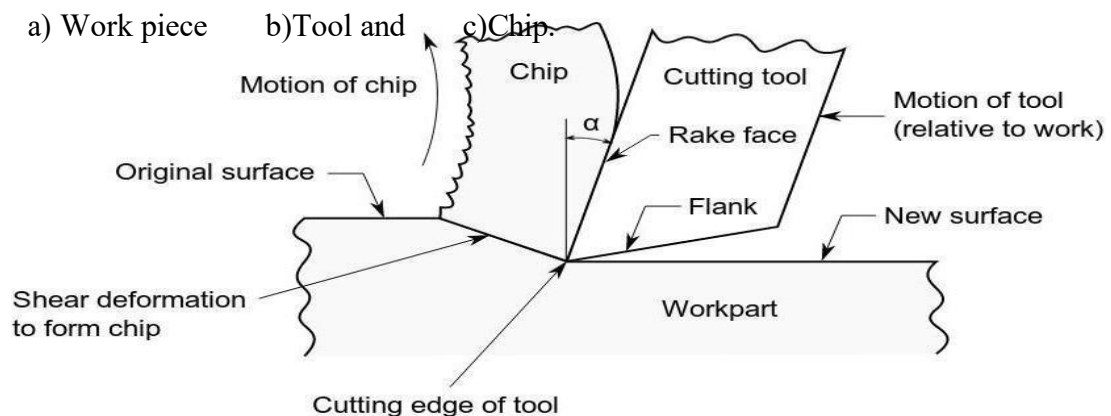


UNIT-1

Metal cutting theory

1. Economical manufacture of Machine parts -----Growing competition.
2. Basic objectives of efficient and Economical machining practice.
 - a) Quick metal removal.
 - b) High class of surface finish.
 - c) Economy in tool cost.
 - d) Less power consumption.
 - e) Economy in the cost of replacement and sharpening tools.
 - f) Minimum idle time of machining tools.
3. Basic elements of machining.



The relative motion between the tool and work piece is necessary for effecting the cutting action. The relative motion can be provided by both keeping the workpiece stationary and moving the tool or by keeping the tool stationary and moving the work or by moving both in relation to one another.

The work piece provides the parent metal, from which unwanted metal is removed by cutting action of tool to obtain shape and size of the component. Chemical composition and physical properties of work piece material will have significant effect in machining.

The type and geometry of chip formed are greatly affected by the metal of work piece, geometry of cutting tool and method of cutting. Chemical composition and rate of flow of cutting fluid have considerable influence over the machining operation.

Orthogonal And Oblique Cutting:

The process of metal cutting is divided into two main classes: Orthogonal and Oblique cutting. In Orthogonal cutting, cutting edge of tool remains normal to the direction of tool feed or work feed.

The direction of chip flow velocity is normal to the cutting edge of the tool.

The angle of inclination of the cutting edge of the tool with normal to the velocity v_c is zero.

The chip flow angle β i.e the angle between the direction of chip flow and normal to the cutting edge of the tool is zero. Cutting edge is longer than the width of the cut.

Oblique cutting:

The cutting edge of the tool always remains inclined at an angle to the direction of tool feed or work feed.

The direction of chip flow velocity is at an angle β with normal to the cutting edge of the tool. The angle is known as chip flow angle.

The cutting edge of the tool is inclined at an angle with the normal to the direction of tool feed or work feed.

Three mutually perpendicular components of the cutting forces act at the cutting edge of the tool. The cutting edge may or may not be longer than the width of cut.

Most of the metal cutting is carried out through oblique method.

Classification of Cutting Tools

Single point tools: Those having only one cutting edge. Ex. Lathe tools, Shaper tools, Planer tools, Boring tools etc.

Multi-Point tools: - Those having more than one cutting edge. Ex. Milling cutters, Drills, Broachers, Grinding wheels.

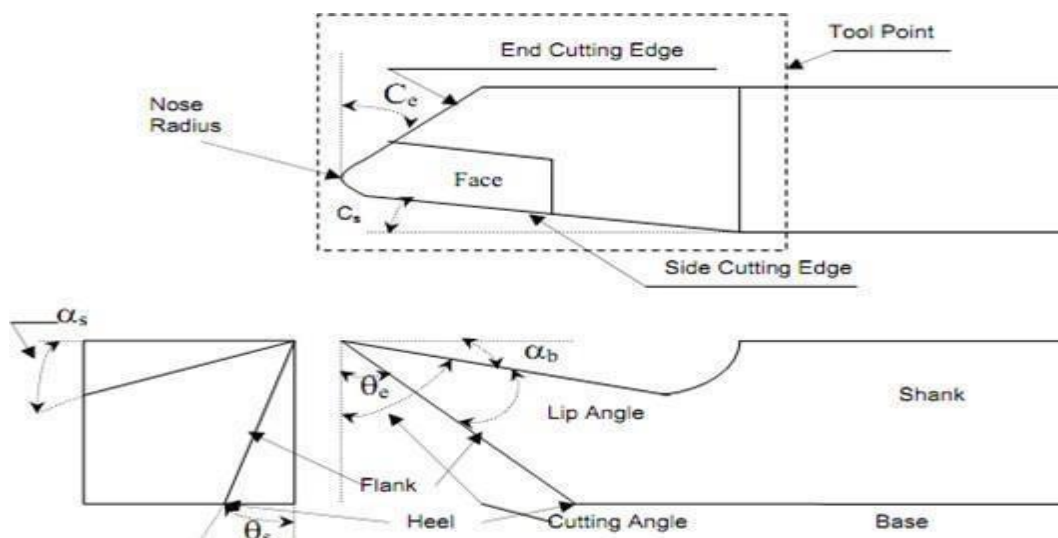
Cutting Tools Can Also Be Classified According To The Motion As:

Linear motion tools: Lathe, Boring, Broaching, Planing and Shaping tools.

Rotary motion tools: Milling cutters, grinding wheels.

Linear and Rotary Tools: Drills, Honing Tools, Boring Heads etc.

Geometry of Single Point Tools:



1. Rake angle: It is the angle formed between the face of the tool and a plane parallel to its base. If this inclination is towards the shank, it is known as back rake or top rake. When it is measured

towards side of the tool, it is called side rake. These rake angles guide the chips away from the cutting edge, thereby reducing the chip pressure on the face and increasing the keenness of the tool, so that less power is required for cutting. An increased rake angle will reduce the strength of cutting edge. Therefore tools used for cutting hard materials are given small rake angles, whereas those used for soft metals contain large rake angles.

2. Negative rake angle: The above rake angles are called positive rake angles. When no rake is provided on the tool, it is said to have zero rake angle. When the face of the tool is so ground that it slopes upwards from the point, it is said to contain a negative rake. It reduces keenness of the tool and increases the strength of cutting edge. Such rake is usually provided on carbide tipped tools when they are used for machining extra-hard surfaces, hardened steel parts and for taking intermittent cuts. The values of negative rake on these tools normally vary from 5 to 10°.

3. Lip angle: The angle between the face and flank of the tool is known as Lip angle. It is also called angle of keenness of the tool. Strength of the cutting edge or point of the tool is directly affected by this angle. Larger the lip angle, stronger will be cutting edge and vice-versa. This angle varies with the rake angle. It is only for this reason that when harder metals are to be machined a stronger tool is required, the rake angle is reduced and consequently the lip angle is increased. This calls for reduced cutting speeds, which is disadvantage. The lip angle is therefore kept as low as possible without making the cutting edge so weak that it becomes unsuitable for cutting.

4. Clearance angle: It is the angle formed by the front or side surface of the tool which are adjacent and below the cutting edge when the tool is held in a horizontal position. It is the angle between one of these surfaces and a plane normal to the base of the tool. When the front surface is considered it is called front clearance and when the surface below cutting edge is considered, the angle formed is known as side clearance angle. The purpose of providing front clearance is to allow the tool to cut freely without rubbing against the surface of the job. The side clearance is to direct the cutting thrust to the metal area adjacent to the cutting edge.

5. Relief angle: It is the angle formed between flank of the tool and a perpendicular drawn from the cutting point to the base of the tool.

6. Cutting angle: The total cutting angle of the tool is the angle formed between the tool face and a line drawn through the point, which is a tangent to the machined surface of the work at that point. Its correct value depends upon the position of the tool which it is held in relation to the axis of the job.

7. Nose radius: If the cutting tip of a single point tool carries a sharp cutting point, the cutting tip is weak. It is therefore highly stressed during the operation, may fail or lose its cutting ability soon and produces marks on the machined surface. In order to prevent these harmful effects the nose is provided with a radius, called Nose radius. It enables greater strength to cutting tip, a prolonged tool life and superior surface finish on the work piece. As the value of this radius increases, a higher cutting speed can be used.

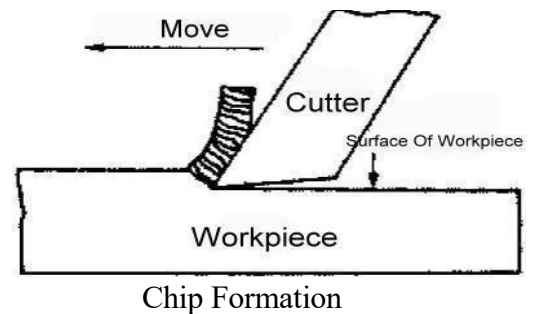
If it is too large, it may lead to chatter. So a balance has to be maintained. Its value normally varies from 0.4mm to 1.6mm depending upon several factors like depth of cut, amount of feed, type of cutting and type of tool.

Chip Formation:

Chips are formed due to tearing and shearing. In the chip formation by tear, the work piece material adjacent to the tool face is compressed and crack runs ahead of the cutting tool and towards body of the work-piece. The chip is highly deformed and the work-piece material is relatively under formed. Cutting takes place intermittently and there is no movement of the work piece material over the tool face.

In chip formation by shear, there is a general movement of the chip over tool face.

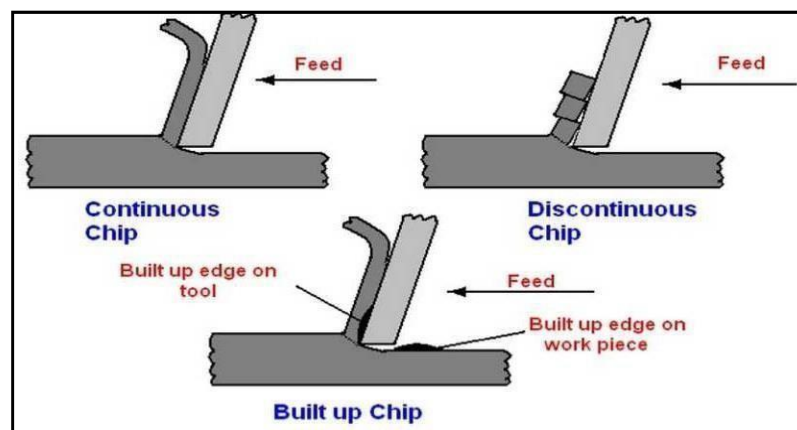
The grains of metal ahead of cutting edge of tool start elongating along line AB and continue to do so until they are completely deformed along line CD. The region between the lines AB and CD is called shear zone. After passing over shear zone, the deformed metals along the tool face due to the Velocity of the cutting tool.



The angle made by plane of shear with the direction of tool travel is known as shear angle. Its value depends on the material being cut and the cutting conditions. If ϕ is small, path of shear will be long, chips will be thick and the force required to remove the layer of metal of given thickness will be high and vice-versa.

Types of chips:

Every machining operation involves the formation of chips, the nature of chips differs from operation to operation, properties of work-piece material and cutting condition.



Chips are formed due to cutting tool, which is harder and more wear resistant than the work-piece material, relative motion between tool and work-piece, sufficient force and power to overcome the resistance of work-piece material. The chips are formed by the deformation of the metal lying ahead of cutting tool edge by a process of shear. Basically there are three types of chips

- 1. Discontinuous chips:** This type of chips is produced during machining of brittle materials like cast-iron and bronze. These chips are produced in the form of small segments.

In machining of such materials, as the tool advances forward, the shear-plane angle gradually reduces until the value of compressive stress acting on the shear plane becomes too low to prevent rupture. At this stage, any further advancement of the tool results in the fracture of

the metal ahead of it, thus producing a chip. With further advancement of the tool, the processes of metal fracture and production of chips goes on repeatedly producing discontinuous chips. Such chips are also sometimes produced in machining of ductile materials, when low cutting speeds are used and adequate lubrication is not provided. This causes excessive friction between the chip and tool face, leading to fracture of chip in small segments. This will also result in excessive wear on the tool and poor surface finish on the work-piece. Other factors responsible for production of discontinuous chips are smaller rake angle on the tool and too much depth of cut.

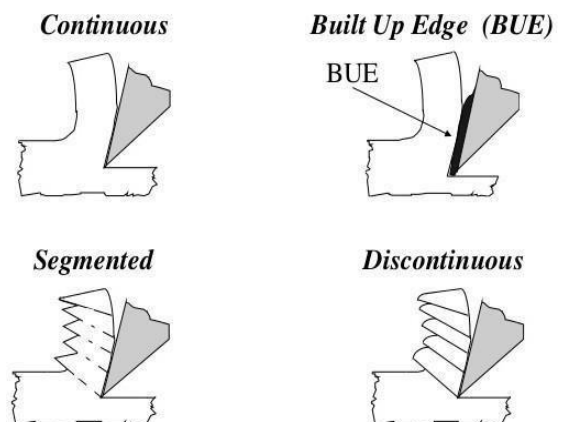
2. Continuous chip: This type of chip is produced while machining a ductile material, like mild steel and copper at very high cutting speed and minimum friction between the chip and the tool face. The friction at the chip-tool inter face can be minimized by polishing the tool face and adequate use of coolant. The basis of production of a continuous chip is the continuous plastic deformation of the metal ahead of the cutting tool, the chip moving smoothly up the tool face. Other factors responsible are bigger rake angle, finer feed and keen cutting edge of the tool.

3. Continuous chip with built-up edge: It is very similar to the continuous type and not as smooth as continuous chip. It has a built-up edge adhering on nose of the tool, which changes the effective geometry of cutting. It is obtained by machining ductile metals with high speed tools at ordinary cutting speeds, thus introducing high friction between the chip and tool face. The form and size of such an edge depends largely on the cutting speed, being absent at very low and very high cutting speeds. This type of chip results in poor surface finish. The normal reaction of the chip on the tool face is quite high, and is maximum at the cutting edge or nose of the tool. This gives rise to an excessively high temperature and the compressed metal adjacent to tool nose gets welded to it. The chip is also sufficiently hot and gets oxidized as it comes off the tool and turns blue in colour. The extra metal welded to tool nose or point of the tool is called **built-up edge**.

This metal is highly strain hardened and brittle. With the result, as the chip flows up the tool, the built-up edge is broken and carried away with the chip while the rest of it adheres to the surface of the work-piece, making it rough. Due to the built-up edge the rake angle is also altered and so is the cutting force. The common factors responsible for formation of built-up edge are low cutting speed, excessive feed, small rake angle and lack of lubricant.

Adverse effects of built-up edge formation:

- a) Rough surface finish on the work-piece.
- b) Fluctuating cutting force, causing vibrations in cutting tool.
- c) Chances of carrying away some material from the tool by the built-up surface, producing crater on the tool face and causing tool wear.



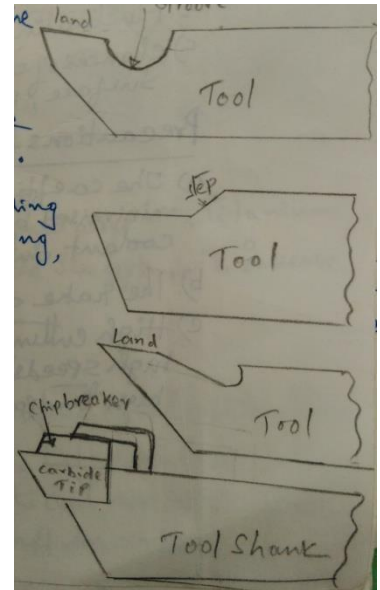
Precautions for avoiding the formation of built-up edge:

- a) The coefficient of friction at the chip-tool interface should be minimized by means of polishing the tool face and adequate supply of coolant during the cutting operation.
- b) The rake angle should be kept large.
- c) High cutting speeds and low feeds should be used, because at high speeds the strength of the weld becomes low. Similarly, at very high temperature also the strength of the weld becomes low.

Chip-Breakers:

The chips produced during machining at higher speeds in machining of high tensile strength materials, need to be effectively controlled. Carbide tipped tools are used in case of higher speeds and due to high temperature the chip will be continuous of blue colour and take the shape of coil. Such a chip, if not broken in to parts and removed from the surroundings of the metal cutting area, will adversely affect the machining in the following way.

- a) Adversely affect tool life by spoiling the cutting edge, creating crater and raising the temperature.
- b) Lead to poor surface finish on the work-piece.
- c) The chips get curled around the rotating work-piece and cutting tool, it may be hazardous to the machine operator.



- d) If large and continuous coil is allowed to be formed it may endanger the machine and even the work place.
- e) Very large coil offers a lot of difficulty in their removal.

While machining materials like brass and cast-iron continuous chips of above type are not produced. But in case of continuous chips, by using chip breakers, we can overcome the above difficulties and adverse affects. The chip breakers break the produced chips in to small pieces. The work hardening of the material of the chip makes the work of the chip breakers easy.

The common methods used for chip breaking are:

- i) **By control of tool geometry** i.e. grinding proper back rake and side rake angles according to the speeds and feeds used.
- ii) **By obstruction method** i.e. by interposing a metallic obstruction in the path of the coil. The

following types of chip breakers are commonly used:

- a) **Groove type:** It consists of a grinding groove on the face of the tool, behind the cutting edge, leaving a small land near the tip.
- b) **Step type:** It consists of a grinding a step on the face of the tool, adjacent to the cutting edge.

c) **Secondary rake type:** It consists of providing a secondary rake on the tool, through grinding, together with a small step.

d) **Clamp type:** This type of chip breaker is very common with the carbide tipped tools. The chip breaker is a thin and small plate, which is either brazed to or held mechanically on the tool face.

Cutting Speed, Feed And Depth Of Cut:

Cutting speed of a tool can be defined as the rate at which its cutting edge passes over the surface of the work-piece in unit time. It is normally expressed in terms of surface speed in meters per minute.

In machining it is important as it considerably affects the tool life and efficiency of machining. Selection of proper cutting speed has to be made very judiciously. If it is too high, the tool gets over heated and its cutting edge may fail, needing regrinding. If it is too low, too much time is consumed in machining and full cutting capacities of the tool and machine are not utilized, resulting in lowering of productivity and increasing the production cost.

Feed of the cutting tool can be defined as the distance it travels along or in to the work-piece for each pass of its point through a perpendicular position in unit time. In turning operation of lathe, it is equal to the advancement of the tool corresponding to each revolution of work. In planning it is the work, which is fed and not the tool. In milling work, the feed is considered per tooth of the cutter.

The cutting speed and feed of a cutting tool is largely influenced by the following factors:

1. Material being machined.
2. Material of the cutting tool.
3. Geometry of the cutting tool.
4. Required degree of surface finish.
5. Rigidity of the machine tool being used
6. Type of coolant being used

Depth of cut: It is indicative of the penetration of the cutting edge of the tool in to the work-piece material in each pass, measured perpendicular to the machined surface i.e. it determines the thickness of metal layer removed by the cutting tool in one pass.

Example: In turning operation on a lathe it is given by

$$\text{Depth of cut} = \frac{D-d}{2}$$

Where D = Original diameter of the work-piece in mm

D = Diameter obtained after turning in mm in one pass.

Coolants: coolants are used in metal machining to perform the following main functions.

1. They cool the tool and the workpiece.
2. They provide lubrication between the tool and workpiece and tool and chips.
3. They prevent the adhesion of chips to the tool or workpiece or both.

Cooling of the tool and work piece is required in order to dissipate the heat generated during machining. The sources of heat generation during metal cutting are the following.

1 Friction: A lot of friction always takes place between the cutting tool and the work piece and between the tool face and the chips passing over it. The total amount of heat generated depends upon many factors viz. cutting speed, feed, tool material, depth of cut and metal being machined. The heat so generated is known as heat of friction.

2. Plastic deformation of metal: Cutting tool exerts high pressure on the adjacent metal grains which due to this pressure start slipping along their planes of weakness. This causes deformation of all of them. The action of slipping of these grains in contact with one another causes friction, leading to the generation of the heat of deformation. The total amount of heat generated again depends upon the cutting speed, feed, depth of cut and the metal being machined. Higher speeds, feeds, more depth of cut, tougher materials contribute to greater heat generation.

3. Chip distortion: In machining, as the cut proceeds and the chips curl out, the inside and the outside grain of the chip metal are subjected to compression and tension respectively. This causes distortion of the chip grains and the chips leading to a sort of internal friction amongst the grains and consequently generation of heat of chip distortion. The amount of heat generated depends on feeds and depth of cut. Heavier the feed and deeper the cut, the longer will be the area of cross-section of the chip and more distortion amongst the grains, resulting in higher amount of heat generation.

Machinability: Gives the idea of ease with which it can be machined. The parameters influencing the machinability of a material are:

1. Physical Properties of material.
2. Mechanical Properties of material.
3. Chemical composition of material.
4. Micro-Structure of material
5. Cutting conditions.

Machinability of the material depends on various variable factors such as

1. Tool Life: Longer tool life, it enables at a given cutting speed on the speed the better is the machinability.
2. Surface finish: It is indirectly proportional, i.e. better surface finish the higher in machinability.
3. Power Consumption: Lower power consumption per unit of metal removal - better machinability.
4. Cutting Forces: Lesser amount of cutting force required for removal of higher volume of metal under standard conditions, the higher will be the machinability.
5. Shear angle: Larger shear angle denotes better machinability.

6. Rate of metal removal under standard cutting conditions.

Tool Life:

Tool life can be defined on the time interval for each tool works satisfactorily between two successive grindings. These are three common ways of expressing Tool life.

1. As a time period in minutes between two successive grindings.
2. In terms of no. of components machined between two successive grindings.
3. In terms of the volume of the material removed between two successive grindings.

The method of assessing tool life in terms of the volume material removed per unit of time in a practical one.

$$\text{Volume of metal removed/min} = \pi D t f N \text{ mm}^3/\text{min}$$

Where D = Dia of work piece in mm

t = depth of cut in mm

f = feed rate mm/rev

N = no. of revolutions of work per min.

If T be the times in minutes to tool failure = $\frac{\pi D t f N T \text{ mm}^3}{V}$

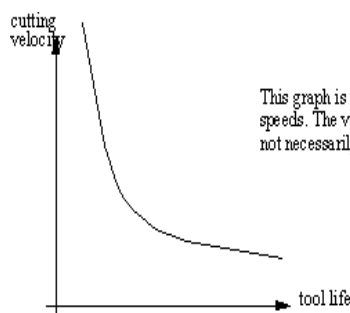
We know the cutting speed $V = \frac{\pi D N}{1000}$ $\pi D N = V * 1000$

Total Volume of metal removed to tool life = $V * 1000 t f T \text{ mm}^3$

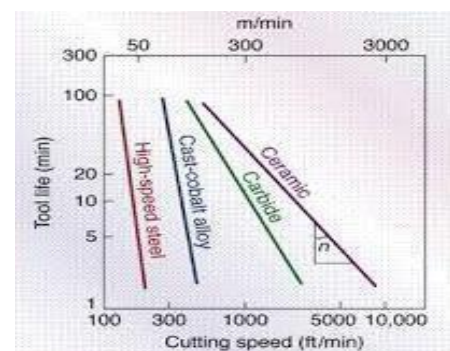
Therefore Tool life $T_L = \frac{V \times 1000 t f T \text{ (mm}^3\text{)}}{V}$

Factors affecting Tool Life:

1. Cutting Speed.
2. Feed and Depth of cut.
3. Tool Geometry.
4. Tool Material.
5. Work Material.
6. Nature of Cutting.
7. Rigidity of Machine tool and work.
8. Use of cutting fluids.



This graph is representative for most reasonable cutting speeds. The velocities at the high and low ranges do not necessarily exhibit the same relationship.



1. Effect of cutting speed:

The tool life varies inversely on cutting speed i.e. higher the cutting speed the smaller the tool life.

$$VT^n = C$$

V = Cutting speed m/min. T

= Tool life minutes.

n = An exponent – Its value depends on the tool material. C =

Machining Constant.

n = 0.1 to 0.15 HSS Tools

= 0.2 to 0.5 Carbide Tools

= 0.6 to 1.0 Ceramic Tools.

2. Effect of feed rate and depth of cut: It will appreciably effect in reduction into tool life.

$$V = \frac{257}{T^{0.19} f^{0.36} t^{0.8}} \text{ m/min}$$

V = Cutting Speed m/min T

= Tool Life in min

F = Feed rate mm/min

t = Depth of cut in mm

For a given Tool life

$$V = \frac{C}{f^a t^b}$$

C = Constant

If the tool life is considered on constant, the cutting speed will decrease if the feed rate and depth of cut are increased.

3. The Geometry: Geometrical parameters (Tool angles) of a cutting tool influence its performance. The Rake angle has mixed effect. If it is increased, the amount of heat generated are reduced and help in increasing the life of cutting tool. But if it is very large the cutting edge is weakened and also its capacity to conduct the heat is reduced results in reduction in mechanical strength and lowering tool life. For effective economical tool life it is necessary to strike a balance. The optimum value of rake angle needs to be used. This value varies from -5° to $+10^\circ$. The minus sign indicates negative rake i.e. rake angle sloping up words from Tip. Tools carrying negative rake angle provide a stronger cutting edge and hence a stronger tool. Carbide and ceramic tools are generally provided – ve angle.

Similarly relief angle or clearance angle bn influence the tool performance. These angles are provided on cutting tools to prevent the rubbing of tool flank against the machine work surface. They thus help in lowering the amount of heat generated and therefore increasing the tool life. But very large relief angles beyond certain level results in weakening of tool resulting in reduction of tool life.

Therefore a balance needs to be struck and only optimum value should be used. The angles normally vary from 5° to 8° but in special cases as carbide tipped tools up to 10° .

The two cutting edge angles also have their influence on tool performance. The front cutting edge angle/end cutting edge angle effects the tool wear. Up to a certain optimum value an increase in this angle permits the higher speeds without an adverse effect on tool life. But an increase beyond certain value will result in reduction of tool life. It generally varies from 5° to 8° . If the side cutting edge angle is smaller the higher speeds can be used. However it has complex effect on Tool life. A larger end cutting edge angle increases tool life.

- I. Inclination angle: Tool life increases with the increase in this angle up to an optimum value.
- II. Nose radius: While it increases the abrasion, it also helps in improving surface finish and tool strength and hence tool life.

4. Tool material: The main characteristics of good cutting tool material are its hot hardness, wear resistance, impact resistance, abrasion resistance, heat conductivity and strength etc. An ideal tool material is the one which will remove the largest volume of work material at all speeds. It is not possible to get truly ideal tool material. The tool material which can withstand max cutting temperature without losing its principal mechanical properties (sply hardness) and geometry will ensure max tool life. The higher hot hardness and toughness in tool material, the longer the tool life.

5. Work Material: The micro-structure of work material is significant as it directly effects the hardness of material. Higher the hardness of the work material greater will be the tool wear and shorter will be the tool life. In machining pure metals, because of their tendency to stick to the tool face. Specially at high temperatures results in more friction and high amount wear on tool and therefore shorter tool life.

6. Nature of cutting: Tool life is affected by nature of cutting i.e. whether it is continuous or intermittent. In the intermittent cutting the tool is subjected to impact loads and may give away much earlier than expected until it is made strong and tough. In continuous cutting similar tool will have relatively longer life.

7. Rigidity of machine tool and work : Both the machine tool and work – piece should remain rigid during the machining operation. If not vibrations will take place and the cutting tool will be subjected to intermittent cutting, instead of continuous cutting. This will result in impact loading of tool and therefore shorter life.

8. Use of cutting fluids: Cutting fluids are used in machining work for helping the efficient performance of the operation. They are used either in liquid or gaseous form. They assist the operation by cooling the tool and work, reducing the friction, improving the surface finish, helping in breaking the chips and washing them away etc. These factors help in improving the tool life, permitting higher metal removal rate and improving the quality of surface finish.

Characteristics Of Cutting Tool Materials:

The materials used for manufacture of cutting tools should possess the following characteristics:

1. Ability to retain its hardness at elevated temperatures called hot hardness.

2. Ability to resist shock, called toughness.
3. High resistance to wear to ensure long tool life.
4. Low coefficient of friction at the chip – tool interface, so that the surface finish is good and wear is minimum.
5. Should be cheap.
6. Should be able to be fabricated and shaped easily.
7. If it is to be used in the form of brazed tips, its other physical properties like tensile strength, thermal conductivity, coefficient of thermal expansion and modulus of elasticity etc. should be as close to the shank material as possible to avoid cracking.

Cutting Tool Materials

The following materials are commonly used for manufacturing the cutting tools, selection of a particular material will depend on the type of service it is expected to perform.

1. **High Carbon Steel:** Plain carbon steels having a carbon percentage as high as 1.5% are in common use as tool materials for general class of work. For high production work they are not considered as they are not able to withstand very high temperature, hence they can't be used at high speeds. The required hardness is lost by the material temperature 200^o- 250^o C. They are also not highly wear resistant. They are used mainly for hand tools as they are less costly, easily forgeable and easy to heat treat.

High carbon medium alloy steels are more effective than plain high carbon steels. These steels in addition to carbon content are provided better hot hardness, higher impact resistance, higher wear resistance by adding small amount of Tungsten, Chromium, Molybdenum, Vanadium etc. Which improves the performance and able to operate temperatures of 350^oC.

2. **High Speed Steel:** It is a special alloy-steel containing the alloying elements like Tungsten, Chromium, Vanadium, Cobalt and Molybdenum up to 25%. These alloying elements increase its strength, toughness, wear resistance, cutting ability and retains its hardness at elevated temperature of 550^oc -600^o c on account of these added properties the high speed steel tools are capable of operating at 2 to 3 times higher cutting speeds than high carbon steel tools.

The most commonly used high speed steel has compositional alloying elements as 18-4-1 i.e. 18%W, 4%Cr, and 1%V.

3. **Cemented Carbides:** These Carbides are formed by the mixture of Tungsten, Titanium with Carbon. The carbides in the powder form are mixed with Cobalt which acts as binder. The mixture with powder metallurgy process, sintered at high pressures of 1500kg/sq cm to 4000kg/sq cm and temperatures of above 1500^oC is shaped in to desired forms of tips. These Carbide tips are then brazed or fastened mechanically to the shank made of medium Carbon steel. These cemented carbides possess a very high degree of hardness and wear resistance. They are able to retain this hardness at temperature up to 1000^oC with the result, the tools tipped with cemented carbide tips are capable of operating at speeds 5 to 6 times higher than those of high speeds.

4. **Stellite:** It is a non ferrous alloy mainly of Cobalt, Tungsten and Chromium. Other elements added in varying proportions are Tantalum, Molybdenum and Boron. It has good shock and wear resistance and retains its hardness at a red heat up to 920°C. It is used for machining materials like hard bronzes, cast and malleable Iron etc. Tools made of Stellite are capable of operating at speed up to 2 times more than those of common high speed steel tools. Only grinding can be used for machining it effectively.

As a stellite may contain 40-50% Co, 15-35% Cr, 12-25% W and 1-4% Carbon.

5. **Ceramics:** The introduction of ceramic material as a cutting tool material is a latest development in the field of tool metallurgy. It mainly consists of Aluminum oxide which is comparatively much cheaper than any of the chief constituents of cemented Carbides. Boron nitrides in powdered form are added and mixed with Aluminum oxide powder and sintered together at a temperature of 1700°C. They are then compacted in to different tip shapes. Tools made of ceramic material are capable of withstanding high temperatures, without losing their hardness up to 1200°C. They are much more wear resistant than cemented carbide tools.

They are more brittle and low resistance to bending. They can't be used for rough machining work and mainly used for finishing operations. They are capable of removing 4 times more material than Tungsten carbide tools and 2-3 times high cutting speeds under similar conditions. No coolant is needed while machining with ceramic tools.

6. **Diamond:** It is the hardest material known and used as cutting tool material. It is brittle and low resistance to shock but it is highly wear resistant. Diamonds are used for only light cut on materials like Bakelite, Carbon, Plastics, Aluminum and Brass etc. Because of low coefficient of friction they produce a high grade of surface finish. Because of high cost only limited use in tool industry.

❖ Carbide Tips:

Q : What are the throw away carbide tips? What are their advantages? What are the basic requirements?

Throw away Carbide tips are made in a variety of shapes and vary in thickness from 3mm to 12mm and size from 10 to 15mm² (mm square). Proper arrangements in the form of holes etc are made to secure them on the tool holders.

Positive rake Carbide tips have 3 or 4 cutting edges, which are ground to produce 5 to 8° relief angle. These can be used individually before tip becomes unusable.

In negative rake Carbide tips, the relief angle is created by placing them suitably on the tool holder. These thus have the advantage of providing 6 to 8 usable edges, because all the edges are prepared at right angles. However the second side of the tip can be used only if the first side has not become rough due to wear as otherwise it can't be flat against the loading surface on the tool holder.

Throw away Carbide tips are quite cheap and as 4 to 6 edges can be used before it is thrown, there is lot of economy in using them.

The basic requirements of Carbide tips are: A pocket on the tool holder to locate the carbide tip positively and take the side longitudinal and end radial thrust from the cutting forces and also to ensure that new tip will cut to the same size.

- I. A solid seat for the bottom of the carbide tip to take the tangential force and also to ensure that new tip will cut to the same size.
- II. A clamp to hold the tip formally against the bottom of the pocket and it from being pulled out.

Chip Thickness Ratio:

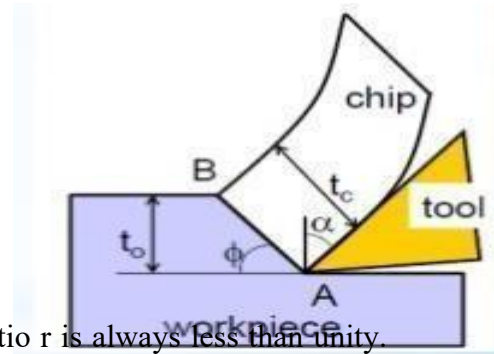
During cutting action of a metal, the thickness of the deformed or upward flowing chip is more than the actual depth of cut. It is because the chip flows upwards at a slower rate than the velocity of the cut. The velocity of the chip flow is directly affected the shear plane angle. The smaller the shear plane angle the slower will be the chip flow – velocity and therefore longer will be the thickness of the chip.

t = chip thickness prior to deformation

t_c = chip thickness after deformation

$t_c > t$, The chip thickness ratio =

$$\frac{t}{t_c}$$



Since t_c is always greater than t , the value of chip thickness ratio r is always less than unity. The higher the value of r , the better is supposed to be cutting action. The reverse of r is known as chip reduction coefficient. If k is the chip reduction coefficient

$$K = \frac{t}{t_c}$$

In orthogonal cutting the width of the chip equals the width of the cut. Considering specific gravity of the metal as constant, the volume of the chip produced will be equal to the volume of the metal cut. Width of both being equal, the product of the chip thickness and its length will, therefore be equal to the product of the thickness of the metal cut and length of metal cut. If L_1 and L_2 are lengths of the metal cut and chip respectively.

$$t \times L_1 = t_c \times L_2$$

$$\frac{t}{t_c} = \frac{L_2}{L_1} \quad \text{But} \quad \frac{t}{t_c} = r$$

$$r = \frac{L_2}{L_1} = \frac{t}{t_c} = \frac{L_2}{L_1}$$

$$k = \frac{1}{r} = \frac{t_c}{t} = \frac{L_1}{L_2}$$

We have two right angled triangles OAP and OBP

Considering the orthogonal triangle OAP

$$OP = \frac{AP}{\sin \phi} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\frac{AP}{OP} = \sin \phi \quad \frac{AP}{\sin \phi} = \frac{t}{\sin \phi}$$

Considering the right angled triangle OBP

$$\frac{BP}{OP} = \sin BOP = \sin(90 - \phi + \alpha) = \cos(\phi - \alpha)$$

$$OP = \frac{BP}{\cos(\phi - \alpha)} = \frac{t_c}{\cos(\phi - \alpha)} \quad \text{_____ (2)}$$

Now by equations (1)&(2)

$$OP = \frac{t}{\sin \phi} = \frac{t_c}{\cos(\phi - \alpha)}$$

$$\frac{t}{t_c} = \frac{\sin \phi}{\cos(\phi - \alpha)} \quad \text{i.e. } r = \frac{\sin \phi}{\cos(\phi - \alpha)} \quad \text{_____ (3)}$$

$$r = \frac{\sin \phi}{\cos \phi \cos \alpha + \sin \phi \sin \alpha}$$

$$r(\cos \phi \cos \alpha) + r(\sin \phi \sin \alpha) = \sin \phi$$

$$r \frac{\cos \phi \cos \alpha}{\sin \phi} + r \frac{\sin \phi \sin \alpha}{\sin \phi} = 1$$

$$r \frac{\cos \alpha}{\tan \phi} + r \sin \alpha = 1$$

$$r \frac{\cos \alpha}{\tan \phi} = 1 - r \sin \alpha$$

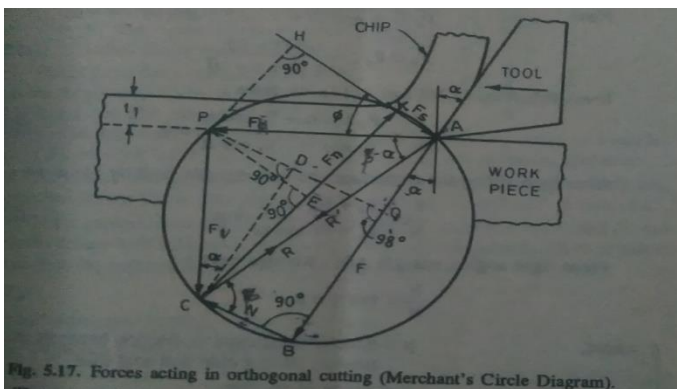
$$\tan \phi = \frac{r \cos \alpha}{1 - r \sin \alpha} \quad \text{_____ (4)}$$

$$\tan \phi = \frac{\frac{t}{t_c} \cos \alpha}{1 - \frac{t}{t_c} \sin \alpha} \quad \text{_____ (5)}$$

❖ Merchant's Force Diagram:

F_H = Horizontal cutting force exerted by the tool on workpiece.

F_V = Vertical or tangential force which helps in holding the tool in position and acts on tool



nose. Fig. 5.17. Forces acting in orthogonal cutting (Merchant's Circle Diagram).

Merchant force diagram

$$F = AQ - QB = AQ - DC = F_H \sin \alpha - F_V \cos \alpha \quad \text{_____ (1)}$$

$$N = QD = PQ - PD = F_H \cos \alpha - F_V \sin \alpha \quad \text{_____ (2)}$$

$$F_S = AH - HK = AH - PE \quad F_H \cos \phi - F_V \sin \phi$$

$$= F_V \cos \phi + F_H \sin \phi$$

$$N_H CE + EK = CE (\beta - \alpha) \quad = (\beta - \alpha)$$

$$= AC \cos(\phi + \beta - \alpha) R \cos$$

$$F_S = \frac{R_H \cos}{F_S} \frac{R \cos(\beta - \alpha)}{R \cos(\phi + \beta - \alpha)}$$

$$F_H = F_S \frac{\cos(\beta - \alpha)}{\cos(\phi + \beta - \alpha)}$$

The tool face components are important they enable the coefficient of friction for the tool face ($\mu = \tan \beta$) to be determined. β is the angle of friction at the flank surface.

$$\mu = \frac{F}{N} = \frac{F_A \sin \alpha + F_V \cos \alpha}{F_H \cos \alpha - F_V \sin \alpha} \frac{\cos \alpha}{\cos \alpha}$$

$$= \frac{F_H \tan \alpha + F_V}{F_H - F_V \tan \alpha}$$

μ is coefficient of friction between tool face and upward sliding chip.

$$\frac{F_V}{F_H} = \tan(\beta - \alpha)$$

F_V and F_H can be easily measured by strain gauges or forced dynamometers.

❖ Tool Signature

The term tool signature is used to denote a standardized system of specifying the principle tool angles of a single point cutting tool.

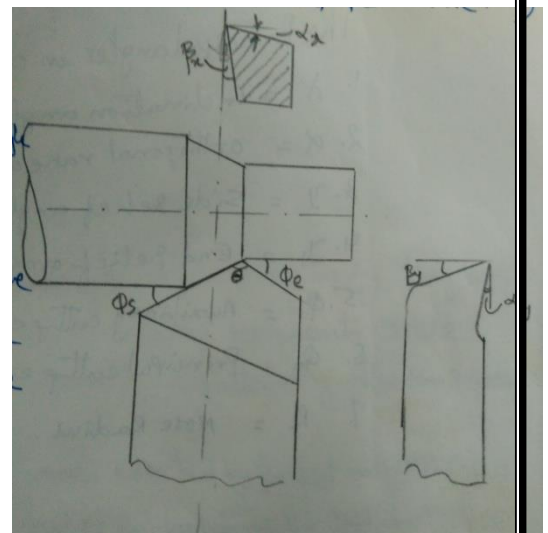
Some common systems are:

1. American (ASA) System.
2. British System.
3. Continental System.
4. International System.

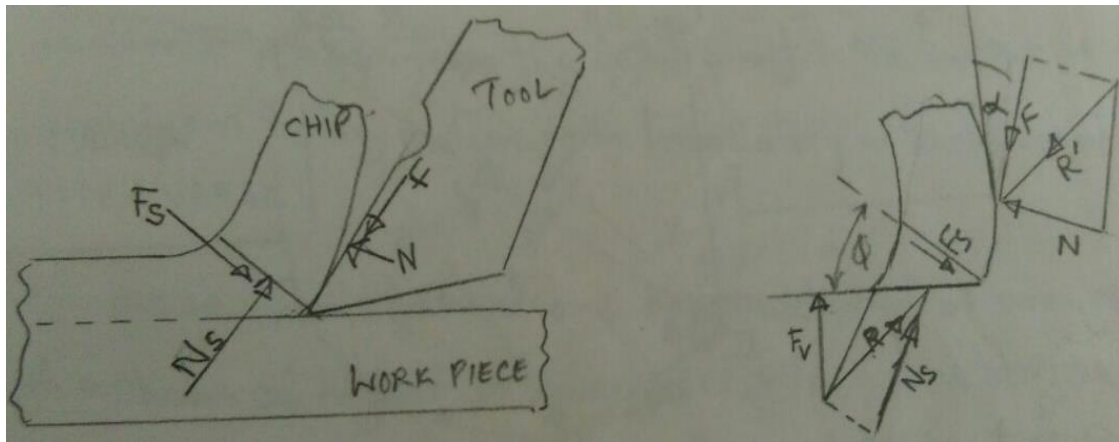
I. Reference Planes: The following two systems of reference planes are used to describe the geometry and locate the different parameters of a single point cutting tool.

1. The Co-Ordinate System: This system consists of three principal reference planes. The horizontal plane which contains the base of the shank of the cutting tool is known as

the **Base Plane**. The second reference plane is a vertical plane, normal to the base plane, and parallel to the direction of feed (f) of the cutting tool. It is called **Longitudinal Plane** (x, x^1). The third reference plane called the **Transverse Plane** (y, y^1) is perpendicular to both the above reference planes and is parallel to the transverse motion of the tool. i.e. the depth of cut (d).



A number of forces act on the chip during metal cutting. The relationship among these forces were established by Merchant.



The forces acting on the chip in orthogonal cutting are represented as follows. $F_s =$

Metal resistance to shear in chip formation, acting along shear plane.

$N_s =$ Backing up force exerted by the workpiece on the chip, acting normal to shear plane. $N =$

Force exerted by the tool on the chip, acting normal to tool face.

$F = \mu N =$ Frictional resistance of the tool against the chip flow, acting along the tool face. μ being the co-efficient of friction between tool face and chip.

$$\mu = \frac{F}{N}$$

It will be observed that F_s and N_s can be easily replaced by their resultant R and force F and N by their resultant R' . Thus all these forces are resolved to only two forces R and R' . For equilibrium, these forces R and R' should be equal, act opposite to each other and should be collinear i.e.

$$\vec{R}' = \vec{F} + \vec{N}$$

$$\vec{R} = \vec{F}_s + \vec{N}_s$$

$$= \vec{F}_H + \vec{F}_V$$

$$\vec{R} = \vec{R}'$$

The two triangles of forces of the above free body diagram have been combined together one called "Merchant Circle Diagram" of cutting forces in which the following new components figure.

$F_H =$ Horizontal cutting force exerted by the tool on work piece.

$F_V =$ Vertical force which helps in holding the tool in position and acts on the tool nose.

These two forces can be easily be found out with the help of strain gauges or

Forced dynamometers. The angle is also a known quantity.

α is the rake angle of the tool. ϕ also can be determined with the help of the equation

$\tan \phi = \frac{r \cos \alpha}{1 - r \sin \alpha}$. When all these four values i.e. F_H , F_V , α and ϕ are known, all other forces can be easily calculated with the help of merchant circle diagram.

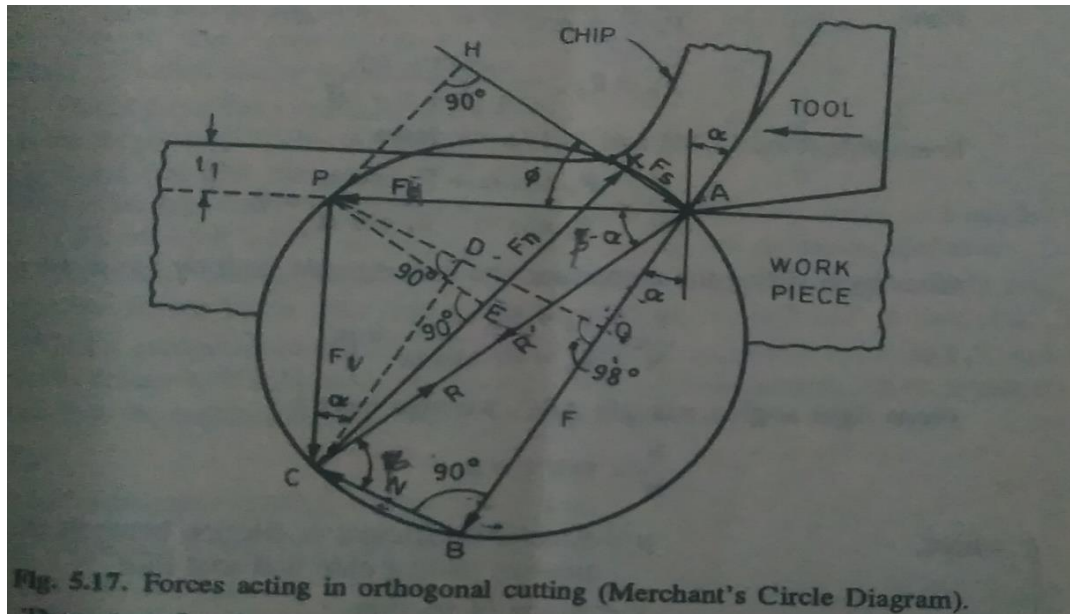


Fig. 5.17. Forces acting in orthogonal cutting (Merchant's Circle Diagram).

$$F = AQ + QB = AQ + DC = F_H \sin \alpha + F_V \cos \alpha \quad \text{_____ (1)}$$

$$N = QD = PQ - PD = F_H \cos \alpha - F_V \sin \alpha \quad \text{_____ (2)}$$

$$F_S = AH - HK = AH - PE = F_H \cos \phi - F_V \sin \phi \quad \text{_____ (3)}$$

$$N_S = CE + EK = CE + PH = F_V \cos \phi + F_H \sin \phi \quad \text{_____ (4)}$$

$$F_H = AC \cos(\beta - \alpha) = R \cos(\beta - \alpha) \quad \text{_____ (5)}$$

$$F_S = AC \cos(\beta + \alpha) = R \cos(\beta + \alpha) \quad \text{_____ (6)}$$

$$\frac{F_H}{F_S} = \frac{R \cos(\beta - \alpha)}{R \cos(\beta + \alpha)} \quad F_H = F_S \frac{\cos(\beta - \alpha)}{\cos(\beta + \alpha)} \quad \text{_____ (7)}$$

Equation (1) & (2) we have

$$\frac{F}{N} = \frac{F_H \sin \alpha + F_V \cos \alpha}{F_H \cos \alpha - F_V \sin \alpha} \frac{\cos \alpha}{\cos \alpha} = \frac{F_V + F_H \tan \alpha}{F_H - F_V \tan \alpha} \quad \text{_____ (8)}$$

$$\text{From } \triangle ABC \quad \frac{F}{N} = \tan \beta = \mu \quad \text{_____ (9)}$$

$$\beta = \tan^{-1} \frac{F}{N} = \tan^{-1} \mu$$

μ = Kinetic coefficient of friction between chip and tool face. β =

Angle of friction

$$\frac{C_P}{A_P} = \tan \alpha \quad \frac{F_V}{F_H} = \tan(\beta - \alpha)$$

Further _____(10)

❖ Kinematic Drives Of Machine Tools:

Every machine tool is required to perform one or both of the following functions kinematic functions:

1. To transmit motion from the input shaft to the output spindle.
2. To transform rotary motion into translator or reciprocating motion or vice-versa

These transformations in a machine tool are achieved through a chain higher or lower pairs, which consist of the machine tool drive or drive mechanism. The term “**Drive**” includes all the systems of the transmission used in a machine tool to impart cutting and feeding motions.

Types of Drives: Machine tool drives, based on different criteria, can be classified as follows:

1. According to the mode of power supply:
 - a) Individual Drive or Self-Contained Drive
 - b) Group Drive or Common Drive
2. According to the system of transmission:
 - a) Mechanical Drives – Belt & pulleys, Gear trains, Power Screws and nuts, Chain etc.
 - b) Electrical Drives
 - c) Hydraulic Drives
 - d) Pneumatic Drives
3. According to the type of motion imparted by the drive:
 - a) Rectilinear Drive – Straight line Motion.
 - b) Rotary Drive – Circular Motion.
4. According to the regulation of spindle speeds:
 - a) Stepped Drive.
 - b) Stepless Drive.

Selection of drive depends upon production time, surface finish and accuracy required, optimum efficiency, power to weight ratio, simplicity of design with respect to maintenance, repair and control.