bruno Putzeys' explanation](#) is by far the most succinct, even though the main thrust of his article is to dispel some enduring myths about negative feedback. In this short document I will try to explain the differences between the two topologies in an intuitive way and dispel some of the myths around amplifier topologies – whether they are CFA or VFA.

So, let us start by asking: how do you tell if an amplifier is VFA or CFA?

### ***Important Note to the Reader***

In order to clearly delineate between CFA and VFA topology amplifiers so that their operation can be effectively dissected, I use the term *classic* VFA and *classic* CFA to describe the basic versions of the topologies which exhibit the behaviours most often ascribed to each – for example, CFA's are generally 'faster' but VFA's have higher loop gains. As will be explained in the text, as open loop gain is raised, the general differences between CFA's and VFA's blur, and there comes a point where the measured electrical performance is essentially indistinguishable between the two.

Test/Pointer	VFA	CFA
Test 1	Peak input current to TIS = LTP tail current	Peak input current to TIS/TAS = $V_{O_{peak}}/R_{feedback}$
Test 2	Closed loop -3 dB bandwidth constrained by constant gain bandwidth product	Closed loop -3 dB bandwidth independent of closed loop gain* (See footnote 2 below)
Pointer 1	Both + and – inputs are high impedance nodes	+input is high impedance, -input is low impedance
Pointer 2	Two gain stages (LTP+TIS) = higher OLG	One gain stage – 2 <sup>nd</sup> stage TIS/TAS = lower OLG

Table 1 – How to identify CFA from VFA – two tests and two pointers method

**The two tests and two pointers method** will allow you in *most cases* to accurately identify whether an amplifier circuit is CFA or not. Other than the mathematical derivations of the loop gains (see references) which are very different, the defining behavioral characteristic of classic CFA amplifiers are their gain-bandwidth product independence<sup>1</sup> and the fact that peak TIS input current (a key factor in Slew Rate performance) is not limited by the input stage tail current, as is the case in a VFA. The detailed descriptions of the tests and pointers will be evident in the discussion of the two topologies that follow in this document. What is important here is that the above approach covers most variants of the two topologies – so single ended types, balanced, unbalanced circuits, JFET or bipolar inputs. If a circuit behaves like a CFA (or a VFA) then the assumption here is that it is a CFA (or VFA as the case may be). The pointers act as secondary guides, if identification is still difficult – in most cases however, tests 1 and 2 are sufficient to accurately categorize an amplifier topology.

Some amplifier designs are more difficult to identify – for example VFA’s using folded cascode techniques are single gain stage VFA’s; similarly, there are CFA’s with two gain stages, and Jean Hiraga’s famous 20W class A design from the early 1980’s had an output stage with gain – so it was a two gain stages CFA . However, in both of these cases, they would pass Test 1 and Test 2 correctly for their specific topologies, allowing accurate identification. H bridge input amplifiers appear topologically similar to a classic CFA with the inverting feedback network input buffered by a second diamond stage, mirroring the non-inverting input diamond buffer, but they are voltage feedback amplifiers.

**VFA Overview.** On the right hand side diagram of Fig. 1 you see a conceptual drawing of a classic VFA – differential input loaded with a current mirror, driving an integrator (a TIS with  $C_{dom}$  wrapped around it) followed by a unity gain buffer. A VFA thus described has two active gain stages - the LTP and the TIS; the input stage LTP is usually designed to provide gains of 20 to 40 dB depending on the design specifics, with most of the open loop gain coming from the TIS, with a gain of 60~85 dB. A VFA has two predominant poles in its transfer function – the TIS

<sup>1</sup> Note this applies at low gains and at reduced PM’s – the so called ‘gain range sweet spot’ often referred to in IC CFA application notes which is up to about 25 dB. At higher gains and or loop PM’s, CFA’s tend to degenerate into constant gain bandwidth behavior, albeit at higher closed loop bandwidths than VFA’s. We will return to discuss these points later in the document.

and the output stage. In the open loop condition, the TIS pole can lie anywhere between 10 kHz and a few 100 kHz and is caused primarily by the input capacitance load of the output stage on the TIS, and the TIS intrinsic input capacitance. The output stage  $f_T$  is at about 30 MHz if you are using modern bipolar devices, but older devices like the MJ21193/21194 would show an  $f_T$  at  $\sim 4$  MHz. In a discrete design, which is what we are discussing here, the LTP and mirror load pole is considered to be much higher in frequency (perhaps up at 100 MHz). Both the inverting and non-inverting inputs are high impedance nodes in a VFA.

Because of the additional LTP gain stage and mirror load, VFA OLG is greater, but these active stages introduce more phase shift before the OL  $UGF^2$  compared to a CFA. As we shall see later, this has an effect on compensation design between the two topologies.

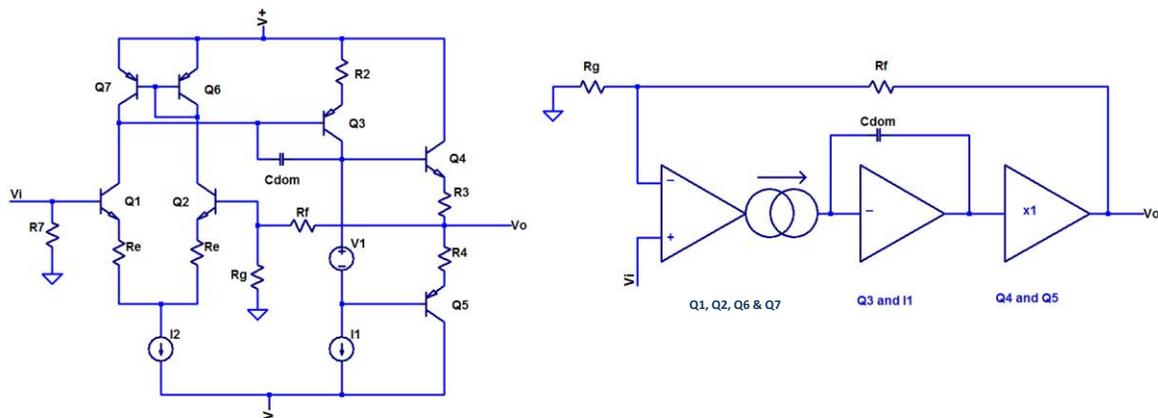


Figure 1 - VFA Generic Circuit and Conceptual Model RHS

<sup>2</sup> Note, this is not saying that phase shift is a property of gain – VFA's and CFA's are minimum phase systems



A selection of the authors amplifier designs from front to rear: 100 W class AB CFA nx-Amplifier, 15 W CFA Class A sx-Amplifier; Rear LHS 280 W class AB VFA Ovation 250 and rear RHS the 180 W class AB VFA e-Amp

In a Lin VFA topology, the input pair tail current is fixed by a current source I1 with the signals on the LTP input essentially steering a portion of this fixed current into or away from the TIS input node at the base of Q3 - hence the current source output depiction in the conceptual VFA in Fig. 1. The maximum output current of the diff amp stage available to drive the TIS (Q3 loaded by I1 in the circuit on the left in Fig. 1) and any compensation networks (MC, TPC, TMC, shunt, etc. but in this classic Lin VFA example,  $C_{dom}$ )<sup>3</sup> is equal to this tail current I1, assuming the LTP is loaded with a mirror.

**CFA Overview.** In a CFA (Fig. 2), the input devices are arranged in a *diamond buffer configuration* (Q1~Q4) with unity gain – the non-inverting input is a high impedance node, and the buffer output is connected to a *low impedance* inverting input node at the junction of Rg and Rf. Note that the front end buffer transistors (Q1 and Q2) are not inside the global feedback loop, as in the case of the VFA. The output current of the diamond stage appears at the collectors of the level shifters Q3 and Q4 and is not limited by a current source as is the case in a VFA, but instead set by the output voltage level and the *value of the feedback resistor* + Ro. Ro is usually small - in IC's perhaps a fraction of an  $\Omega$ , but in practical power amplifiers in order to stabilize the DC operating point and contend with unmatched small signal device Vbe's, usually up to 10's of  $\Omega$ 's.

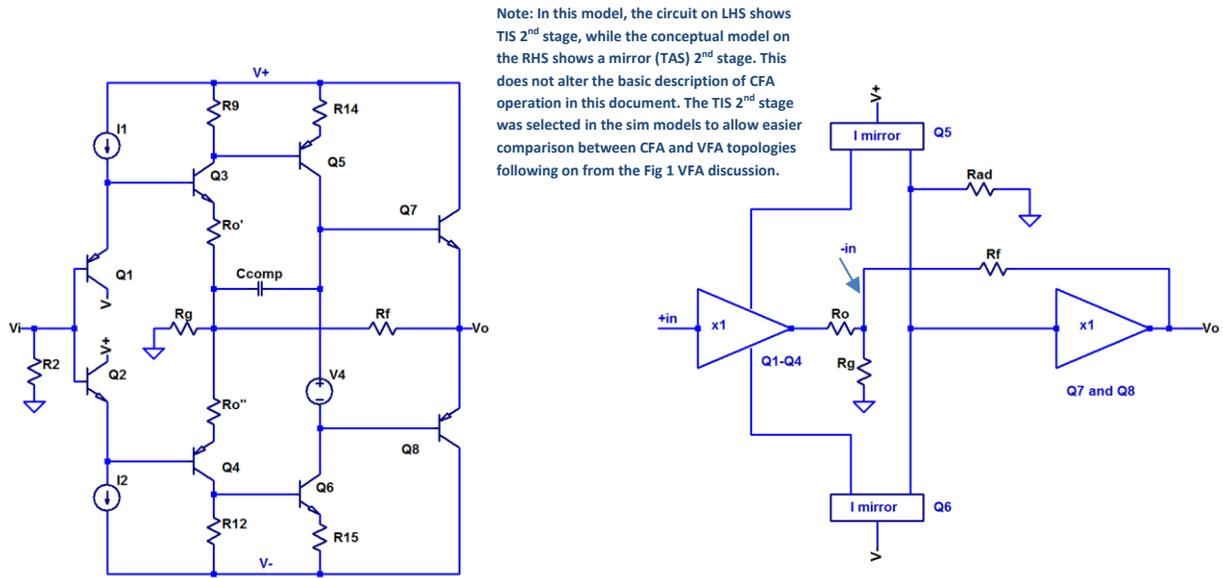


Figure 2 - CFA Generic Circuit and Conceptual Model on RHS

In IC opamps, a current mirror (TAS) is almost always used to convert the front end diamond buffer output current to a voltage that is then buffered by the output stage. This has the advantage, in general, of providing high gains from  $I_{mirror} \times R_{ad}$ , and isolating the front end stage

<sup>3</sup> MC = Miller compensation; TPC = Two Pole compensation; TMC = Transitional Miller Compensation; OIC = Output Inclusive Compensation

from the output stage much more so than a TIS. Further, since the intrinsic mirror bandwidth is very wide compared to a typical TIS configuration – MHz in the case of an IC opamp because there is little or no Miller effect – the stage pole is therefore also high. In the small signal regime of an IC opamp, this works well because the output load is a few mA and well defined with minimal load reflection back into the 2<sup>nd</sup> stage. However, the situation in an audio power amplifier is very different: the output stage input impedance varies significantly over the voltage swing and the output load impedance (most often reactive with big swings in load impedance over frequency) is reflected back onto its input to a much greater degree, thus, the load on the output of the TAS mirror is highly non-linear and the overall impact in terms of distortion reduction and bandwidth is less than one would expect. Therefore, in current feedback discrete power amplifiers, a conventional TIS makes much more sense, and as a result, instead of the uncompensated 2<sup>nd</sup> stage pole lying in the 100's of kHz as in the case of a TAS mirror, it typically lies below 10 kHz – i.e. more than an order of magnitude lower. Unlike VFA's, the phase shift accumulation in a CFA proceeds more slowly due to fewer active gain stages, affording greater PM and GM at HF.

**TIS vs TAS.** It is interesting here to contrast the behavior of an MC VFA, where the TIS output impedance (and stage gain) actually *decreases* with frequency due to the increasing local feedback provided by the reduction in  $C_{dom} X_c$  - thus the OPS is driven from a low source impedance at HF, mitigating somewhat the issues alluded to earlier. In a TAS CFA, you ideally want the mirror output to be flat in order to preserve bandwidth – difficult in practice on a power amplifier unless you are prepared to carry the burden of extra circuit complexity – but you are still left with the output stage phase shift to deal with (see later). One solution to this problem is to configure the main gain stage in a CFA as a TIS, but to preserve the SR performance, apply [Alexander compensation](#)<sup>4</sup> where the local feedback loop is taken from the TIS output back to the inverting input – somewhat analogous to MIC in a VFA. You should conclude from this that no matter what the topology – or the output device technology – the output stage is ultimately the bandwidth limiting factor in any audio power amplifier.

**Setting Closed Loop Gain Magnitude.** For both the VFA and CFA, the non-inverting closed loop gain is defined as  $A_{vcl} = 1 + (R_f/R_g)$ , and for inverting simply as  $R_f/R_g$ , where  $R_f$  is the resistor connected between the output and the inverting input, and  $R_g$  is the resistor between the inverting input and ground as shown in Figs. 1 and 2. Although the closed loop gain for both configurations is expressed the same way, the underlying derivations (see Hans Palouda's article for example) are *not* the same, and this somewhat explains the differences in the loop gain behavior.

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<sup>4</sup> See the appendix of the application note for the full derivation of this compensation technique

**Loop Gain and Compensation Compared.** As we have seen, VFA's (see figures 7 & 8) have higher open loop gains, and hence loop gains at LF because of the additional gain provided by the LTP stage, but phase shift accumulation also proceeds more rapidly as a result. To deal with this and ensure closed loop stability, *dominant pole compensation* (MC) is employed. In MC, the ULGF intercept is located by design per the formula below somewhere between 1 MHz and 3 MHz where there is an adequate PM of 60 degrees or more in a practical power amplifier with an assumed slope of 20 dB/decade which then intercepts the loop LF gain at a frequency from a few hundred Hz down to a few 10s of Hz – the exact figure dependent upon the LF OLG. 'Dominant' pole compensation pushes the first open loop pole *down* in frequency, and the second open loop pole *up* beyond the ULGF resulting in what is called '[pole splitting](#)' which is demonstrated graphically in curves 3 and 4 in Fig. 3 on the next page. The PM at HF is thus improved and in the ideal case is 90 degrees at the ULGF. The result is a *constant gain bandwidth product* closed loop response which is a feature of dominant pole compensated amplifiers such that if we fix the ULGF and the required closed loop gain, the value of  $C_{dom}$  in Fig. 1 (assuming 20 dB/decade roll off) becomes

$$C_{dom} = \frac{1}{4 \times \pi \times f_{ulgf} \times A_{cl} \times (R_{degen} + re')}$$

Where  $f_{ulgf}$  = the unity loop gain frequency (ULGF)

$A_{cl}$  = is the closed loop gain magnitude below the -3db roll off point – i.e. low frequency gain

$R_{degen}$  is the LTP emitter degeneration resistor - in Fig. 1 these are not shown as  $R_e$

$re'$  is the internal emitter resistance of the LTP transistors from  $[0.026 / (2 * \text{LTP tail current})]$

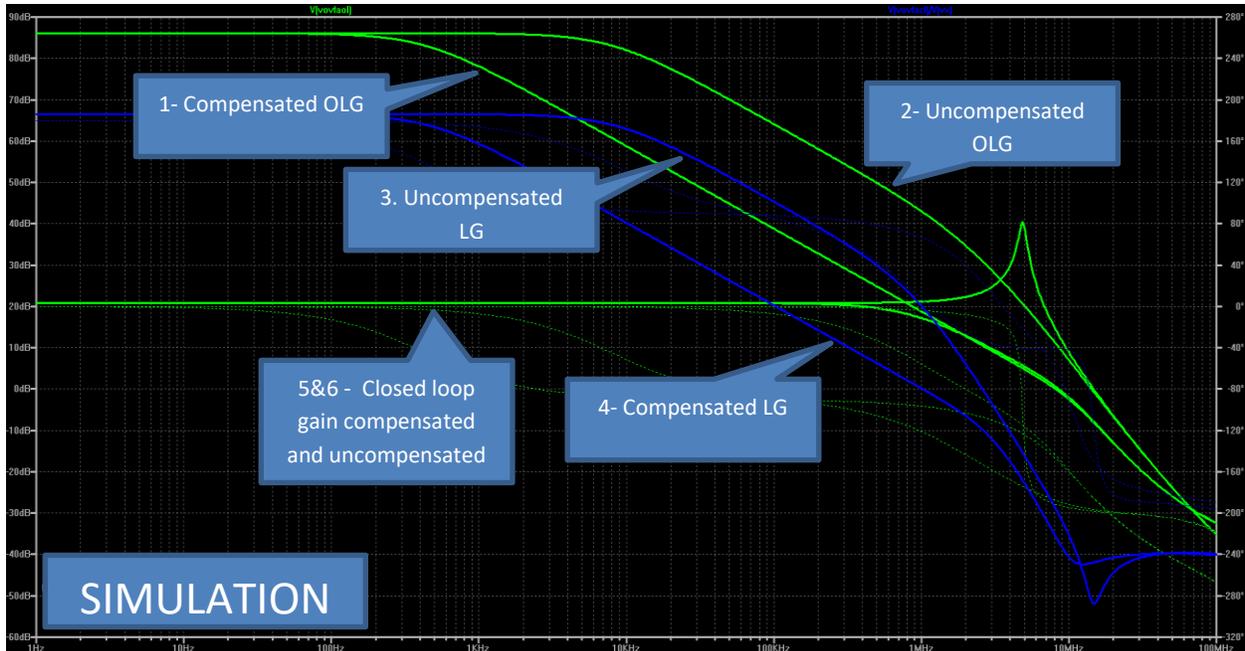
You can see the constant gain bandwidth term above from  $f_{ulgf} \times A_{cl}$ .

For Alexander compensated CFA's, assuming a 20 dB/decade response roll off,  $C_{comp}$  in Fig 2 can be estimated from

$$C_{comp} = 1 / [(2\pi \times (R_f + R_o + re') \times f_{ulgf})]$$

Note in this expression there is no gain term  $A_{cl}$  as in the VFA example. Shunt compensation from the TIS output to ground can also be used but the same ULGF in a CFA requires about five times the  $C_{comp}$  value compared to using Alexander compensation which also preserves the high slew rate performance of this topology at the expense of an HF zero – so some care is required to ensure stability.

**ULGF Intercepts in CFA and VFA compared.** In CFA amplifiers, the fewer active gain stages and lower open loop and loop gain, mean that phase accumulation is less than in VFA's: the designer therefore can have a situation where they do not have to employ dominant pole compensation to push the HF pole further below the unity gain frequency intercept to improve the PM for stability, instead trading the greater gain and PMs for wider loop gains.



**Figure 3 - VFA Pole Splitting**

In Fig. 3 you can see the action of pole splitting in a VFA by comparing LG response curves 3 & 4 – the dominant pole at ~8 kHz is pushed down to ~200 Hz, while the HF pole at ~500 kHz is pushed up to ~2 MHz. The ULGF in this example is 1 MHz. Pole splitting reduces the effect of HF phase shift, ensuring stability.

The closed loop response (curves 5 and 6) show little deviation from each other until ~200 KHz, after which the uncompensated CL response diverges, peaking at 40dB at 5 MHz with rapid phase change. The Compensated LG roles off at 20 dB/decade with a CL UG frequency of about 15 MHz.

Note, if a CFA uses MC, the pole splitting behavior also results – so it’s not unique to VFA’s, but simply a *property of dominant pole compensation*.

It should be noted at this point that audio power amplifier applications are quite unique in that they demand PM’s of at least 60 degrees in order to cater for a wide range of reactive loads. Therefore, no matter what compensation technique is deployed (MIC, TPC, OIC etc), the ULGF PM should always be in the region of 60 degrees or more to ensure the design is capable of dealing with real world loads. I usually incorporate an output coupling inductor of between 0.6uH and 1uH in my designs which is extremely effective in isolating the amplifier output from capacitive loads, ensuring stability.

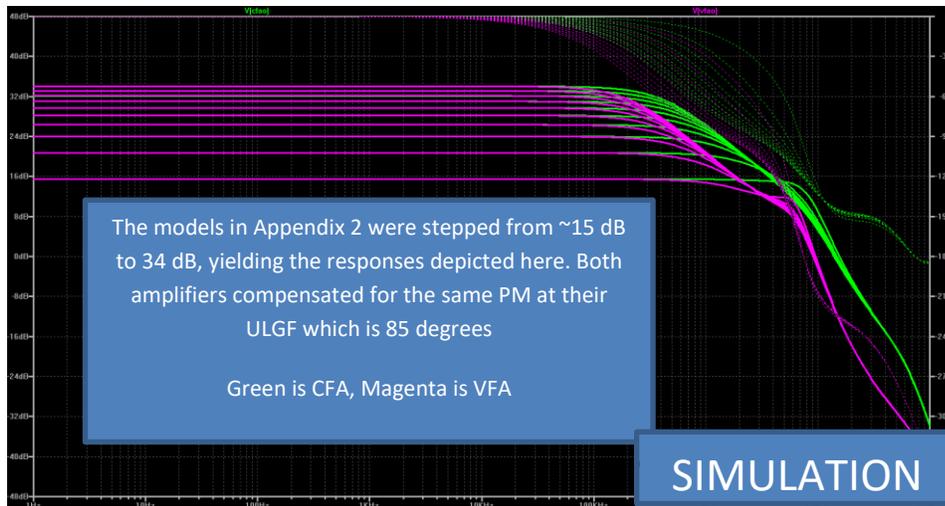


Figure 4 - VFA vs CFA closed loop Responses

The gain ‘sweet spot’ sometimes mentioned in IC applications notes refers to the gain bandwidth independence noted in CFA’s. It’s called a sweet spot because this characteristic only holds for loop PM’s in the 30-50 degree

range and *low CLG’s*.

Once the application requires high PM’s – like the 60-90 degrees required for in an audio power amplifier - this characteristic is less evident as the loop compensation has to be conservative - see Fig. 4. In the IC application realm, it is for reasons of maximizing bandwidth that CFA’s are generally compensated for much lower gain and phase margins thus preserving bandwidth – typical applications being video amplifiers and high speed data converters where the focus in terms of compensation design is on overshoot and settling performance, rather than PM.

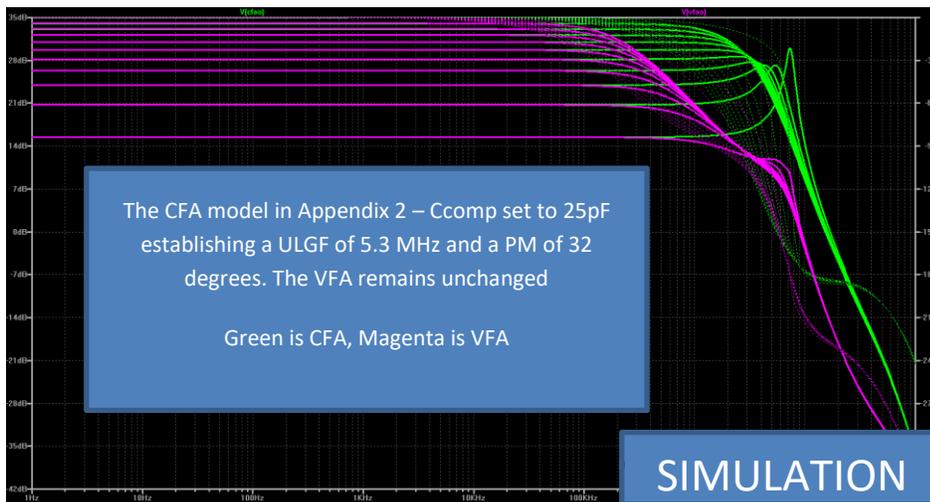


Figure 5 - CFA comp'd for ~30 degree PM showing gain bandwidth independence

In Fig.5 you see this characteristic demonstrated where the PM on the CFA model has been deliberately set to 32 degrees. Here the gain bandwidth independence is clearly visible at gains of up to about 28 dB,

thereafter the bandwidth is linked to the gain.

On designs where the CLG is low but ULGF PM still rather high, the gain bandwidth independence is also better maintained, and you can see an example of this in a practical low CLG amplifier, the [sx-Amplifier](#), on page 8 of that write-up. Lets be clear here: 30 degree PM’s in practical audio power amplifiers will lead to problems – at least 60 degrees is required, with many designers targeting even higher figures in the 80~90 degree region.

In low PM and or low gain CFA systems, CLG can be varied over a wide range, provided  $R_f$  is kept constant to minimize any disturbance of the compensation, and  $R_g$  varied instead with reduced or little impact on the -3 dB bandwidth of the amplifier as shown in Fig. 4. In general, for low closed loop gain designs (typical in audio), the CFA is notable for its wide loop bandwidths – often > 10 kHz, and in the sx-Amp for example, it's ~60 kHz (see Fig. 13, red trace, in the sx-Amplifier write up). Some designers claim that setting the loop gain -3 dB point *above* the audio bandwidth reduces Phase Intermodulation Distortion (PIMD), but this has been contested – see R. Cordell's [TIM I](#) and [TIM II](#) for example.

The conventional way to compensate an IC CFA is to adjust the value of  $R_f$  to achieve the optimum gain and PMs, usually by observing the overshoot and settling time to a fast rise/fall time square wave input stimulus. Part of the reason for this approach, rather than using some type of external compensation capacitor or network, and especially so in very high performance IC CFA's, is to avoid parasitic capacitance or inductance creeping into the TAS/TIS node which is what would happen if a compensation connection were brought out to one of the IC pins – remember, we are talking about devices with gain bandwidth products in the GHz region. In practical power amplifiers, capacitive shunt compensation from the TIS output to ground is often employed, although there are more advanced techniques like Alexander compensation as used in the sx-Amplifier. CFA amplifiers - and especially discrete power amplifiers - almost always exhibit gain peaking when the closed loop response is plotted, and this is linked of course to the output stage pole<sup>5</sup> which causes rapid phase accumulation beyond 1~2 MHz. The cure is to bandwidth limit the input signal with a simple RC filter – you can see how I did this in the sx-Amplifier design (see Fig 14 in that document).

It's also important to note that you can apply dominant pole MC to CFA's as well, but to do so results in an amplifier with a response that morphs into that of a classic MC pole splitting VFA, but with lower HF gain, ergo higher HF distortion. For this reason, and to preserve SR performance, MC on a CFA is not recommended.

**Slew Rate (SR).** The other major difference between the two topologies is the slew rate (SR), set in a VFA by the compensation capacitor value and the LTP tail current from  $SR = i/c$ . As already pointed out, in a CFA the peak current available to the input of the TIS is set by the maximum output voltage and the value of the feedback resistor (assuming  $R_o$  is very low in value compared to  $R_g$ ). In a correctly compensated CFA using a TAS for the 2<sup>nd</sup> stage, this can be a factor of 10 higher than a classic VFA, and explains the big differences in SR between the two topologies, with 200 V/us the norm in a CFA audio power amplifier.

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<sup>5</sup> Unlike discrete power amplifiers, the output stage device  $F_t$ 's in modern IC devices are very high and peaking in IC's (CFA and VFA) is therefore more generally associated with stray capacitance from the -input to ground, and/or stray capacitance across  $R_f$ . Layout is critical to minimize these effects and to preserve the bandwidth performance – follow data sheet recommendations carefully to avoid these problems.

**Output Stage Pole Impact on Loop Gain Bandwidth in Discrete Power Amplifiers.** Importantly, in both topologies, the output stage phase shift ultimately limits the amount of feedback and the loop bandwidth of the amplifier. In a bipolar VFA, one usually sets the ULGF based on the output stage response; a good rule of thumb is to set it at between 5-10% of the  $F_t$  of the output devices *up to a maximum of 3 MHz* depending on the type of output stage<sup>6</sup> – EF2 or EF3. For example, If you use a MJL1302/3281 bipolar output stage with  $F_t$ 's of 30 MHz, set the ULGF for an EF3 at 1~1.5 MHz, while for an EF2, you can go to 3 MHz. Mosfet output devices have  $F_t$ 's at about 300 MHz, but in practice you cannot set the amplifier ULGF at 30 MHz because of circuit parasitics (layout inductances and capacitances) and the high input capacitance of these devices<sup>7</sup>. In this case, one would set the ULGF at 3 MHz, which is a practical upper limit for VFA audio power amplifiers.

As already touched upon earlier in this document, there is greater gain and PM at HF in CFA's, and the loop *can be closed at higher frequencies*. In both the VFA's and the CFA the general approach is usually to select the ULGF (see the formula on page 7) such that the phase margin meets a specific target – typically 60 degrees for an audio power amplifier. Using this approach, the designer is able to exploit the greater gain and PM available in the classic CFA and the net result is wider loop bandwidths and potentially lower HF distortion than would be the case if the same ULGF as a VFA were targeted. My investigations show that the improvements in HF loop gain can be as much as 12 dB, with 6~8 dB more the norm, for the same phase margin.

**Practical Compensation Design and Optimization.** In a practical VFA or CFA power amplifier, extensive testing of the final system enables the designer to determine the stability envelope. With purely resistive loads and the output inductor shorted, there must be no overshoot or ringing with a small signal (2~3 V pk-pk) 1 us rise time square wave stimulus *and no front end filter fitted*. If ringing is noted, the ULGF has to be lowered until the square wave response is clean. The second phase of testing involves the application of a wide range of capacitive and resistive parallel loads with the output coupling inductor in-situ. Ringing caused by the output inductance and the capacitive load will be observed, but the amplifier must not break into oscillation – if it does, the ULGF must be lowered and/or the output inductor value increased. I cover this subject from a practical perspective in the [e-Amp](#), [nx-Amp](#) and already mentioned [sx-Amp](#) write ups. As a side note, it's also important that the designer is able to clearly distinguish between loop gain related stability issues and parasitic instability – the two are quite separate, and the cures different. However, one can trigger the other and this should also always be borne in mind. Some designers eschew the output inductor. If this is the design choice made, testing needs to ensure that the amplifier remains stable with the worst case expected capacitive load. It should be noted that the speaker cable inductance can help isolate the capacitive load, provided the cable capacitance is low. However, layout, decoupling and awareness of the impact of parasitic board and device elements is critical if you are to exploit this additional bandwidth.

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<sup>6</sup> For both the EF2 and the EF3 ULGF figures quoted in this text, an output coupling inductor of 1uH or higher and Zobel network are mandatory.

<sup>7</sup> The 300 MHz  $F_t$  is only available if the devices is driven from a low source impedance such that the input pole thus formed is not the limiting factor in the response – this is difficult to do in a practical amplifier.

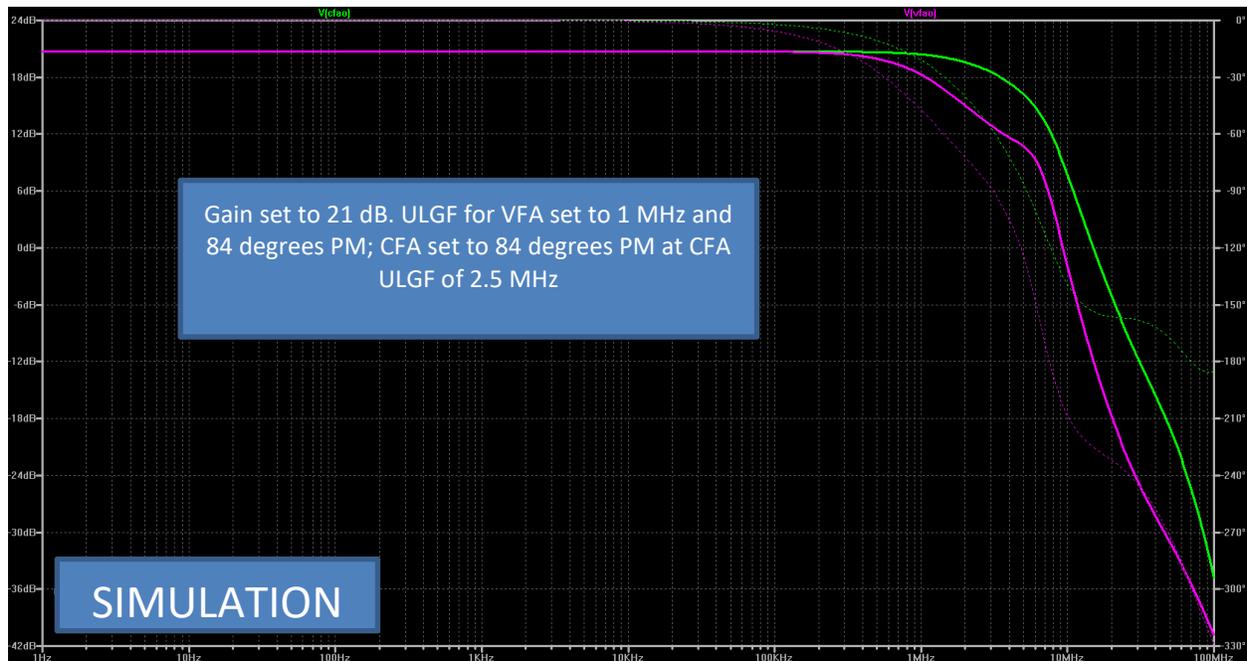


Figure 6 - The closed loop response of the model amplifiers at a gain of 21 dB

Figure 6 shows the closed loop response for the two model amplifiers used in this article. Despite the lower loop gain on the CFA, the UGF is twice that of the VFA and this is directly attributable to the greater PM available, allowing the loop to be closed at a higher frequency than the VFA. In a practical amplifier, a bandwidth limiting filter would be placed in front of both amplifiers to ensure their input stages were not exposed to fast input transients, keeping the input stage in the linear portion of their transfer curve, and providing RFI protection.



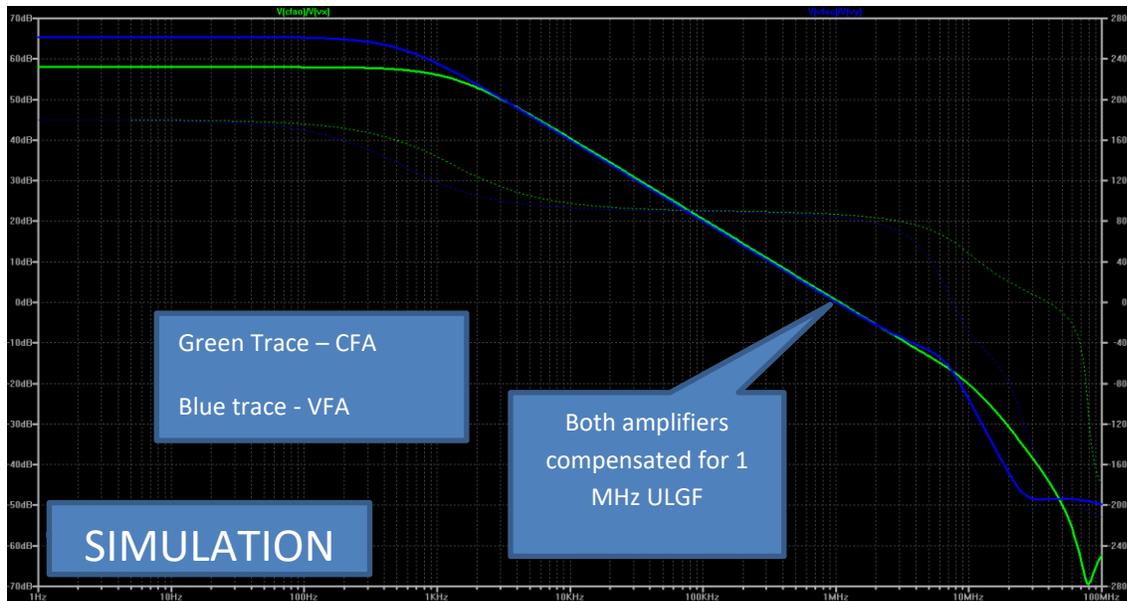


Figure 7 - Setting ULGF

**ULGF's Compared.** In a CFA, if you close the loop at the same ULGF as you would a VFA, the response after the loop -3 dB breakpoints are *very similar*, and this is reflected in Fig 7. However, in CFA's, simply closing the loop at the 'traditional' 1-3 MHz like you would with a VFA is suboptimal and ignores the additional gain and PM available which should instead be traded for higher ULGF. By closing the CFA loop at higher frequencies, (a) more feedback is made available at HF, and this is often the main reason for the lower HF distortion often observed in practical CFA amplifiers when compared to MC VFA designs and (b) the closed loop bandwidths are wider – see Fig. 8. For example, on the original sx-amplifier prototype design, the -3 dB closed loop bandwidth was in excess of 8 MHz.

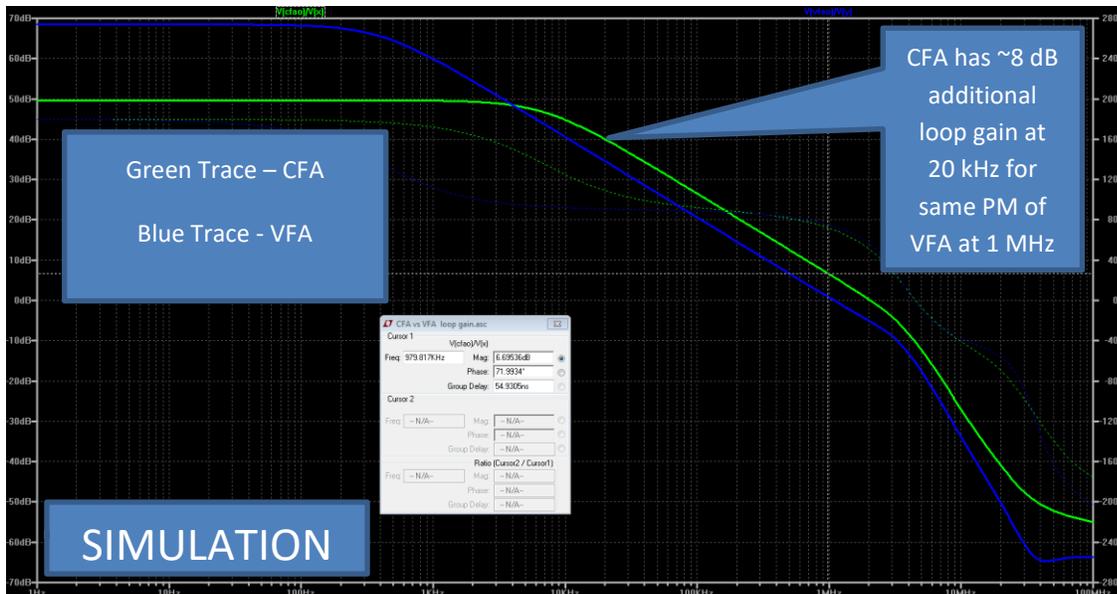
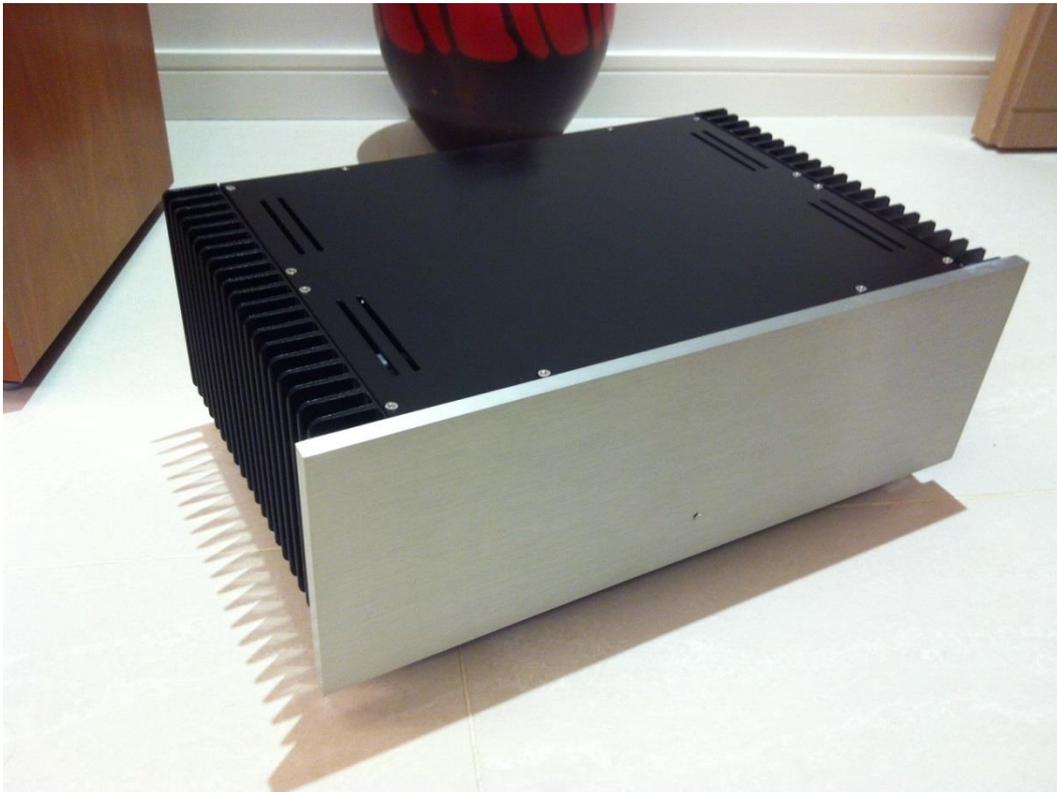


Figure 8 – CFA Compensated for Same PM as VFA ULGF of 1 MHz's (~70 degrees)

**Topology Summary:** Classic VFA's have two gain stages, higher open loop gain and 2 major poles (TIS and OPS) in their open loop response; classic CFA's have one gain stage, lower open loop gains and also feature 2 major poles in their response (TIS/TAS and OPS). Classic VFA's require dominant pole compensation in order deal with greater phase shift in their response due to their additional gain stages (but providing higher OLG), and this compensation links the closed loop -3 dB bandwidth to the closed loop gain i.e. constant gain bandwidth closed loop response. In a correctly compensated classic VFA audio power amplifiers, the loop gain starts dropping off at -20 dB/decade from the dominant pole – usually a few 10's or 100's of Hz, such that the PM is 60 degrees or higher at the ULGF. CFA's on the other hand do not require dominant pole compensation, because the PM is greater and typically yields wider closed and feedback loop bandwidths; furthermore, the SR in CFA's is not limited by the tail current, but by the total feedback resistance ( $R_f + R_o$  in Fig. 2) and any capacitive load connected to the TIS output, allowing very high slew rates to be achieved as a matter of course. Because the loop gain bandwidths in CFA's are wider, this can translate into lower distortion at HF compared to VFA's (see Fig. 8). At LF, VFA's exhibit lower distortion because of the higher loop gain.

You can also draw the conclusion at this point that in practical audio amplifiers, there are *few circuit differences* between CFA and VFA topologies beyond their respective input stages.



**Applicability to audio Power Amplifier Design.** Both topologies can be exploited successfully to create high performance, practical audio amplifiers, provided their associated shortcomings are suitably mitigated. Table 2 below summarizes *indicative* class AB power amplifier performance parameters to give a feel for the differences in the topologies.

Parameter	VFA (classic MC)	CFA (TIS)	Notes
Open Loop -3 dB Bandwidth	100 Hz~1 KHz	1 kHz~10 KHz	
Open Loop Gain at 100 Hz	90~110 dB	60~75 dB	Additional gain provided by LTP in VFA
Loop Gain -3 dB	500~2kHz	1 kHz~100 kHz	CFA sx-Amp is ~60 kHz ; CFA nx-Amp is 8 kHz while VFA e-Amp <sup>8</sup> is about 1 kHz
SR	Easy to achieve 50~80 V/us	Easy to achieve 100~200 V/us	For audio power amplifiers, guide is minimum 1 V/us per peak output voltage
PSRR @ 1 kHz	70~90 dB	50~60 dB	Filter the supply rails; Use AFEC or Cap multiplier to improve CFA PSRR; Use Cap multiplier to improve VFA PSRR
THD @ 1 kHz	15 ppm	25 ppm	Greater VFA loop gain at 1 kHz results in lower distortion
THD @ 20 kHz	30 ppm	25 ppm	Loop gains at HF are often higher in CFA's
Closed loop – 3 dB response	150~200 kHz. Input filter may be required to ensure LTP remains in linear portion of transfer function on fast input transients	500~700 kHz often with response peaking, requiring input BW limiting filter	Both topologies may require input filters, but for different reasons as noted; RF ingress is also an issue in both cases but not considered here

Table 2 – CFA/VFA Indicative Performance Characteristics

**Improving the Classic Topologies.** In classic VFA designs, the ULGF limit usually sets the maximum feedback (loop gain) at 20 kHz to around 35 dB, assuming the 20 dB/decade loop gain roll-off required for stability. If higher loop gains and/or lower distortion at HF are desired, the designer has to employ more *advanced compensation techniques* like TMC, TPC, OIC, TOIC and so forth (See Bob Cordell's 'Designing Audio Power Amplifiers' [first edition] Chapter 9 for a practical introduction to these techniques) . These approaches can allow an additional 25~30 dB more feedback to be applied at 20 kHz without causing stability problems - approaches that are now considered mainstream in VFA topology amplifier design. With practical CFA power amplifiers, the second stage is usually in the form of a TIS rather than a mirror (TAS). For reasons already discussed, as the closed loop gain is increased, practical CFA power amplifier loop gain and response behavior morphs into that of a VFA. For this reason (and it applies to IC CFA designs as well), classic CFA's are *not* suited to very high gain applications - the lower open loop gains make that obvious in any event. However, they are imminently suitable for power amplifiers where the gains are 20~35 dB, and the wider loop gain bandwidths can be an advantage for HF distortion reduction. TPC and TMC can also be applied successfully to high open loop gain TIS CFA's and in simulation, TPC for example allows the feedback to be safely

<sup>8</sup> When configured for standard MC without TIS loading

raised by a further ~30 dB, such that the total loop gain at 20 kHz is in excess of 55 dB, yielding low single digit 20 kHz ppm performance at full power.

However, based on the comments passed earlier about the higher possible ULGF in CFA's, if the overall OLG of a CFA is raised (and therefore loop gain as well), *the PM will degrade*, requiring that the ULGF be lowered if instability is to be avoided. It therefore appears that for CFA power amplifier designs, there is a tradeoff to be made if you are to avoid having a design that morphs into VFA – when it comes to OLG this is a case of less is more. Similarly, low open loop gain CFA's allow the designer to close the loop at very high frequencies if they so choose. In the sx-Amplifier for example, Cdom was deliberately set to 220pF for a ULGF of 3 MHz – however, the amplifier is perfectly stable with Cdom = 100pF, indicating a ULGF of > 4.5 MHz (figures from simulations).

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## References

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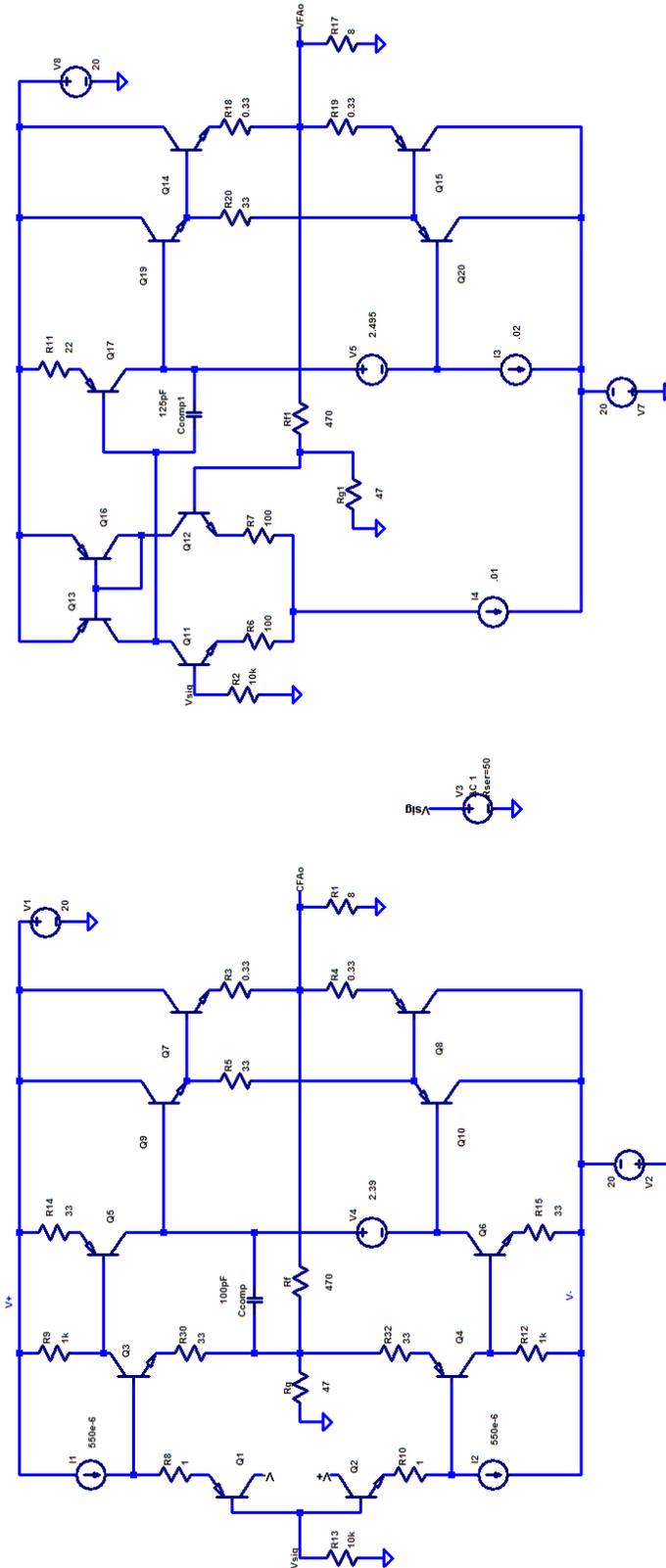
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Prof. Marshal Leach [‘Feedback Amplifiers – collection of solved problems’](#)

## Appendix 1 – Model Amplifiers Used in this Document



## Appendix 2: Table of CFA and VFA Gain Equations

Courtesy Texas Instruments Application note SLOA021 1999

CIRCUIT CONFIGURATION	CURRENT FEEDBACK AMPLIFIER	VOLTAGE FEEDBACK AMPLIFIER
<b>NONINVERTING</b>		
Direct gain	$\frac{Z(1 + Z_F/Z_G)}{Z_F(1 + Z_B/Z_F \parallel Z_G)}$	a
Loop gain	$Z/Z_F(1 + Z_B/Z_F \parallel Z_G)$	$aZ_F/(Z_G + Z_F)$
Closed loop gain	$1 + Z_F/Z_G$	$1 + Z_F/Z_G$
<b>INVERTING</b>		
Direct gain	$\frac{Z}{Z_G(1 + Z_B/Z_F \parallel Z_G)}$	$aZ_F/(Z_F + Z_G)$
Loop gain	$Z/Z_F(1 + Z_B/Z_F \parallel Z_G)$	$aZ_G/(Z_G + Z_F)$
Closed loop gain	$Z_F/Z_G$	$Z_F/Z_G$

## Appendix 4 – Canonical Feedback Topology vs Amplifier Topology Summary

(courtesy Prof. Marshal Leach, Georgia Tech, 2009)

Table 1. The Four Types of Feedback

Name	Input Variable $x$	Output Variable $y$	Error Variable $z$	Forward Gain $A$	Feedback Factor $b$
Series-Shunt	Voltage $v$	Voltage $v$	Voltage $v$	Voltage Gain	Dimensionless
Shunt-Shunt	Current $i$	Voltage $v$	Current $i$	Transresistance	siemens ( $\mathcal{U}$ )
Series-Series	Voltage $v$	Current $i$	Voltage $v$	Transconductance	ohms ( $\Omega$ )
Shunt-Series	Current $i$	Current $i$	Current $i$	Current Gain	Dimensionless

## Appendix 5 (Overleaf) – Feedback Topology Summary

# Feedback topology or mode

	Series Shunt	Series Series	Shunt Shunt	Shunt Series
VFA Output Variable Feedback Output Variable Voltage	<p>O/P controlled Variable: voltage non-inverting</p>	<p>O/P controlled Variable: current non-inverting</p>	<p>O/P controlled Variable: voltage inverting</p>	<p>O/P controlled Variable: current inverting</p>
CFA Output Variable Feedback Output Variable Current				

This table shows how the canonical feedback mode relates to amplifier topology. The feedback topology or mode axis is concerned with two things: what the (1) amplifier output controlled variable is, and (2) how the feedback network is sampling the controlled variable.

Series-Shunt – Input signal in series with feedback; feedback from output is in parallel (i.e shunts) the signal and load

Series-Series-Shunt – input signal is in series with feedback; feedback from output is in series with load

Shunt-Shunt – feedback input shunts the input source; feedback from the output is in parallel with the load

Shunt-Series – Input signal is shunted by the feedback signal; feedback from output is in series with the load

Note the inverting input electrical quantity for each of the amplifiers, labelled V or I. Note that both CFA and VFA can be configured for any of the four feedback modes, as shown above. You therefore cannot use canonical feedback analysis to support the notion that CFA=VFA. Further, see the derivation of the VFA and CFA gain equations which explain the fundamental differences in the operation of CFA and VFA amplifiers