

JFETS: THE NEW FRONTIER, PART 1

Welcome to a new era in audio amplification where JFETs rule. This noted designer champions their use to produce the best sound in your audio amp circuits.

As most of our customers know, I have been advocating the advantages of FETs in general and JFETs in particular, especially for low and medium level circuits. JFETs provide extremely high resolution, bringing out more details, sounding cleaner, clearer, and more natural than the best bipolar transistors such as the LM394, and even the best Telefunken tubes. Overall, I believe the JFETs offer the best sound in audio circuits.

I have been working with JFETs since the middle of the '70s, when I developed low-level amplifier modules with JFETs at Motorola. However, they were not competitive with the best bipolars at that time. In the early '80s came the first really low-noise, high- g_m devices on the market. I have used these devices in the input stages of practically all my designs since then. However, I use bipolar transistors in the second stages, mostly because they offer a fairly simple design. The output stages have always been MOSFETs, because of the relatively high current required in these stages.

In the ever-continuing quest for better sound, I have reviewed my designs regularly, improving the topology of the amplifiers and also using better components, thus bringing significant improvements. However, I first achieved a real

breakthrough when I started to use mostly JFETs in the amps. It is my considered opinion that it would be best to use only JFETs in all stages of the audio chain. However, due to their limited power-handling capability, it is practically impossible to use them in output stages. Here, MOSFETs will rule for the foreseeable future.

In spite of their quadratic characteristics and relatively high input capacitance, JFETs are fairly simple to use in audio amplifiers, and you, as an amateur, can design most low-level stages in an audio chain yourself. Just like a single vacuum-tube triode or pentode, a single JFET can handle the task of a line amp, and it is significantly simpler to hook up. You can also build a single-ended (SE) phono stage with only two JFETs. The rest is up to your imagination. Suffice it to say that I hope the following introduction to JFETs will whet your appetite for the "new frontiers" in audio amplification.

JFETs

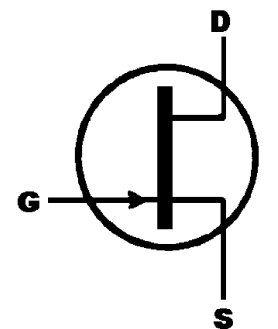
Field-effect transistors (FETs) have been around for a long time; in fact, they were invented, at least theoretically, before the bipolar transistors. The basic principle of the FET has been known since J.E. Lilienfeld's US patent in 1930, and Oscar Heil described the possibility of controlling the resistance in a semiconducting material with an electric field in a British patent in 1935. Several other researchers described similar mechanisms in the '40s and '50s, but not until the '60s did the advances in semiconductor technology allow practical realization of these devices.

The junction field-effect transistor, or JFET, consists of a channel of semiconducting material through which a current flows. This channel acts as a resistor, and the current through it is controlled by a voltage (electric field) applied to its gate. The gate is a pn junction,

formed along the channel. This description implies the primary difference between a bipolar transistor and a JFET: the pn junction in a JFET is reverse-biased, so the gate current is zero, whereas the base of a bipolar transistor is forward-biased, and the base conducts a base current. The JFET is therefore an inherently high-input impedance device, and the bipolar transistor is comparatively low-impedance.

Depending on the doping of the semiconductor material, you get so-called N-type or P-type material, and these result in the N-channel or P-channel types of JFET. The symbol for an N-channel JFET is shown in Fig. 1A. The three "electrodes" are called G, D, and S, for gate, drain, and source. The output characteristic for the N-channel JFET with the gate shorted to source (i.e., $V_{GS} = 0$) is shown in Fig. 1B.

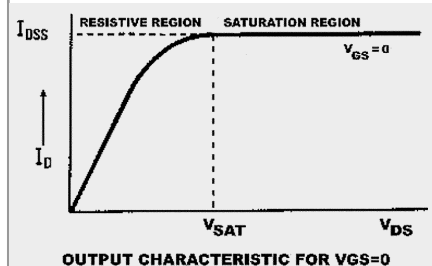
The characteristic field is divided into two regions, first a "resistive" region below the saturation voltage V_{SAT} , where an increase in V_{DS} results in a nearly linear increase in drain current I_D . Above



N-CHANNEL JFET

A-1535-1a

FIGURE 1A: Symbol for N-channel JFET.



OUTPUT CHARACTERISTIC FOR $V_{GS}=0$

A-1535-1b

FIGURE 1B: Output characteristic for $V_{GS}=0V$.

About the Author

Erno Borbely has been employed by National Semiconductor Europe for the last 17 years. He was Manager of Technical Training and worked as a consultant in human-resources development. He received an MSc degree in electronic engineering from the Institute of Technology, University of Norway in 1961, and worked seven years for the Norwegian Broadcasting Corp. designing professional audio equipment. He lived in the US and was Director of Engineering for Dynaco and The David Hafler Co. From 1973–1978, he worked for Motorola in Geneva, Switzerland, as Senior Applications Designer and Applications Manager. He has now taken an early retirement from National and is looking for OEM customers for whom he can design high-end audio equipment.

V_{SAT} , an increase in V_{DS} does not result in a further increase in I_D , and the characteristic flattens out, indicating the “saturation” region. Sometimes these two regions are also called “triode” and “pentode” regions.

You can use the JFET as a voltage-controlled resistor or a low-level switch in the triode region, and as an amplifier in the pentode region. As you see, the N-channel JFET conducts maximum current I_{DSS} with $V_{GS} = 0V$. If you apply a negative voltage to the gate, it reduces the current in the channel, and you get a family of output characteristics as shown in Fig. 2A. This device is called a “depletion” type of JFET.

In summary, the JFET consists of a channel of semiconducting material, along which a current can flow, and this flow is controlled by two voltages, V_{DS} and V_{GS} . When V_{DS} is greater than V_{SAT} , the current is controlled by V_{GS} alone, and because the V_{GS} is applied to a reverse-biased junction, the gate current is extremely small. In this respect, the N-channel JFET is analogous to a vacuum-tube pentode and, like a pentode, can be connected as an amplifier.

The P-channel JFETs behave in a similar manner, but with the direction of current flow and voltage polarities reversed. The P-channel JFET has no good analogy among vacuum tubes.

The Transconductance Curve

As mentioned previously, you can use the JFET as an amplifier in the pentode, or saturation, region. Here the V_{DS} has little effect on the output characteristics, and the gate voltage controls the channel current I_D . Because of this, it is easy to characterize the JFET in terms of the relationship between I_D and V_{GS} , that is, with the transconductance curve. Figure 2B shows the transconductance curves for a typical low-noise, high- g_m JFET, the 2SK170.

The drain current as a function of V_{GS} is given by the formula:

$$I_D = I_{DSS} \left[1 - \frac{V_{GS}}{V_P} \right]^2.$$

V_P is the gate pinch-off voltage, and is defined as the gate-source voltage that reduces I_D to a very low value, such as $0.1\mu A$. The formula indicates that the transconductance curve has a square-law form. It also shows that if you know I_{DSS} and V_P , you can draw the transconductance curve for any JFET. The transconductance g_m , which is the slope of the transconductance curve, is found by dif-

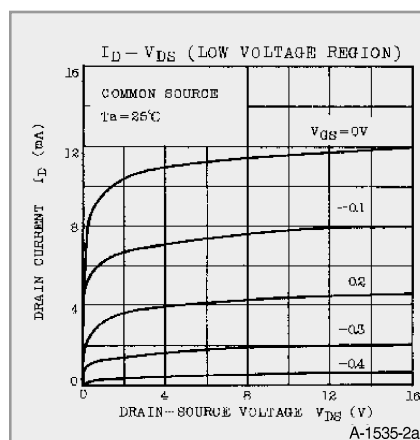


FIGURE 2A: Family of output characteristics for 2SK170.

ferentiating I_D with respect to V_{GS} :

$$g_m = \frac{dI_D}{dV_{GS}} = -\frac{2I_{DSS}}{V_P} \left[1 - \frac{V_{GS}}{V_P} \right]$$

The transconductance g_m becomes $-2I_{DSS}/V_P$ where the transconductance curve meets the y-axis. This is the value you normally find given in the data sheets. Notice that there are five different transconductance curves given for the 2SK170 in Fig. 2B. This indicates there is a range of I_D curves for each JFET, due to manufacturing tolerances.

Also notice that the transconductance curve stops where it meets the y-axis. This is because the gate pn junction would be forward-biased if V_{GS} were made positive for N-channel and negative for P-channel JFETs, and gate current would flow. This is analogous to the condition of vacuum tubes when the grid is made positive. Of course, a silicon pn junction does not conduct before the forward voltage reaches $0.6\text{--}0.7V$, so you can apply several hundred mV in the forward direction without ill effects. JFETs are often operated with both polarities of gate voltage—i.e., with gate current—in RF applications.

The change in the transconductance curve is not just a matter of tolerances due to manufacturing, but it also depends on the temperature, and this is due to two different effects. As the temperature increases, the mobility of the charge carriers in the channel decreases, which leads to an increasing channel resistance, and hence a reduction in I_D .

On the other hand, the barrier potential of the gate pn junction decreases about $2.2mV/^\circ C$, which causes the I_D to increase. There is a point on the transconductance curve where these two effects cancel one another, and the

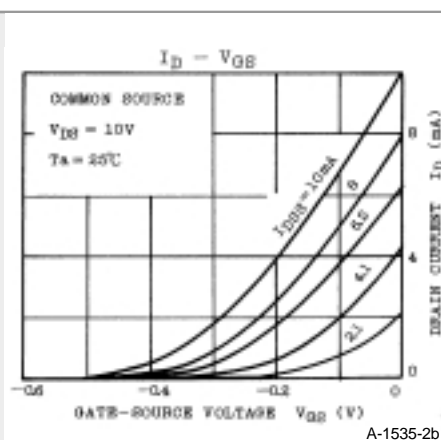


FIGURE 2B: Transconductance curves for 2SK170.

temperature coefficient (tempco) becomes zero. Obviously, if you need to design for low drift, then the JFET must be operated at this point.

You can calculate the zero tempco point with the following formula:

$$V_{GS} = V_P + 0.63V$$

Typical transconductance curves for two different JFETs are shown in Figs. 3A and 3B for a high- V_P and a low- V_P JFET, respectively. It is obvious from the curves that the zero tempco point occurs at a lower I_D for high- V_P JFETs and at a higher I_D for low- V_P JFETs. If the V_P is close to $0.6V$, then the zero tempco point is close to I_{DSS} .

The Bias Point

As shown in Fig. 2B, the JFETs have a relatively wide range of transconductance curves. In order to operate the JFET as a linear amplifier, you need to have a clearly defined operating point. A typical common-source amplifier stage is shown in Fig. 4A. Assume that the $+V_S$ is $36V$, and you have selected a load resistor $R_L = 10k$. What happens now if you insert a typical JFET, such as the 2SK170, for Q1?

Figure 4B shows five of the transconductance curves for the 2SK170, with I_{DSS} between $2.1mA$ and $10mA$. If you take one of these at random and operate it without R_S , the actual drain current will be the I_{DSS} value. With $2.1mA$, the voltage drop across R_L will be $21V$; i.e., the drain (OUT) will be sitting at $36 - 21 = 15V$. This might not be optimal from the point of view of maximum output or minimum THD, but it will work all right.

However, with $I_{DSS} = 10mA$, the voltage drop should be $100V$, which is clearly impossible with $V_S = 36V$, and the

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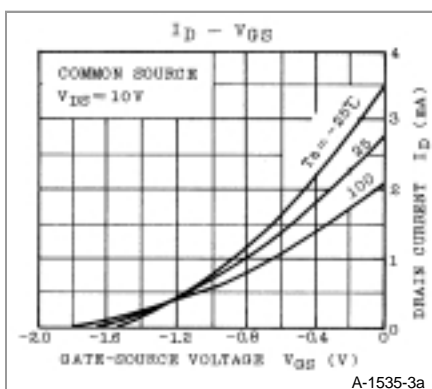


FIGURE 3A: The zero tempco point for 2SK246.

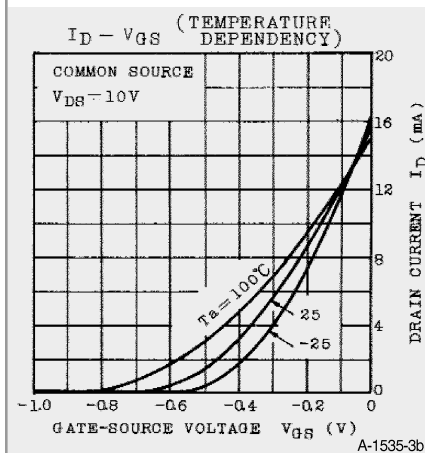


FIGURE 3B: The zero tempco point for 2SK170.

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amplifier goes into saturation. Obviously, if you wish to use any or all of these JFETs, you must reduce the effect of the wide range of I_{DSS} .

The solution is to use a source resistor R_S , similar to the biasing arrangements used in bipolar transistors or tube amplifiers. To illustrate the effect, I have drawn in the line for a 100 Ω resistor in the transconductance characteristics. The range of drain currents is now limited between 1mA for the $I_{DSS} = 2.1$ mA device, and about 2.6mA for the $I_{DSS} = 10$ mA device. The drain voltages will be $36 - 10 = 26$ V and $36 - 26 = 10$ V, respectively. This is still too much variation from the point of view of THD and maximum output swing, but at least there is no saturation with any of these devices.

Fortunately, JFETs are sold with much narrower I_{DSS} ranges, which makes life easier in terms of proper biasing. The 2SK170 comes in three I_{DSS} groups: the "GR" group is 2.6–6.5mA, the "BL" group is 6–12mA, and the "V" group is 10–20mA. If you use a "GR" device with $R_S = 100\Omega$, the I_D will vary between 1 and 2mA, which is almost acceptable.

The best solution, of course, is to select the devices for your particular application. Assume you wish to build a single-ended phono amp with JFETs and a passive RIAA correction network, and you decide to use the 2SK170 devices. In order to keep circuit noise to a minimum, you would use the 2SK170 without R_S , i.e., at I_{DSS} . Furthermore, you would need a relatively high current to be able to drive a passive RIAA correction network. If you choose, say, 5mA, you would need to select the devices from the "GR" group. But how? The selection is easy.

Testing JFETs

Figure 5 shows a simple circuit with which you can select JFETs and also match them if necessary. The tester feeds current into the source or connects the source to ground to measure the essential parameters of the device. In position 1 (switch in counterclockwise position), the source is connected to -10 V through a 1M resistor. This feeds the source with approximately a 10 μ A current, which you can consider the cutoff point V_p for the JFET. (Data sheets specify lower values, but this gives you a more practical value for measurements.) The voltmeter now indicates the pinch-off voltage V_p for the device.

The next two positions measure the V_{GS} for the device at given drain currents. These positions give practical readings for design purposes, and you can choose the constant-current sources for the values you need. The push-button switch shorts the source to ground, and the mA meter measures I_{DSS} . If you wish to measure only V_p and I_{DSS} , you can permanently wire the source to -10 V through the 1M resistor, which gives you V_p , and then short the source to ground with the push-button to read I_{DSS} .

If you test P-channel devices, you must reverse the supply voltages and the constant-current diodes. Normally, I test a large batch of devices (say 100 of each type) and sort them by I_{DSS} . The different devices are then used in different applications.

Some Practical Measurements

As mentioned previously, the transconductance curve has a quadratic form, and if you wish to use it to amplify audio signals, it will create harmonics. A true quadratic curve would generate only second harmonics; however,

ideal devices are hard to come by, and practical devices also generate some higher harmonics. Again, in this respect there is a close similarity to vacuum tubes. Looking at the transconductance curve, you can easily see that it is more linear close to the y-axis than further down on the curve. From the point of view of linearity, it is therefore an advantage to operate the JFET with a higher I_D .

Figures 6A and 6B show the transconductance characteristics for two JFETs I use in many of my amplifiers. The 2SK170 is a high-transconductance device with low V_p , and the 2SK246 is a low-transconductance JFET with a higher V_p .

I have selected a 2SK170 with $I_{DSS} = 6.2$ mA and a 2SK246 with $I_{DSS} = 5.6$ mA

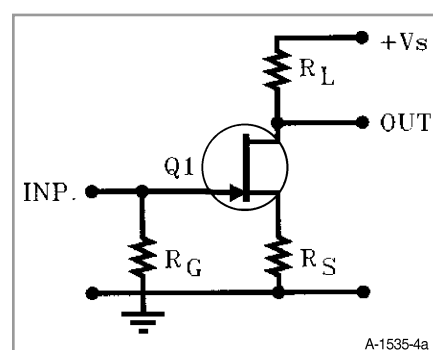


FIGURE 4A: A common-source amplifier.

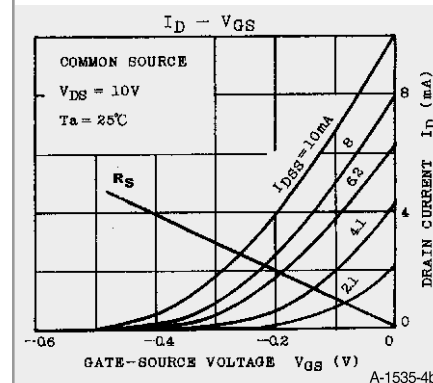


FIGURE 4B: The source resistor R_S stabilizes the bias point.

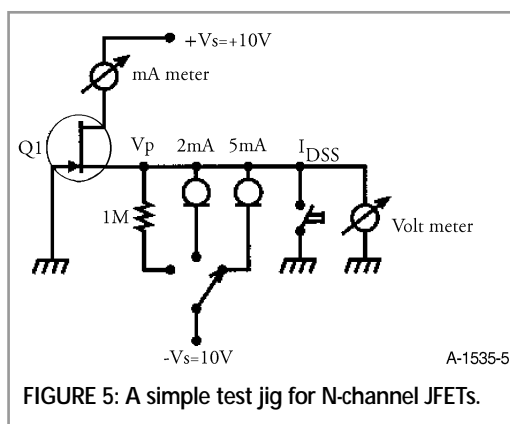


FIGURE 5: A simple test jig for N-channel JFETs.

to illustrate the difference of operation with very similar values of I_{DSS} . The gate pinch-off voltage is approximately 0.45V for the K170, and 2.75V for the K246. In order to operate them at the most linear part of the characteristic, I selected bias points at $V_{GS} = 0.1V$ and $I_D = 3.8mA$ for the K170, and $V_{GS} = 0.5V$ and $I_D = 4mA$ for the K246. These points are set with $R_S = 27\Omega$ and 125Ω , respectively.

The most obvious difference between the two JFETs is in the maximum input swing with which you can drive them. The K170 allows approximately $\pm 0.1V$ peak before the gate goes positive, but the K246 has a range of $\pm 0.5V$! Naturally, I could move the working point further down on the transconductance curve in order to increase the input range, but

$20.68/0.2 = 103.4$, which is 40dB. The output range for the K246 is 2.5mA to 5.6mA. With the same drain resistor of 4.7k, the output-voltage swing will be $26.32 - 11.75 = 14.57V$ pk-pk. The gain is $14.57/1 = 14.57$ times, which is 23.38dB. That is, the high- V_p device has lower gain than the low- V_p one.

When Higher Is Lower

Of course, this can be explained by the transconductance. The g_m for the K170 is $2I_{DSS}/V_p = 27.55mS$. The gain is $g_m \times R_L$, which gives 127 times, a bit higher than the graphical analysis. The explanation for this is that this g_m is at the point where the curve crosses the y-axis, which is always higher than at the working point, and that the curve is not a

two amplifiers with K170 and K246. The K170GR had an I_{DSS} of 5.5mA, and I operated it first with $R_S = 0$ and $R_L = 3.3k$. This gave me a gain of 36.4dB and a frequency response of over 400kHz. The THD is shown in Column 1 of Table 1.

Column 2 shows the same K170GR device, but this time with $R_S = 50\Omega$. This reduces the drain current to approximately 2.5mA, so I increased the drain resistor to 8.2k to have the same DC conditions as before. The THD is reduced by roughly 6dB. Column 3 shows the K246BL amp operating at $I_D = 5.1mA$, with $R_S = 100\Omega$, and $R_L = 4.7k$. The output is now a bit lower than half of the supply voltage, and the maximum output is therefore limited. But the THD is quite low, again about 6dB lower than the previous circuit.

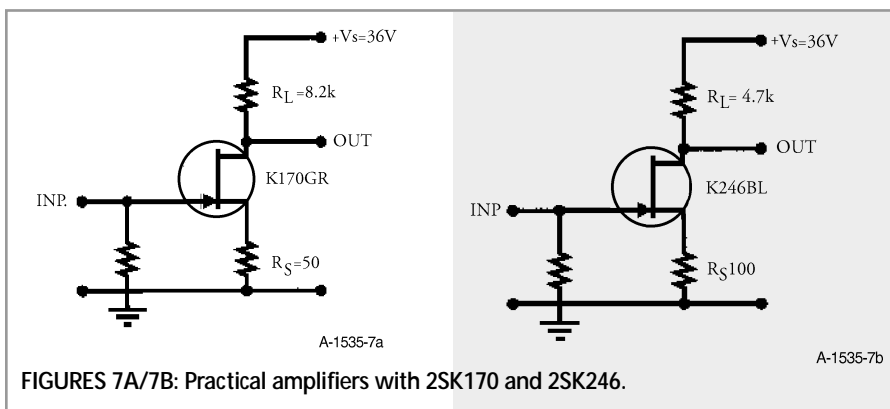
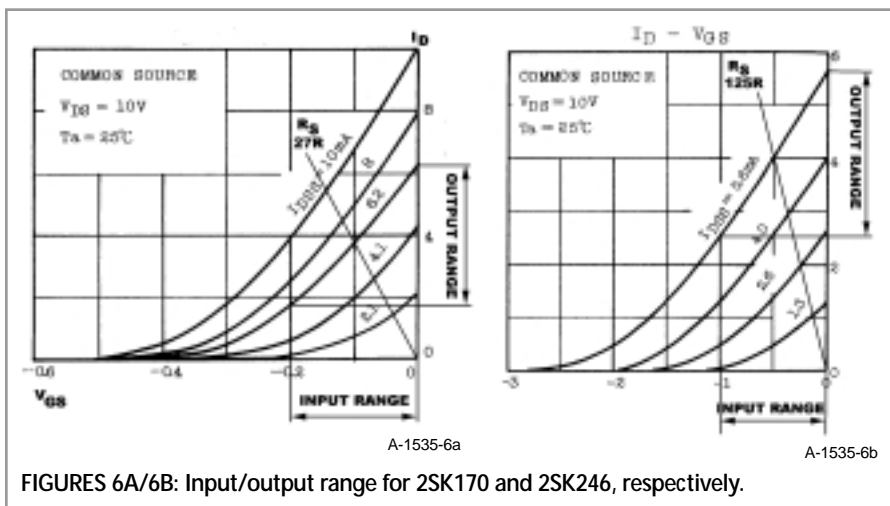
The K170GR circuit seems to be popular for phono input stages, and a number of these are circulating on the Internet. R_S is usually shorted to achieve minimum noise. However, even without R_S , the noise of a single K170 is not low enough for MC pickups. To achieve lower noise, you can parallel several of these devices. Doubling the JFETs with comparable g_m reduces the noise by approximately 3dB. I hooked up four K170s in parallel to see how it works (Fig. 8). Each device had an I_{DSS} of approximately 15mA, and the drain currents with $R_S = 6R8$ are 10mA each. With an $R_L = 511\Omega$, the drain is sitting at 14.8V DC.

The gain is 34dB and the frequency response is 360kHz. The THD for this circuit is shown in Column 4 of Table 1. Remember that this circuit is working at very low levels, where THD is indeed low. The equivalent input noise is also reasonably low at approximately 100nV over a 20kHz bandwidth. Not bad for a simple circuit. Want to try it?

Input Capacitance

As mentioned before, the JFETs have a relatively high input capacitance, which can be an important design factor. Just like tubes and bipolar transistors, JFETs also have interelectrode capacitances that affect the frequency response of the JFET when it is used as an amplifier. The two capacitances, which are of importance for audio use, are the Ciss and Crss.

The Ciss is called the input capacitance and Crss the reverse transfer capacitance. Typical values for the Ciss are 30pF for the K170, and 9pF for the K246. The high- g_m devices have a much higher input capacitance than the low- g_m ones. The Crss is 6pF and 2.5pF, respectively. The Crss seems to be relative-



eventually I would reach the other limiting point, where the gate cuts off at V_p . The thing to understand here is that a high- V_p JFET has a wider range of input swing than one with a low V_p .

Other obvious differences involve the output range and the gain. With a $\pm 0.1V$ gate voltage, the drain current varies between 1.8 and 6.2mA for the K170. With a drain resistor $R_L = 4.7k$, this results in an output swing of $29.14V - 8.46V = 20.68V$ pk-pk. The gain will then be

straight line, making the output swing smaller than the theoretical value.

In any case, this quick calculation gives you a reasonable starting point from which to design the circuit. The corresponding g_m for the K246 is 4mS, so obviously the gain is also much smaller at 19.14, that is, 25.63dB. Again, this results in a higher value than the graphical analysis.

Now for some real circuits and THD measurements. Figures 7A and 7B show

ly low, but this is the one that dominates the input capacitance of an amplifier through the Miller-effect.

The input capacitance of a normal common-source JFET stage as shown in Fig. 7, but with $R_S = 0$, is given by the formula: $C_{in} = C_{iss} - A_V \times C_{rss}$, where A_V is the voltage gain of the stage. Note that a common-source stage inverts the phase, so A_V is negative, making C_{in} a positive number. Since A_V can be a significantly large number, the input capacitance of the stage can be very high.

I have measured the input capacitance for the amplifier in Fig. 7, both with and without R_S . Without R_S , the capacitance was over 600pF! With $R_S = 100\Omega$, the input capacitance dropped to 127pF, because of the local feedback through R_S . To appreciate the significance of this, assume that you are driving the amplifier from a 100k Ω volume control. The amplifier will see a maximum "source impedance" of 25k when the volume control is in the middle. If you calculate the 3dB point of the low-pass filter formed by the volume control and the input capacitance of 600pF, you find that it is about 10kHz! If you use the K170 without R_S , you certainly must use a volume control, which is less than 100k.

Cascode to the Rescue

There is another way of reducing the input capacitance of the amplifier. Cascode connection of devices was invented in the tube era, but has also been used extensively with bipolar transistors. One of the advantages of cascoding, if you recall, is reduction of input capacitance, which makes it easier to design high-frequency amplifiers.

I have connected two circuits to test this (Fig. 9). The upper JFET needs a bias voltage, and it is easy to get this by connecting its gate to the source of the lower JFET. (Of course, you can also generate this bias from the supply voltage with a voltage divider, as you normally do with tube cascodes.) I am using a high- V_P JFET for the upper device, so that the lower JFET has enough voltage across it to operate in the saturation region.

The input capacitance of the circuit in Fig. 9A is approximately 160pF, so the cascoding indeed reduces the input capacitance. Further reduction is achieved by adding local feedback with R_S (Fig. 9B). The input capacitance is now re-

duced to 50pF. With such low input capacitance there is no longer any danger of creating a low-pass filter with the volume control.

As though the existence and size of the input capacitance were not enough, it is also voltage dependent, which might cause distortion in certain applications. Figures 10A and 10B show the voltage dependence of C_{iss} and C_{rss} , respectively, of the K170 JFET.

Depending on the excursion of the input/output signal, you get a capacitance modulation, and this can cause distortion of the audio signal. This shows up mostly when you drive the circuit from a high-source impedance. I have tested the circuit described in Column 1 and Column 2 of Table 1 with different source impedances, and could not measure any significant increase in THD up to 50k source.

However, when the noncascode circuit was driven from 500k, the THD increased approximately 6dB. The cascoded circuit showed no significant increase at any source impedance up to 500k. To avoid capacitance modulation problems, I recommend that you use a

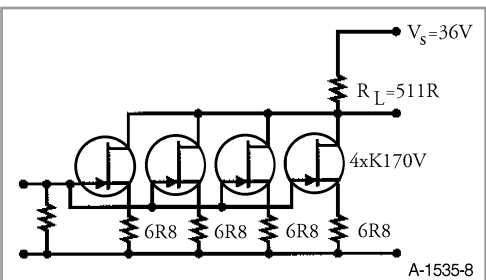


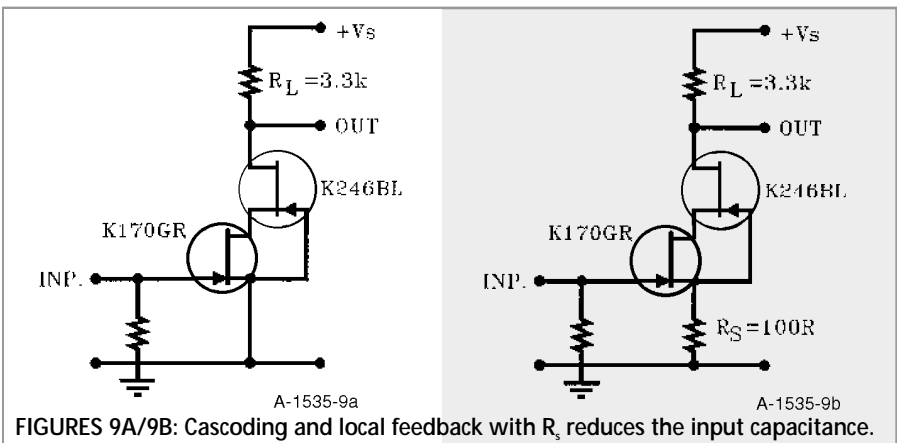
FIGURE 8: Paralleling JFETs reduces the noise.

TABLE 1

Output voltage, V RMS	Column 1 K170GR, $R_S = 0$, $R_L = 3.3k$	Column 2 K170GR, $R_S = 50$, $R_L = 8.2k$	Column 3 K246BL, $R_S = 100$, $R_L = 4.7k$	Column 4 4xK170V, $R_S = 6R8$, $R_L = 511R$
0.1V	0.095%	0.06%	0.02%	0.04%
0.3V	0.2%	0.1%	0.047%	0.1%
1V	0.6%	0.32%	0.15%	0.32%
2V	1.3%	0.65%	0.29%	0.67%
3V	1.9%	0.98%	0.4%	1%
5V	3.2%	1.7%		1.65%
10V	6%	3.4%		3.5%

volume control of no more than 50k. (Of course, you would probably use no more than 50k anyway, because of the increased noise with higher impedances.)

Note that in these circuits only two types of JFETs have been involved,



FIGURES 9A/9B: Cascoding and local feedback with R_S reduces the input capacitance.

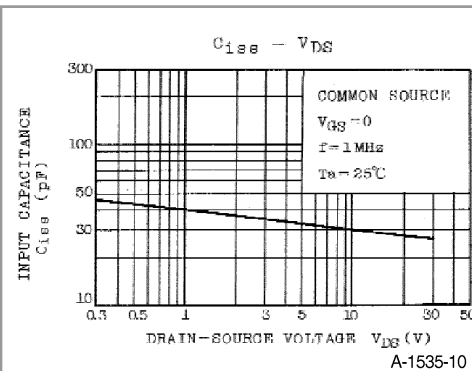


FIGURE 10: Voltage dependence of C_{iss} for 2SK170.

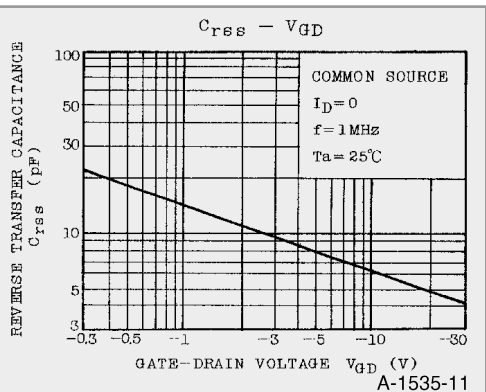


FIGURE 11: Voltage dependence of C_{rss} for 2SK170.

whereas there are thousands of them on the market. Also, I have used them for illustration purposes only, and, although they work as described, I have made no attempt to optimize them for any particular application.

In Part 2 of this article, I will discuss the differential topologies. If you have questions, please don't hesitate to send me an e-mail or a fax (Borbely Audio, e-mail: borbelyaudio@t-online.de, FAX: +49/8232/903618, Web site: <http://home.earthlink.net/~borbelyaudio>). And, of course, if you wish to buy some JFETs to experiment with, we have tons of them in stock. For a little extra, we even do a selection for you. Have fun experiencing the "new frontier" in audio amplification. ■

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JFETS: THE NEW FRONTIERS, PART 2

This noted design expert from Germany continues his series by showing how you can best take advantage of JFET performance.

In Part 1 of this article, I discussed the single-stage (or single-ended) amplifier operating in common-source mode. As these stages are usually limited in audio to AC signals, the inherent DC drift is of relatively little importance. You can even use them for DC signals if you select the working point carefully at zero temperature coefficient. However, if you remember the formula for zero tempco ($V_{GS} = V_P + 0.63V$), you realize that the condition is different from unit to unit, since V_P is different.

A better solution is to use a differential amplifier, where the drifts of two matched JFETs tend to cancel each other. The configuration is shown in Fig. 12a. If R_0 is large enough, then:

$$I_{D1} + I_{D2} = I_0.$$

Further, if I_{D1} changes ΔI_{D1} , then I_{D2} also changes by the same amount, but in the opposite direction, i.e.,

$$\Delta I_{D1} = -\Delta I_{D2}.$$

The differential gain of the stage is:

$$A_V(DD) = (V_{D1} - V_{D2}) / (V_{GS1} - V_{GS2}) = R_D \times g_m,$$

which is the same as the gain of a single common-source stage. For R_0 to be very large, $-V_S$ must also be very large. This is usually inconvenient, so instead of a resistor, you use a so-called constant-current source, which delivers I_0 independent of $-V_S$ (Fig. 12b).

Due to its symmetrical nature, you can also consider the differential amplifier as two symmetrically arranged "half-circuits," each with a JFET, a load resistor, and half of a current source, providing $I_0/2$.¹ This is shown in Fig. 13. If the two JFETs are "identical," then you can join the two half-circuits together at the sources without upsetting the DC operation. However, you now have balanced single-ended amplifiers.²

Seen from gate 1, JFET 1 operates as a common-source amplifier, except that the source is connected to the source of

JFET 2, operating it with source input. Seen from gate 2, the same thing happens—JFET 2 is in common-source mode, driving JFET 1 in the source. There are a number of advantages to operating two JFETs in this way, and I will start here with the common-mode rejection.

Common-Mode Signals

A very important feature of the differential amplifier is its ability to reject common-mode signals. Common mode means that both gates are driven with the same polarity and equal amplitude signals. It is easy to see that if only gate 1 is driven positive, then I_{D1} increases and I_{D2} decreases. But if both gates are driven positive, then both I_{D1} and I_{D2} must increase, which is impossible because $I_{D1} + I_{D2} = I_0$; i.e., I_0 is constant. Consequently, the differential amplifier cannot amplify same-polarity or common-mode signals.

Just how good it is in rejecting common-mode signals is expressed with the common-mode gain:

$$A_V(CM) = -R_D / 2r_o,$$

where r_o is the output impedance of the constant-current source. In order to have low common-mode gain (i.e., good rejection), the output impedance of the current source must be very large.

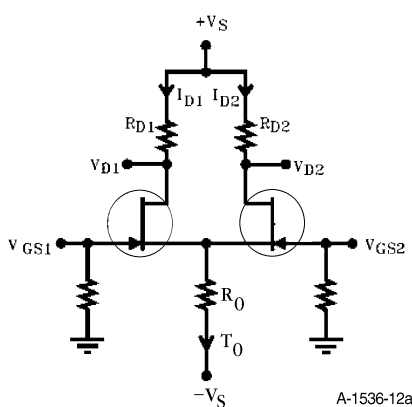


FIGURE 12A: Basic differential amplifier with JFETs.

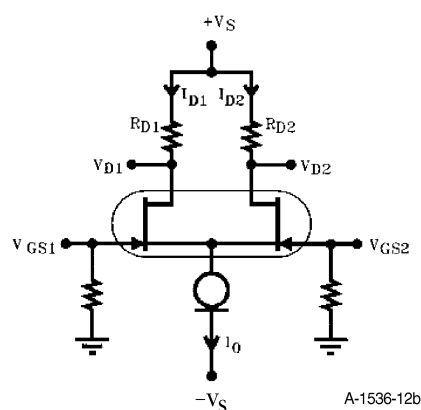


FIGURE 12B: Improved differential amplifier with constant-current source.

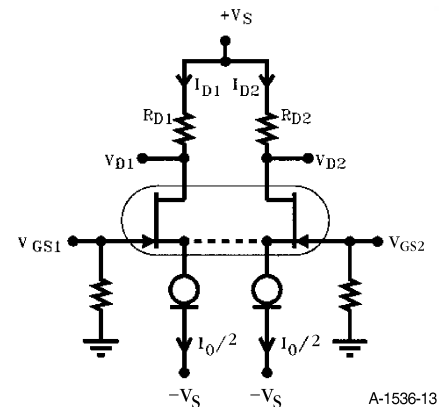


FIGURE 13: The differential amplifier represented with two symmetrically arranged "half-circuits."

The importance of low common-mode gain is closely related to the temperature drift, because changes in I_D , V_{GS} , and g_m can be considered common-mode signals if they are the same for both JFETs. Normally, a common-mode rejection ratio (CMRR) is specified for the differential amplifier. It is the ratio between the differential gain and the common-mode gain:

$$CMRR = A_v(DD)/A_v(CM) \approx 2g_m \times r_o.$$

Obviously the two JFETs must be closely matched to achieve good common-mode rejection. In fact, these two formulas are valid only if the two JFETs are perfectly matched. Although it is possible to select well-matched JFETs, the easier way is to use dual JFETs matched by the manufacturer, or even better, dual JFETs manufactured on the same silicon chip, i.e., monolithic duals.

I have been using the NPD 5566 dual N-channel and the AH 5020CJ dual P-channel JFETs.³ However, these are not truly complementary types, as I pointed out in my article.³ The first complementary types on the market were the 2SK240/2SJ74 medium g_m and the 2SK146/2SJ73 high g_m /low-noise types. These are closely matched single devices, mounted in a common aluminum case for good thermal tracking. Unfortunately, these devices are no longer in production.

Dual Monolithic JFETs

Although there are plenty of N-channel dual JFETs on the market, complementary dual monolithic JFETs are rare. In fact, I know of only one family, the 2SK389/2SJ109, made by Toshiba. These are still manufactured and available, so I use them in all my amps with differential input. Now I'll describe some practical differential circuits.

Figure 14a shows a simple differential amplifier with the 2SK389 dual monolithic JFET from I_{DSS} group V. I hooked it up with $\pm 36V$ to operate the JFETs under conditions similar to those of the SE ones. The constant-current source is a J511 JFET delivering 4.7mA. In order to run the drains at roughly one-half the supply voltage (about 18V), I chose $R_{D1} = R_{D2} = 10k$.

First I tested the amplifier in single-ended mode, i.e., gate 2 connected to ground, with the measurements taken at V_{D2} . (V_{D2} has the same phase as V_{GS1} .) Although from the operational point of view it is single-ended, I think this mode is more appropriately called the unbal-

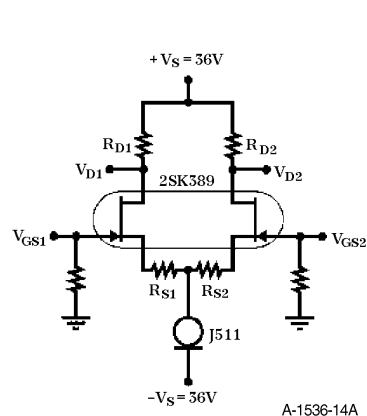


FIGURE 14A: A practical differential amplifier with the 2SK389V dual monolithic JFET.

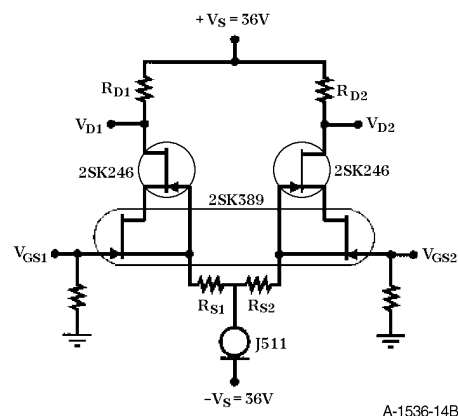


FIGURE 14B: The cascode connection reduces the input capacitance.

anced mode. Gain without local feedback ($R_{S1} = R_{S2} = 0$) is about 64 times, which is 36dB. Frequency response is 175kHz, and the input capacitance is 330pF. THD, measured at 1kHz, is shown in column 1 of Table 2.

Next I inserted source resistors $R_{S1} = R_{S2} = 100R$, and reran the measurements. Due to the local feedback, the gain dropped to approximately 28 times, and the input capacitance to 160pF. The THD also decreased by about 6dB.

In order to reduce the input capacitance further, I put 2SK246 cascodes in the circuit (Fig. 14b). The gain did not

anced signal from the two drains.

I have made some rudimentary THD measurements in balanced mode, shown in column 3 of Table 2. Unfortunately, my oscillator and THD analyzer (HP339A) are unbalanced, so I needed to improvise the balanced operation with op amps, limiting the measurements to the levels shown in the table (lower levels were masked by noise). Nevertheless, it clearly indicates that the circuit thrives in balanced mode, having 10–20dB less THD compared to unbalanced mode. It also indicates the advantages of this circuit relative to the SE cir-

TABLE 2

Output in V RMS	Column 1 SE mode, $R_{S1} = R_{S2} = 0$	Column 2 SE/cascode mode, $R_{S1} = R_{S2} = 100R$	Column 3 Balanced mode, $R_{S1} = R_{S2} = 100R$
0.3	0.013%	0.006% (noise)	
1	0.035%	0.012%	
3	0.27%	0.1%	0.023%
5	0.85%	0.33%	0.06%
8	2.6%	1%	0.12%
10	4.7%	2.3%	0.17%

change significantly, but the input capacitance dropped to 50pF! THD also decreased, as shown in column 2, Table 2.

Balanced Mode

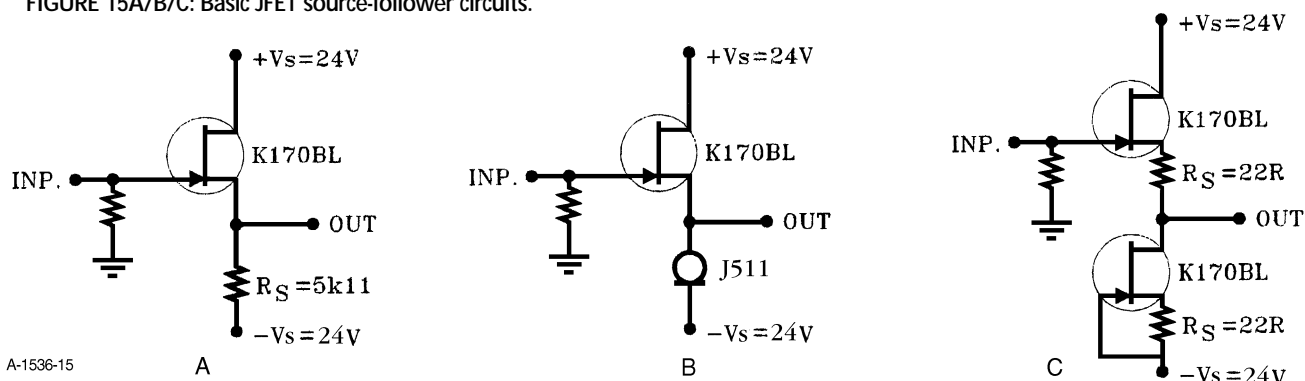
A couple of comments are in order concerning this circuit. According to the measurements, it is a very decent design, considering that it uses only a very small amount of local feedback. The gain is still fairly high, and you can reduce it further by increasing the source resistors, which in turn further reduces the THD. However, to fully take advantage of the symmetrical nature of this circuit, you should use it in balanced mode, which requires applying a balanced signal at the two gates and taking the bal-

cuits discussed in Part 1.

The SE purists might naturally say that this is due to the cancellation of even-order harmonics in the balanced circuits, which is true. But as Nelson Pass points out on his homepage, in comparison to the SE stages, the balanced circuit does not give rise to odd-order distortion. There is simply not much distortion left in the balanced circuit.

As mentioned in Part 1, the input capacitance is voltage-dependent, which can cause THD when the amplifier is driven from high source impedances. I have tested the circuit described in column 2 of Table 2 with 50k, 100k, and 500k sources. There was no measurable change in distortion up to 100k, but at

FIGURE 15A/B/C: Basic JFET source-follower circuits.



500k, I could see a slight increase.

Again, for noise reasons, you should probably keep the source impedance below 50k, so there is no problem with the capacitance modulation anyway. I also checked the CMRR by connecting the two gates together and driving them with a 3V RMS signal. The output, again in balanced mode, was down 87dB at 1kHz. The CMRR dropped to 70dB at 10kHz and 63.5dB at 20kHz, but even at 100kHz, it was 50dB!

The Output

I have now described two types of amplifier stages using JFETs, the common-source or single-ended stage, and the differential or balanced amplifier. You can use either of these to build audio amplifiers, depending on your preference for balanced or unbalanced operation. Personally, I prefer the differential circuit, because you can use it with balanced or unbalanced sources, and it can also feed balanced or unbalanced power amplifiers. Balanced operation gives a subjective impression of increased dynamics. It can also be an extremely useful interfacing consideration in breaking up ground loops.⁴

There are two issues to consider when talking about the SE and balanced amplifiers. First of all, the output does not sit at 0V DC, but at some 10–20V above ground. If you wish to connect it to, say, a DC-coupled power amplifier, you must block this DC voltage from reaching the power-amp input. This is easily done using a capacitor, and this problem is well known to all SE fans, whether of tube or semiconductor variety. I will therefore not spend much time on the subject.

A much more important question is whether these circuits can drive the input impedance of a power amplifier. The output impedance of the amps ex-

TABLE 3

Output V RMS	Column 1 $R_S = 5.11k$	Column 2 $R_S = \text{constant-}$ current source	Column 3 $R_S = \text{JFET}$ current source	Column 4 The "Borbely" source follower
0.3V	0.0025	0.0023	0.002	0.0025
1V	0.0033	0.0024	0.0018	0.0035
3V	0.011	0.0025	0.0016	0.0045
5V	0.02	0.003	0.0016	0.0074

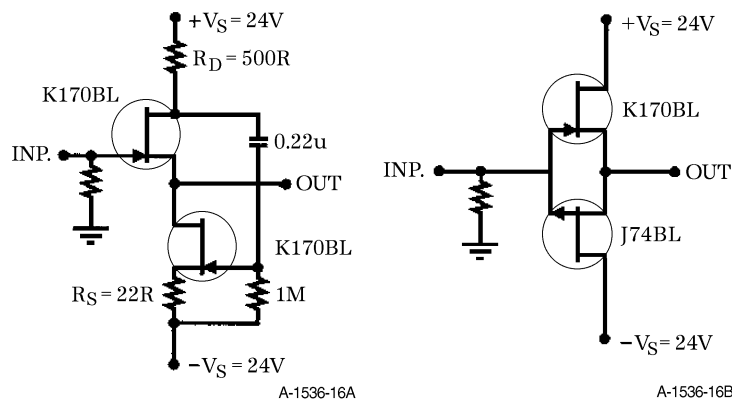


FIGURE 16A/B: These source-follower circuits can drive low-impedance loads with very low THD.

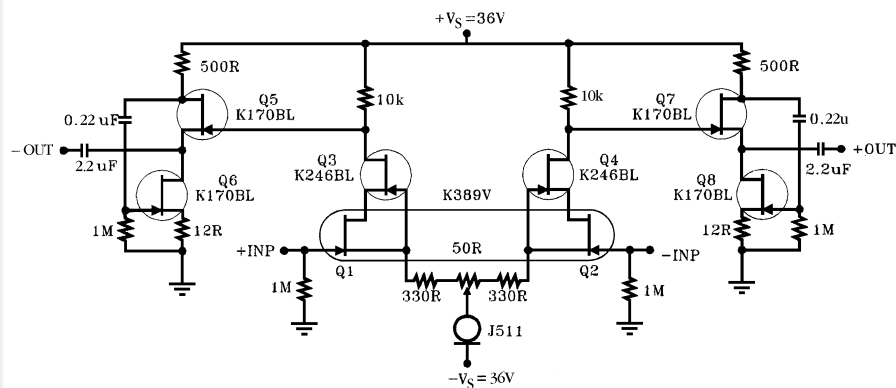


FIGURE 17: The all-JFET balanced SE line amp.

aminated is basically equal to the drain resistor of the amplifier. If $R_D = 10k$, then the output impedance is also close to 10k. But if the input impedance of the power amp is also 10k, then you are certainly in trouble. First, you lose 6dB of gain by the voltage division between the 10k resistors; second, the 10k input will most likely load the output and cause a lot of THD. Even with 20k or 50k input impedance, you might run into problems. It is advisable to put an impedance transformer at the output to avoid this. Source followers to the rescue!

JFETs as Followers

Just like tubes and bipolar transistors, JFETs can also be operated as followers, more specifically source followers. The basic circuit is shown in *Fig. 15a*. The drain is AC-grounded, and the output signal is taken out across the source resistor, which means it operates with 100% local feedback. The gain of the source follower is:

$$A_V = g_m \times R_S / (1 + g_m \times R_S)$$

Two things become obvious from the formula: first, the source follower does not reverse the phase of the signal, and second, if $g_m \times R_S \gg 1$, then the gain becomes approximately unity. In order to make R_S large, you can use a constant-current source with high output impedance (*Fig. 15b*). The linearity is also dependent on R_S (see the 1kHz THD measurements in columns 1 and 2 of *Table 3*).

The input capacitance is low because it is not augmented by the Miller effect. I measured approximately 5pF for the circuits in *Fig. 15a* and *b*. The output impedance equals approximately $1/g_m$. With high- g_m devices, this will be fairly low. I measured 38Ω for the basic circuits in *Fig. 15a* and *b*.

The circuits in *15a* and *b* have a DC offset voltage at the output—the gate-source voltage at the given drain current. For the JFETs I used in the test setup, I measured a 0.2V offset. If you need zero DC output, you can use the circuit in *Fig. 15c*. Here the constant-current source is made with the same type of JFET as the follower.

If the two JFETs are matched and the two source resistors are equal, then the DC offset will be very small. With two matched K170BLs, I measured less than 1mV offset. (It would probably be even lower if you used here a dual monolithic JFET like the K389BL/V.) DC drifts tend to cancel out as well, because of the matched devices. The circuit also has

very low THD (see column 3 of *Table 3*).

Follower Feature

One of the most important features of a follower is its ability to drive low-impedance loads. I checked all three circuits with 1k and 10k loads at 3V RMS output. With 1k they measured 1%, 1.7%, and 0.23%, respectively. Although its output impedance is actually higher than the circuits in *Figs. 15a* and *b*, that in *15c* is better in driving low-impedance loads. With a 10k load, the circuits in *15b* and *15c* didn't have many problems. THD was 0.004 and 0.0022%.

My choices of source followers are shown in *Fig. 16*. The circuit in *16a* is a JFET version of the tube White cathode follower.⁵ Basically, the circuit is an extension of *Fig. 15c*, in that the follower is fed with a constant-current source, but in addition the drain current of the current source is modulated by the AC signal. When the output signal goes positive, the tail current decreases, and when it goes negative, the current increases. The result is a significant reduction of the output impedance and an apparent increase in drive capability.

The output impedance with the devices shown measured 2.3Ω. The input capacitance is about 5pF, the same as the previous source-follower circuits. The penalty for the drive capability is a slight increase of distortion (see column 4 in *Table 3*). The THD with a 1k load and 3V RMS is 0.0095%. The necessary gate drive voltage is derived from a small resistor in the source follower's drain circuit, and it is AC-coupled to the current source.

Power Dissipation

John Curl used the complementary JFET source follower shown in *Fig. 16b* in the JC-2 phono-preamp module.⁶ The JFETs work in Class A as long as the peak load current is less than twice the bias current. After that, the circuit works in Class AB. I usually let the two matched devices work at I_{DSS} , to maintain as much Class A headroom as possible. However, you must watch the power dissipation. If I_{DSS} is such that the power dissipation is more than the maximum allowed, then you need to insert a source resistor to reduce the drain current or select a device with lower I_{DSS} .

I tested the circuit with K170/J74, both the BL and V types, and got excellent results. The THD is shown in column 4 of *Table 3*. Depending on the matching, the offset can be as low as 1mV. The output impedance is about

18Ω, and the input capacitance is 28pF. Most important, the circuit can drive low-impedance loads without distress—the 1k/3V RMS THD was 0.0078%. With a 10k load, there is no difference from the no-load results.

I also tested the source followers for THD caused by the voltage-dependence of the input capacitance. Since the voltage excursion is much larger at the input because of the unity gain, the circuits are also more susceptible to the distortion. There is no significant increase up to a 10k source; however, at 50k the THD is increasing by an order of magnitude. Normally this is no problem, because the source impedance is usually very low. However, in certain applications such as filters, this can cause distortion.

Of course, using any of these source-follower buffer circuits with the SE and differential amplifiers discussed previously solves only one of the problems stated at the start of this section—the drive-capability problem. The DC voltage is still there. Given the topology of these circuits, you must use a capacitor at the output to block the DC voltage. Naturally, you can also solve this problem by using level-shifting circuits, but it requires a bit more circuit design. For now, I'll look at an all-JFET balanced/SE all-FET line amp, using the circuits already developed.

The Balanced/SE All-JFET Line Amp

The schematic shown in *Fig. 17* consists of the differential amplifier Q1/Q2, cascoded with Q3/Q4, and the output buffers Q5/Q6 and Q7/Q8. The differential amplifier uses a dual monolithic K389V JFET. Each JFET operates at just over 2mA, this current supplied by the J511 constant-current source. The 330R source resistors provide local feedback and control the gain of the differential amplifier. The trimpot P1 cancels out small imbalances between the two JFETs, but it is normally unnecessary with monolithic duals, and you can leave it out.

The Cascode FETs are K246BLs. The output buffers are those I developed from the tube White Cathode Follower, shown in *Fig. 16a* ("modestly" called the "Borbely" source followers here). The supply voltage is ±36V. Of course, you can make the negative supply much less than 36V; the constant-current source requires only a couple of volts for proper operation. I made them both 36V to be able to try other configurations.

The output caps must be of highest quality in order to preserve the outstand-

ing sound quality of this simple circuit. If you are likely to drive loads down to 1k, then the caps must be a minimum of 10 μ F. If you are driving normal 10k or higher loads, you can get away with a 1 μ F or 2.2 μ F cap. I tried the Hovland Musicaps, which are rather neutral, but there are plenty of good caps on the market you can try.

Normal oil caps are *not* for this circuit; they destroy the excellent resolution to a “nice” blurred mish-mash. (Don’t get the idea that I don’t like oil caps; I use them in some of my amps.) I would have liked to try some silver-foil caps, but, alas, the prices are more ridiculous than the cable prices, and I refuse to play that game. (If anyone knows of a reasonably priced silver-foil cap, please let me know.)

You can use the line amp with unbalanced or balanced sources, and you can feed power amps with balanced or unbalanced inputs. However, you should really take advantage of its superior performance in balanced operation, as I mentioned before. Should you use it with unbalanced sources, then you must short the –INP to ground. And in the unlikely event that you don’t wish to take advantage of the balanced outputs, you can leave out the circuit around Q5/Q6, i.e., the negative output. I recommend a 10k or 20k ladder attenuator as a volume control. Good luck with the JFETs, the “New Frontiers” in audio amplification. ■

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6. John Curl, “Classic Circuitry,” *The Audio Amateur* 1977, Issue 3, p. 48.

Acknowledgments

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