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A study of machining parameters to optimize surface finish in metal cutting through CNC

S. Waseem H. Zaidi New Jersey Institute of Technology

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ABSTRACT

Title of Thesis: A study of machining parameters to optimize surface finish in metal cutting through CNC

S. Waseem H. Zaidi, Master of Science in Manufacturing Engineering, 1991

Thesis directed by: Dr. Nouri levy Associate Professor Department of Mechanical Engineering

The purpose of this thesis is to find the relationship between surface finish and machining parameters. A series of experiments have been performed at shop floor of NJIT, on MAZAK(CNC turning center), using two different cutting tool materials(high speed steel and cemented carbide) and a workpiece of Aluminium. The results have been then evaluated and analyzed to see the effects of various combinations of cutting conditions, that is, feed, speed, and depth of cut. Recommendations have been made on the basis of analysis to estimate the minimum and maximum values of surface roughness with respect to the cutting conditions for Aluminium using HSS tool and Carbide tool for a specific surface finish.

A STUDY OF MACHINING PARAMETERS TO OPTIMIZE SURFACE FINISH IN METAL CUTTING THROUGH CNC

by

S. Waseem H. Zaidi

Thesis submitted to the faculty of the Graduate School of the New Jersey Institute of Technology in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Manufacturing Engineering 1991

APPROVAL SHEET

Title of Thesis: A study of machining parameters to optimize surface finish in metal cutting through CNC

Name of Candidate: S. Waseem H. Zaidi Master of Science in Manufacturing Engineering, 1991

Thesis and Abstract Approved: Dr. Nouri Lew Date Dr. Nouri Lewy Associate Professor Department of Mechanical Engineering

> Dr. Rose Dios Date Associate Professor Department of Mathematics

Professor Steve Kotefski Date Assistant Professor Department of Manufacturing Engineering Technology

VITA

Name: S. Waseem H. Zaidi

Permanent Address:

Degree and date to be conferred: M.S.Mn.E., 1991

Date of birth:

Place of birth:

Major: Manufacturing Engineering

Dedicated to my parents

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INTRODUCTION

In manufacturing products, it is important that the processes involved be efficient and capable of producing parts of acceptable surface finish quality.

Improved surface finish is one of the major objectives in metal cutting. For high quality products surface quality is commonly specified along with dimensions.

A precise dimension usually means a good surface. The quality of a surface often determines how well a part performs. It is very important that metal cutting principles be well understood in order to have application to produce parts of acceptable surface finish quality. The surface finish of a part depends on many factors such as feed, speed, and depth of cut which are known as cutting conditions in metal cutting. The choice of the proper tool, feed, speed, and depth of cut is a compromise, since the faster a machine is operated the higher the efficiency of both operator and machine. Unfortunately, however, such accelerated use greatly shortens the life of the tool. The objective of this thesis is to study surface finish characteristics in order to determine how surface finish is affected by cutting conditions.

For this study a series of experiments was performed on the shop floor of NJIT. By varying the cutting conditions, surface roughness data was recorded and then was analyzed.

After the analysis of data, recommendations are given for cutting conditions relevant to specified tools and work material. The focus is upon **the** estimation of the minimum and maximum values of surface roughness measurements as determined by feed, speed, and depth of cut.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO METAL CUTTING

1. INTRODUCTION

The objective of this chapter is an introduction to the basic concepts of metal cutting theory. The importance of metal cutting may be realized by considering the total cost associated with this activity, including tool cost, labour cost, and cost of capital investment.

Today metal cutting is a very large segment of industry. The automobile industry, electrical engineering, railways, shipbuilding, aircraft manufacture, production of domestic equipment and the machine tool industry itself have large scale application of metal cutting [19].

Metal cutting is a very major industrial activity, employing tens of millions of people throughout the world. The wastefulness of turning so much metal into low grade scrap has directed attention to the methods of reducing this loss. Much effort has been devoted to the development of ways of shaping components in which metal losses are reduced to a minimum.

Progress in the technology of machining is achieved by the ingenuity and experiment, the intuition, logical thought of many thousands of practitioners engaged in many-sided arts of metal cutting[19]. The worker operating the machine, the tool designer, the lubrication engineer, the metallurgist, are all constantly probing to find answers to new problems

in the form of limitations on the speed, feed, and depth of cut to produce parts of good surface finish quality $[19]$. It is what happens in a very small volume of metal around the cutting edge that determines the performance of tool, the machineability of metals and alloys and the qualities of machined surface.

1.1 METAL CUTTING

Metal cutting commonly called machining, is the removal of the unwanted material from a workpiece in the form of chips so as to obtain a finished product of desired size, shape and finish [1]. Over the past eighty years, the process has been the object of considerable research and experimentation, which has lead to improved understanding of the nature of both the process itself and the surfaces which are produced by it [1]. The problem of getting specified surface finish is complicated by tool geometry variations, wide variety of tool materials used in the process, temperature or heat problems, and the great variations in operating condition of the machines performing this process [9].

Most of the machining is done with cutting tools. A cutting tool is a hardened piece of metal or other material, with a cutting edge that cuts the metal. Four things determine the way a machine tool cuts the metal and produces a desired surface roughness [14].

1. The kind of material in the workpiece.

2. The kind of material in the cutting tool.

3. The shape of the cutting tool.

4. The action of the cutting tool on the material being cut. The above factors determine the kind of chip that will be formed which is very important because The chips show that whether the cutting tool is correctly ground to shape and sharpness required for the job to obtain good surface finish.

1.2 OBJECTIVES IN METAL CUTTING

The purpose of machining by cutting is to give workpiece the desired shape and dimensions of necessary accuracy, as well as to ensure that the surface layer of the workpiece has the desired surface finish quality. This purpose should be achieved in a most economical way.

Therefore, the main objectives in the field of metal cutting are [12].

1. Reduction of material losses:

Reduction of material losses concerns both the machined material and the tools. In connection with this aim there arises the task of reducing the machining allowances to the limits of a theoretical minimum. Even minor improvements in productivity are of major importance in high volume production.

2. Improvement of the quality of the machined products:

This means in particular the attainment of the necessary accuracy of shape and dimensions, as well as the

optimization of the cutting cycle time and to produce products of greater useful life with good surface finish quality.

3. Raising of output and reduction of the labour:

This means an increase in the rate of production and production of greater number and variety of products and improvement of work safety **and** comfort. In particular, the task of automation belongs **here,** especially use of programcontrolled machining.

4. The widening of machining possibilities:

This requires the improvement of the machineability of materials and the development of new methods, ways and types of machining and improvement of the existing ones.

1.3 BASIC MACHINING DEFINITIONS AND CALCULATIONS

The three most widely used cutting operations are:

1.3.1 TURNING

This basic operation as shown in figure (1-a) is also the one most commonly employed in experimental work on metal cutting. The work material is held in the chuck of a lathe and rotated [8]. The tool is held rigidly in a tool post and moved at a constant rate along the axis of the bar, cutting away a layer of metal to form a cylinder or a surface of more complex profile.

1.3.2 **DRILLING**

Drilling produces a hole in an object by forcing a rotating drill against it as shown in figure (1-b). The same can be accomplished by holding the drill stationary and rotating the work, such as drilling on a lathe with the work held and rotated by a chuck [2].

1.3.3 **MILLING**

The milling operation as shown in figure (1-c) is a metal removal process using a tool with one or more teeth rotating about a fixed axis, each tooth removing material from work piece fed past the tool [2].

For each of the machining processes, there are certain parameters, called cutting conditions, that are used to control the process and to achieve the desired results. The parameters are called the speed, feed, and depth of cut and are shown in figure (1-d).

1.3.4 CUTTING SPEED

The cutting speed can be defined as the maximum linear speed between the tool and the work piece [1]. The cutting speed for drilling, and milling can be determined as a function of the work piece or tool diameter, D, and the rotational speed, N. It can be calculated by the following expression.

 $V = (D*D*N) /12$

Where

V = Speed, feet per minute

D = Diameter, inches (of cutter)

N = Rotational speed, RPM

Also in machining operations involving rotation (of tool or workpiece), feed expressed in in/rev might have to be

converted to feed rate in in/min. The feed rate can be calculated by the following expression

 $Fr = (N * f)$

where

 Fr = Feed rate in in/min

 $f =$ Feed in in/rev

1.3.5 DEPTH OF CUT

The depth of cut is determined by the width of the chip. During roughing operation, the depth of cut is usually much greater than for finishing operation. For turning operation, it is one half the difference between inner and outer diameter of the workpiece [2]. It can be calculated by the following expression.

 $A_D = (Do - Di)/2$

where

 A_p = Depth of cut

Do = Outer diameter, inches

Di = Inner diameter, inches

1.3.6 METAL REMOVAL RATE

It is a measurement of how fast material is removed from a workpiece. It can be calculated by multiplying the crosssectional area of the chip by the feed rate [3]. A large MRR produces a short processing time, and a low MRR yields a long processing time. How ever MRR also affects the tool life of a cutter. Its unit is cubic inches per minute.


```
For drilling the cross-sectional area of the chip is
(D*D^2)/4therefore,
MRR = (D*D^2/4) * (Fr)Where D = Drill diameterFr= Feed rate, in/min
Since
Fr = (f*N) and
N = (12*V) / (D*D) So
MRR = (D*D^2/4)*(f*N) = (D*D^2/4)*(f)*(12*V/D*D) = (3*D*f*V)For turning chip width is (Do - Di)/2the cross-sectional area is (D/4)*(Do^2-Di^2), so
MRR = 6(Do-Di) * (f*V)
```
1.3.7 MACHINING TIME

It is the total amount of time it takes to finish a workpiece. Machining time is a function of workpiece size, depth of cut, feed and speed. It can be calculated by dividing the tool path length by the feed rate. The tool path length is determined by the length of the workpiece, overtravel of tool for clearance, and number of passes required to clear the volume. For drilling, one pass turning and milling [3].

```
\texttt{Tm} = (\texttt{L+1}) / \texttt{Fr}
```
Where

 $Tm = Machining time, minutes$

- $L =$ Hole depth, inches
- $1 =$ Clearance height or over travel, inches

Fr= Feed rate, in/min

1.4 FUTURE TRENDS IN METAL CUTTING

With dramatic change **on both** factory floor and in purchasing, its a new challenge **out** there for distributors and manufacturers of metal **cutting** tools in metal cutting industry to produce parts of **good** surface finish quality[6]. The rush to automate and **improve** surface finish quality has pressed manufacturers to produce higher quality tools. This coupled with the trend in purchasing to reduce vendors, has led customers to sign on only with those manufacturers who have the technical expertise to excel in this mew environment [6]. Manufacturers who can meet the technical demands of metal cutting industry have a tremendous opportunity ahead of them.

1.5 ROLE OF TECHNOLOGY

Without question, technology is driving change in the metal cutting industry. The new CNC machine tools turn out increased production runs with more uniform surface finish quality, and these machines need better, more efficient cutting tools to achieve their potential and justify much higher purchase prices. CNC machining now allows automatic machining of parts. This leads to unmanned machine in a factory environment [4]. Under these circumstances, the metal cutting tools must be reliable and of consistent quality and dimensions, be able to run at higher speeds,

feeds and depth of cut while giving good surface finish quality.

CHAPTER 2

CUTTING TOOL MATERIALS

2. INTRODUCTION

In nearly all machining **operations,** cutting speed and feed are limited by the **capability of** the tool material. Chip formation involves high local stresses, sliding friction and abrasion, and considerable heat generation [1]. Speed and feed must be kept low enough to provide for a minimum acceptable tool life. If not, the time lost changing tools may cause a decrease in the productivity gains due to increased cutting speed. Today's machining centers have evolved into the most versatile and flexible of all metal cutting machines and the push to speed production cycles has also affected basic machine design [5]. Modern machines are moving toward ever higher spindle speeds and axis feed rates which require the cutting tools to be more reliable and perform well in a wide range of cutting conditions.

There are several characteristic that a satisfactory tool material must possess. These include:

2.1 HOT HARDNESS

The hardness of a material is a measure of its resistance to indentation, and is one of the most significant properties [11]. The hardness of the tool must be appreciably greater than that of the workpiece material to enable the tool to maintain its ability at the high temperatures developed at the tool/chip interface [12]. This item becomes increasingly important as the speed of the cutting operation is raised. Cutting tool material must **be** able to penetrate other materials.

2.2 WEAR RESISTANCE

The welding and strain hardening characteristics of the tool relative to those of **the metal cut** must be such that excessive wear does not occur in the operating range of the speed.

2.3 **LOW FRICTION**

The co-efficient of friction between the chip and the tool should be as low as possible in the operating range of the feed and speed [8]. This consideration is important not only from the standpoint of tool wear, but particularly with regard to surface finish.

2.4 TOUGHNESS

Toughness is also desirable to withstand shocks and resist fracture. Cutting tools must work upon many kinds of metals and under a variety of conditions. There is no single tool material which is best with regard to all of these considerations. The relative importance of each item will shift with [9]:

The nature of the product machined, the volume of production, type of machining operation (roughing or finishing, high or low speed etc.) the tool design details(cutting and clearance angles etc.), and physical characteristics of work material.

present day production or metal cutting demands on the machine tool. To accomplish **the** many conditions imposed upon them, a wide variety of tool materials have been developed. The best material to use for a certain job is the one that will produce the machined part at the lowest cost with desirable or less machine cycle tome. The principal materials used in metal cutting are as follows.

1. Carbon steels(or tool steels)

- 2. High speed steels
- 3. Cast tool alloys
- 4. Cemented carbides
- 5. Ceramics
- 6. Diamond

The cutting tool materials used in the experiments are high speed steel and cemented carbide. Therefore high speed steel and carbide are discussed below.

2.5 CARBIDE TOOLS

The evolution of cutting tool materials from one family to another has, with each succeeding development, made it possible to perform metal removal operations on harder workpiece materials at increasing speed. An advancement in metal cutting was introduced with the development of cemented carbides, also called sintered carbides or carbides which, again, made higher speeds possible and improved cutting efficiency [10]. Carbides are composed of very hard particles held together by a metallic bond. The primary ingredient is tungsten carbide in most commercial tools, but

it is often mixed with various amounts of tantalum, titanium, and columbium carbides to improve resistance to abrasion and lower the co-efficient of friction [1]. Cemented carbides have an initial high cost but are economical for machining parts in large quantities. Carbides are made in number of grades by varying the size and proportion of the carbide particles and the amount of binder. Carbides are classified by machining applications as C-1 through C-8 as shown in table 2-1 [10].

```
Table 2-1
```


Machining Applications of Cemented Carbides

The grade used in the experiments is C-3. Previously, most cutting tool materials, depended largely upon heat treatment for their properties which could be destroyed by further heat treatment. At higher speeds, and consequently high temperatures, these products failed [10].

However, cemented carbide cutting tool materials have different(and inherent) hardness properties. Carbide is harder than most other tool materials at room temperatures and can retain its hardness at higher temperatures so that faster cutting speed can be withstood [1]. Higher operating speed is probably the most dramatic contribution of the cemented carbides to a machining operation, but they also allow machining of harder materials. Because of these desirable characteristics, the carbides have assumed an important role in the metal cutting industry.

2.5.1 TUNGSTEN CARBIDES

The term "tungsten carbide" describes a comprehensive family of hard carbide compositions used for metal cutting tools. In general, these materials are composed of the carbides of tungsten, titanium, or tantalum(or some combination of these), sintered or cemented in a matrix binder, usually Cobalt. As cutting tool materials, the tungsten carbide base materials can be separated into two types. First, and most common, is the simple two-phase type consisting of tungsten carbide with a cobalt binder (WC-Co) which falls into the C-1 through C-4 categories [10]. If the metal removal operation causes tool wear primarily by abrasion, the twophase type is most effective because it is characterized by extreme hardness and excellent resistance to abrasive wear. On the other hand, if the workpiece material causes tool wear primarily by cratering the rake face, the alloyed grades C-5 through C-8 must be used [10]. In these grades,

WC-Co is alloyed with additional carbide, usually tantalum carbide (TaC), titanium carbide (TiC), or both. This additional alloying delays crater development on the top face of the tool. The effects of composition on the properties of cemented carbides may be summarized as follows [10]:

1) Increasing Co content contributes to lower wear resistance, lower hot hardness, lower thermal deformation, and lower crater resistance. Higher Co content does, however, increase strength.

2) TIC increases the wear resistance, hot hardness, resistance to thermal resistance, but decreases the strength.

3) TaC increases the hot hardness, resistance to thermal deformation, and crater resistance. however, it decreases wear resistance and strength.

Other properties of cemented carbides are

2.5.2 IMPACT STRENGTH

Imact strength values for cemented carbides are another indication of their resistance to mechanical shocks. Almost a linear relationship exists between impact strength and Co content; the greater the Co content, the greater the impact strength [1].

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2.5.3 MODULAS OF ELASTICITY

The modulas of elasticity (or resistance to bending under load) of cemented carbide alloys is extremely high, two to three times that of steel [11]. This property is of prime importance which contribute to the success of WC-Co as a cutting tool material. Because **of** its high elastic modulas, deflection under cutting loads is minimized. This property makes carbide useful in tool shanks or tool holders.

2.5.4 COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH

The carbides are characterized by extremely high compressive strength values. As with other properties, this property is influenced most by cobalt content, and increases with increasing Co content in the lower ranges to a maximum at approximately 4 percent cobalt by weight, then decreases with additional amounts of cobalt [8].

2.5.5 THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY

The thermal conductivity of cemented carbides is high, two or three times that of high speed steel

2.6 HIGH SPEED STEEL TOOL

The introduction of high speed steel made possible, a significant increase in machining speeds, which accounts for its name. However, today high speed steel is general material for use in machining operations. The chief characteristics of these steels is superior hot hardness and wear resistance [9]. The first tool steel that would hold its cutting edge to almost a red heat was developed by Fred
W. Taylor and white in 1900 [12]. This was accomplished by adding 18% tungsten and 5.5% chromium to steel as the principal alloying elements [12]. Present-day practice in manufacturing high-speed steels still uses these two elements in nearly the same percentage. Other alloying elements are vanadium, molybdenum, and cobalt [10]. The high speed steel used in the experiments is super high speed steel which has cobalt added to high speed steel in amounts ranging from 2 to 15 percent, since this element increases the cutting efficiency, especially at high temperatures.

2.7 FUTURE TECHNOLOGY

The cutting tool materials in use today are the result of significant advances in materials technology. Within a period of less than 50 years, commercial cutting tools have evolved from carbon tool steels through high speed steels, cast cobalt-base alloys, and cemented carbides to ceramics [23]. The materials in each of these categories have been steadily improved by modifying compositions and by optimizing processing techniques. Improvements of these commercial products continue, and research and development groups are exploring entirely new classes of tool materials at an accelerated pace.

Several factors are responsible for the development of advanced tool systems [10]:

1. Good surface finish quality is being used as a marketing strategy nowadays, which has resulted in the customer

becoming more conscious of quality. Most of the companies realize that one of the keys to a high quality is good surface finish. Quality is so important to the customer today that product sales can be hurt on the basis of customer's perception of quality alone. Even the best machine tools can not alone make every unit exactly the same. Better surface finishes can be followed by new cutting tools offering lower cost, better performance, or both. Thus the luxury of improved surface quality soon becomes the necessity which has become one of the major business advantage.

2. The increasing widespread use of the automated machine tools and systems which require a high degree of reliability and longer tool life.

2.8 HI-TECH CUTTING TOOL REQUIREMENTS

Research activities on the next generation of tool materials are guided by knowledge of the extreme conditions of stress and temperature produced at the tool/workpiece **interface. Pressure in excess of 100,000 psi and temperatures above 2000 o F are generated during the more severe cutting operations** [10]. **Tool wear proceeds by one or more complex mechanisms which include abrasive wear, mechanical chipping of the cutting edge, thermal cracking, plastic deformation, oxidation, and indiffusion between tool and workpiece. Since most of these wearing processes are greatly accelerated by increased temperatures, the more obvious requirements for**

new tool materials are improvements in physical, mechanical, and chemical properties at elevated temperatures [12]. Today's cutting tool materials encompass a wide range of properties. The high speed steels possess bend strengths in excess of 600,000 psi., but they become very soft at temperatures above 1200 F [10]. Ceramic tools retain useful hardness at temperatures above 1700 F but their bend strength (at room temperature) is less than 100,000 psi [10]. In order to develop tools capable of withstanding more severe rough cuts, the tougher types of tool materials(high speed steels) must have considerably greater hot hardness with loss of strength at elevated temperatures. The harder types of tool alloys(cemented carbides and ceramics) will require greatly increased toughness, or a significant improvement in mechanical properties at elevated temperatures, to increase effectively the cutting efficiency. It appears that such improvements can not be obtained by minor modifications of tool alloy compositions. Instead, major changes in alloy chemistry and entirely new compositions along with nonconventional processing methods are being explored in order to achieve a major breakthrough.

CHAPTER 3

SURFACE FINISH

3. INTRODUCTION

Table 3-1 shows a turning operation from the point of view of a system. Here a number of inputs are listed together with important internal items and outputs. The outputs are most important since they represent the end goal of the operation. The integrity of the machined surface is frequently one of the most important outputs [8]. Surface integrity is a term that involves surface roughness which is very important for machining operations. The growing influence of surface roughness can be traced to dramatic changes in manufacturing specifications and tolerances over the past few decades. The ability to measure and control surface roughness is assuming ever-greater importance in today's machining operations, not only in terms of part quality but in many other aspects as well. Surface finish affects how a part fits and wears, how it reflects light, transmits heat, distribute a lubricant or accepts a coating [13]. On mating parts, all surface irregularities have significant and prolonged effect on wear and performance. The classic case is the piston and cylinder in which imperfect surfaces can cause the mating parts to heat up, bind and freeze, possibly even explode [13]. Where a surface finish is important, a finishing operation is usually

involved. In addition to surface roughness, other kinds of deviations from a perfectly **smooth** surface can occur. These deviations are called surface flaws and waviness as shown in figure (3-a). Surface flaws are widely separated irregularities that occur at random over the surface. They may be scratches, cracks, or similar flaws. Waviness is a form of regular deviation **where** the wavelength is greater than a specified magnitude(usually about lmm) [8]. Roughness is a finer irregularity than waviness. A further term used in surface measurement is lay. The lay of a surface is the direction of the predominant surface pattern and is usually determined by the machining method used to produce the surface. Measurements of a surface are made at

right angles to the lay.

TABLE 3-1

Inputs, Outputs, and internal items in the machining system when metal are cut.

3.1 SURFACE ROUGHNESS

The surface roughness obtained during a practical machining operation may be considered as the sum of two independent effects [22].

1. The " Ideal " surface roughness, which is the result of the geometry of the tool and feed or speed.

2. The " Natural" surface roughness, which is a result of the irregularities in the cutting operation.

3.1.1 IDEAL SURFACE ROUGHNESS

The ideal surface roughness represents the best possible finish which may be obtained for a given tool shape, feed, speed and depth of cut and can only be approached if builtup edge, inaccuracies in machine tool movement etc. are eliminated.

3.1.2 NATURAL SURFACE ROUGHNESS

Natural surface roughness forms a large portion of the actual roughness. One of the main factors contributing to natural surface roughness is the occurrence of a built-up edge [22]. The built-up edge may be continuously building-up and breaking down, the fractured particles being carried away on the under-surface of the chip and on the new workpiece surface. Thus it would be expected that the larger the buildup edge, the rougher would be the surface produced, and factors tending to reduce chip tool friction and to eliminate or reduce the build-up edge would give improved surface finish. Such factors would therefore be, the

application of the correct **cutting** fluid, a change from HSS tool material to cemented **carbide etc.**

Other factors which commonly contribute to natural surface roughness in practice are [20]:

1. Vibration of the machine **tool.**

2. Irregularities in the feed mechanism.

3. Defects in the structure **of the** workpiece material.

4. Discontinuous chip formation when machining brittle materials.

5. Surface damage caused by chip flow etc.

Thus a good surface finish is affected by many variables in turning which are type of chip formation, friction, cutting fluids, vibrations, tool geometry, round nose tools, and most important are the cutting conditions, that is speeds, feeds, and depth of cut. The above factors are discussed below:

3.2 TYPES OF CHIP FORMATION

Before discussing the affect of type of chip formation on surface roughness it is necessary to describe the kinds of chips and what build-up edge is.

3.2.1 CHIPS

Chips are a waste product of the cutting process. The surface finish in machining operations will depend on the type of chip formation also, therefore the types of chips have been discussed ahead.

The main objective of machining is the shaping of new work surface. Therefore, much attention is paid to the formation of chip. The consumption of energy occurs mainly in the formation and movement of chip, and for this reason, the main practical problems concerned with rate of metal removal and tool performance, can be understood only by studying the behavior of the work material as it is formed into the chip and moves over the tool [1]. Chip features characterize the machineability of the materials and determine the difficulty involved in their removal. Therefore it is better to understand also that what machineability is, which has been discussed later in this chapter.

3.2.2 CHIPS CLASSIFICATION

The chips resulted from metal cutting as shown in figure (3 b) are of three kinds:

3.2.2.1 DISCONTINUOUS(BROKEN) CHIPS

These are also called splintering chips. Brittle metal like iron or hard bronze produces small chips, each one separate from the previous one. The metal compresses in front of the cutting edge of the tool until it breaks away and the chip leaves the face of the tool [18]. This happens over and over again as long as the cutting goes on. Discontinuous chip formation can cause cracks to extend into the finished work surface and create force fluctuations which deflect the tool, forming ridges on the machined surface [21]. This type of chip formation can also cause vibrations which affect the surface finish.

3.2.2.2 CONTINUOUS CHIPS

These are also called ribbon chips or uniform chips. Metal is compressed in front of cutting edge. Then the metal begins to escape as a continuous (unbroken) chip. There is no build-up in front of the cutting edge. This is the ideal chip on ductile materials. In general continuous chips is the most desirable, since steady cutting conditions prevail, with little or no force fluctuations and their associated difficulties [18]. To a certain extent the Discontinuous chip can be changed to continuous chip by increasing the rake angle or using cutting fluids [12].

3.2.2.3 CONTINUOUS CHIP WITH **BUILT- UP EDGE**

Next to the tool face, first, the metal directly in front of the cutting tool becomes compressed. Soon the chip begins to form and flow away. Then small particles of metal from the workpiece anchor or lodge on the very point of the cutting tool. AS the compressed metal on the cutting edge builds up, this edge becomes larger and larger. Thus a build up edge is produced [14]. Finally this edge breaks away from the cutting tool. The fragments from the build up edge are torn off and escape with both the chip and the workpiece. This type of chip leads to similar problems as that faced by discontinuous chip since some of the fragments attach themselves to the workpiece itself, the surface becomes rough. This action goes on all the time while the cutting takes place. Soft or mild steel usually forms a continuous

chip with build up edge when machined with high speed cutting tools [9].

3.3 FRICTION

Friction is the resisting force one surface experiences when it slides over another. The friction between chip, face of the cutting tool, and lubrication of this interface is of considerable importance in metal cutting. The surface finish of a machined surface is improved when the co-efficient of friction is decreased. This is due to decreased tendency to form a build-up edge as the cutting forces and the strain in the chip are decreased, both of which result when the coefficient of friction is decreased [12]. In general friction may be reduced by:

1. Improved tool finish and sharpness of the cutting edge 2. Use of the low friction work or tool materials

3. Improved tool geometry

4. Use of cutting fluid

3.4 CUTTING FLUIDS

Liquids and Gases that are used in cutting operations are broadly referred to as cutting fluids. Cutting fluids, usually in the form of a liquid, are applied to the chip formation zone to improve the cutting conditions. The two most important ways in which a fluid can act are as a coolant and as a lubricant. Most practical cutting fluids have a mineral or vegetable-oil base, mineral oil being the more widely used. Some of these oils are made to be applied as an emulsion with water(water miscible cutting fluids), the remainder are used neat(undiluted with water) either plain or having various additives such sulphur, chlorine, or phosphorus [21]. In general the oil-and-water emulsions are used where the cooling action **is** most important requirement because these emulsions have **a** much larger heat conducting capacity than neat oils [22]. Neat oils are used when the lubrication action is most important consideration(at low speed cutting operations).

14.1 LUBRICATION IN METAL CUTTING

Under certain conditions the application of a lubricant to the cutting process can result in a reduction in friction on the tool face; this reduction of friction on the tool face can cause a reduction in power consumption, an increase in tool life, and, most important, an improvement in the surface finish of the machined component by reducing the build-up edge [12].

To be useful, a cutting fluid must assist in achieving these objectives [19]:

- 1. Increasing tool life
- 2. Improving the surface finish
- 3. Reducing the cutting forces

4. Reducing the distortion due to temperature rise in the workpiece

5. Facilitating the removal of chips

33

Usually the first two are considered the major reasons for applying the cutting fluid. The other three factors are not as important as the first two, how ever, in certain operations any one of these latter three can be of prime importance. For example, the finish on a component may be ruined because the chips are jamming around the tool. By driving these away with a jet of fluid, the finish may be made acceptable. The fluid used in the experiments is heavy duty water soluble oil WS5050. WS5050 is a multi purpose heavy duty, soluble oil formulated for the machining of all metals, especially high nickle alloys, Zinc, Aluminium, and stainless steel. Its ingredient are

- 1. Mineral oil
- 2. Emulsifier
- 3. Extreme pressure additives
- 4. Rust inhibitors
- 5. Anti foam agent
- 6. Bacteriacide
- 7. Fragrance and dye

3.5 VIBRATIONS

An important practical problem in metal cutting is vibration or "chatter." Chatter has three main adverse effects [18]: 1. It may produce imperfections on the work surface 2. It may increase the rate of wear of the tool 3. It may cause a high frequency sound at best is unpleasant and can be physically harmful to nearby personnel.

The principal causes of vibration are [20]:

- 1. Improper gear meshing.
- 2. Dynamic unbalance of rotating parts.
- 3. Bearing imperfections.
- 4. Faulty electrical or hydraulic controls.
- 5. looseness in slides and **screws.**
- 6. lack of rigidity.

Analysis of vibration in machining is not a simple matter. The machine tool, the cutting tool, and the workpiece form a complex system [17]. The vibration will involve the relative movement of the tool and the workpiece. Workpiece can move in almost any direction relative to the tool. Under vibrating conditions there may be fluctuations in

- 1. The cutting speed
- 2. Feed

3. Depth of cut

4. The inclination of the tool face to the workpiece surface(i.e fluctuations in the rake angles, clearance angles, cutting edge angles are possible).

The fluctuations in above parameters can cause a change in surface finish quality.

3.6 TOOL GEOMETRY

The role that a side and end cutting angles have upon the theoretical surface finish of a machined surface is shown in figure (3-c). Here, the maximum amplitude of surface roughness (h) is seen to be a function of feed, and the angles Cs and Ce as follows [17]

 $h = f/tanCs + cotCe$

Where Cs and Ce are side and end cutting edge angles respectively. Thus theoretical surface finish increases linearly with feed and decreases with increased Cs or decreased Ce.

3.7 ROUND NOSE TOOLS

Nose radius of the cutting tool also affect the surface finish. When a large nose radius is present, it will influence the surface roughness. In figure (3-d) a tool is shown with such a large nose radius that all cutting occurs on the curved surface. For this case we have to a good approximation [18].

$$
h = f^2/8r
$$

for center line average(CLA), the roughness in this case is $h = f^2/(31.177*r)$

This above expression clearly shows that for a given feed, the surface imperfections decrease with increased nose radius. Thus nose radius play an important role in controlling the surface finish. The above expression gives the ideal surface finish values which can only occur when satisfactory cutting conditions are achieved. A nose radius is needed in all tools to strengthen the tool point. It is considered good practice to increase the radius as the depth of cut is increased, and a nose radius that is about 10% of depth of cut conforms to accepted practice [12].

3.8 MACHINEABILITY

Machineability is a term that is often used and seldom fully explained. Initially it was thought that machineability was a property of the work material which in turn depended on other physical properties such as the hardness. The search for this material property which would indicate how machinable a material is, **has** eluded investigators for years. Therefore, a simple and accurate definition of this property has not evolved, and a unit of machineability is not available [15]. It is generally accepted that machineability is mainly concerned with assessing work materials. A material has good machineability if the tool wear is low or the tool life is long, the surface finish produced is good and the cutting forces are low. Further more, ease of chip disposal and good dimensional accuracy are also considered important. Hence, basically machineability is measured in three ways [20]:

1. Tool life

2. Surface quality of finished work

3. The cutting power required

The above are the machineability factors, and while machineability is not a mathematical equation, it is thought of as the combined result of these three factors.

Improvement of machining conditions and machineability requires analysis and understanding of the elements which enter into machining process. While machineability is divided into three measurable factors, the machining process, too, can be analyzed in terms of three major elements [19].

1. The behavior of the work material in cutting, that is, the ease or difficulty with which the chip is removed from the workpiece.

2. Operating characteristic **of the** machine tool.

3. The performance of the cutting tool itself, that is, the amount of wear on the cutting edge of the tool during cutting.

The workpiece material used in the experiments is Aluminium and its machineability characteristics are discussed below:

3.8.1 MACHINEABILITY OF ALUMINIUM

Alloys of Aluminium in general also rate highly in the machineability table by most of the criteria. In general, tool forces when cutting Aluminium alloys are low, and tend to decrease slightly as the cutting speed is raised, high forces occur, how ever, when cutting commercially pure Aluminium, particularly at low speeds. In general most Aluminium alloys, both cast and wrought, are easier to machine than pure Aluminium, inspite of its low shear strength [19]

A build-up edge is not present when cutting commercially pure Aluminium, but the surface finish tends to be poor except at very high cutting speed. The main machineability problems with Aluminium are in controlling the chips. Extensive plastic deformation before fracture occurs more readily with Aluminium [15]. **The** excellent machineability of Aluminium alloys in general **makes** them ideal work materials to be shaped in automated **machine** tools [23]. Completely automated production of certain classes of shapes can be introduced with confidence because long tool life and consistent performance can **be** guaranteed even at high rates of metal removal [19].

CHAPTER 4

DESIGN OF EXPERIMENTS

4. INTRODUCTION

Experimental studies have provided the momentum that has resulted in most of the major scientific developments throughout history. The efforts to determine the effect of cutting conditions on surface finish have been done with the help of data obtained after the experiments. The data obtained has been used to generate equations with the help of which optimization of surface finish measurements has been done as determined by feed, speed, and depth of cut. In this age of multimillion-dollars space probes, the value of the experimental development has been adequately demonstrated. Therefore most engineering graduates become involved with experimental programs in their positions with industry. Thus, the importance of a complete understanding of experimental analysis can not be over-emphasized. All of the technological knowledge gained by experiments performed at shop floor of NJIT is profitable because it has resulted a workable product, that is, knowledge of surface roughness values estimation.

4.1 EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS

Experimental analysis is **a** program in which physical phenomena are evaluated. **It is** advantageous to consider experimental analysis in three parts [25].

1. Design and execution of the experiment

2. Design of the measurement **system**

3. Analysis of the data obtained

The design of the experiment was the first step for experimental analysis of experiments performed at shop floor of NJIT, because, the attainment of experimental goal was possible only if a well-thought-out initial design of experiments was developed. To be effective in any situation the problem being considered was clearly defined. Time spent in this effort was never wasted, If I had been uninformed I would have not been able to make contribution to the solution of the problem not understood. Once the problem was well defined, a complete search of the technical literature was made to develop a good technical background in the problem area. Finally the program parameters or variables, to be controlled, were considered.

4.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The problem or the objective of this thesis is the study of the effects of various combinations of cutting conditions on surface finish. An incomplete problem statement almost always results in an unsatisfactory solution.Therefore the overall problem was explicit, that is, the estimation of

surface roughness values. The problem should define the ultimate goal sought and understanding the overall problem was essential if maximum effort towards its solution was to be realized. Any work without **an** ultimate goal is usually wasted. The ultimate goal of the experiments performed is the estimatiom of surface roughness measurements as determined by different cutting conditions.

4.3 ASSIMILATION OF TECHNICAL KNOWLEDGE

It was possible to solve the problem more easily and rapidly after the technical knowledge in the area of the problem had been developed. Most research began with a review of the literature associated with the problem being studied. Since I did not have a broad enough background on metal cutting to work on the problem, I had to search through lot of literature. This helped to develop my background in this area.

4.4 SELECTING THE CONTROL PARAMETERS

In any experimental program, all variables or parameters affecting the experiment should be listed. Then, the variables can be divided into classes of those that are to be maintained constant for a particular test and those that may vary [25]. In selecting the parameters to be controlled, it is important to include all variables that significantly affect the test being performed. The factors which affect the surface roughness are:

1. Speed 2. Feed 3. Depth of cut

4. Cutting fluid 5. Tool geometry 6. Workpiece material 7. Tool material

The first three variables are very important and they affect the surface finish significantly and can be controlled with very short time lost in change overs on "MAZAK" (CNC turning center). The other variables are also important but they are small factors and need time for changeovers which can result a reduction in production rate. Therefore these variables were kept constant. The three values, selected for each of the independent variables, that is, cutting conditions, were chosen to be extreme values so that the effect of these values is noticeable.

4.5 DESIGN OF EXPERIMENTS

The three independent variables selected are feed, speed, and depth of cut and the dependent variable is surface finish. By changing the independent variables, that is, feed, speed, and depth of cut, an Aluminium workpiece was turned on "MAZAK" (CNC turning center) at shop floor of NJIT and the corresponding surface roughness was measured. The three values selected for each independent variables are aiven below.

 $N1 = 500$ RPM which gives $S1 = 392.50$ **SFPM** $N2 = 2000$ RPM which gives $S2 = 1570.80$ **SFPM** $N3 = 3500$ RPM which gives $S3 = 2748.89$ **SFPM** $feed = f1 = 0.001 in/rev$ $feed = f2 = 0.0025 in/rev$ $feed = f3 = 0.004 in/rev$

Depth of $cut = A1 = 0.002$ in Depth of $cut = A2 = 0.025$ in Depth of $cut = A3 = 0.048$ in

The number of experiments **performed** were (3*3*3) since the number of independent **variables** is three and each independent variable has **three** values. The twenty seven combinations for the above **independent** variables with their measured average surfaced **roughness** have been tabulated in reduced form in table 4-B. **The** sample size for each experiment is five which means (27*5=135) measurements were done using one type of tool material and one workpiece material that is, high speed steel and Aluminium which have been tabulated in table 4-A. The same experiments were conducted again with same cutting conditions except that the cutting tool material was changed to cemented carbide and the resulting data was tabulated in tables 4-C and in reduced form in table 4-D. Table 4-E shows the comparison of surface roughness obtained, with 27 combinations, using high speed steel and Carbide tool. The data to be analyzed have been tabulated in 54 tables from 1 to 54 which are enclosed in appendix for reference.

4.6 MEASUREMENT SYSTEM

The measurement system used for measuring the surface roughness after performing the experiments was Surfometer (available in material and processing lab of NJIT) which is a direct reading instrument for measuring the surface roughness. It is basically a stylus instrument that traverses a surface to be measured with a diamond stylus,

SURFACE MEASURING SYSTEMS

using the transducers to convert the vertical motion of the stylus into recorded traces. It includes a PDA amplifier, a model PDD motor drive, model PDK tracer with SMT skidmount, and a type PDL linkarm.

1. The PDA amplifier digital **meter** indicates the Ra average roughness height in microinches or micrometers. Ra or arithmetic average(AA) roughness is obtained by measuring the mean deviation of the peaks from the center line of a trace, the center line being established as the line above and below which there is an equal area between the center line and the surface trace.

2. The Pdd motor drive moves the tracer across the surface at the constant 0.3 in/sec. tracing speed.

3. The PDK tracer, with a 0.0004 inch diamond stylus, follow the surface irregularities and converts the vertical motion of the stylus to an electrical signal which is processed by a PDA amplifier.

4. The PDL linkarm connects the tracer to the PDD motor drive and is used to adjust the vertical height with respect to the surface being measured.

4.6.1 SET-UP AND OPERATION

Proper set-up procedure for the Surfometer is just as important as a working knowledge of its operation. There are certain steps which, if followed in proper sequence, make it easy to obtain accurate surface measurement readings [29].

1. Place the Surfometer equipment on a workbench isolated as much as possible from vibrating machinery and away from strong magnetic field(transformers, generators etc.)

2. Remove all accessories from storage compartment in rear of amplifier.

3. Install post in threaded hole at end of the motor drive ram and tighten with small, **flat** open end wrench.

4. Place PDL linkarm on post to approximately half way position and tighten locking thumbscrew.

5. Install tracer on linkarm and tighten threaded locking ring.

6. Attach tracer cord to linkarm and in proper receptacle at rear of PDA amplifier. Plug the amplifier and motor drive into A.0 outlet.

7. Push amplifier power switch on. This completes the basic set-up.

4.6.2 AMPLIFIER CONTROLS

Before actually operating the Surfometer, it is necessary to be familiarized with pushbutton selections [29].

1. There are four range selections: 200 & 2000 microinch and 2 & 20 micrometer.

2. There are three cutoff selections: 0.010 inch, 0.03 inch, and 0.1 inch (0.25, 0.76, & 2.54 milimeters). The ANSI standard states that 0.03 inch cutoff is assumed unless otherwise specified.

3. The set-up/read switch: In the set-up position the digits are constantly changing as the roughness average changes. In the read position the average roughness value computed over one inch of length is displayed for a minimum of 2.5 seconds and then the meter blanks out for four seconds.

4.6.3 PUSHBUTTON SELECTION & READING THE METER

1. When reading the **roughness** values greater than 100 microinches it is recommended that the 2000 range is used. 2. When reading roughness values greater than 1.5 micrometers, use the 20 range.

3. Always use the 0.03 in cutoff unless otherwise specified. 4. The set-up/read switch should be in the set-up position when initial set-up is performed. After the PDD motor drive has been turned on, switch to read position.

5. Averaging starts at the beginning of the forward stroke. When the motor drive is turned off during the forward stroke, the reading will be reset to zero within 9 seconds. When it is shut off during the backward stroke, The reading will be retained until the next measurement is taken.

4.7 EXECUTION OF THE EXPERIMENTS

After all the planning of the experimental program was completed, the measurement system was selected, that is Surfometer as explained above. Then the experiments were performed on "MAZAK" (CNC turning center) at shop floor of NJIT and the resulting data was evaluated. The selection of the measurement system included all considerations necessary to establish an accurate value for the parameter to be measured. Measured values are meaningful only when they are properly collected and evaluated and it is always important to keep the measurement system as simple as possible while still accomplishing the required job.

TABLE 4-A

R = Roughness, Y = Average Roughness D = Standard Deviation, Unit = Micro inches

TABLE 4-B

* Note that the combination of independent variables in tenth measurement gives the best surface finish that is least surface roughness using HSS tool and Aluminium as the work piece material.

CARBIDE TOOL

TABLE 4-C

R = Roughness, Y = Average Roughness D = Standard Deviation, Unit = Micro inches

TABLE 4-D

* Note that the combination of independent variables in tenth measurement gives the better surface finish with same metal removal rate than using HSS tool and Aluminium as the work piece material.

TABLE 4-E

R1 = Average surface roughness using high speed tool R2 = Average surface roughne**ss usin**g carbide tool
MRR = Metal Removal Rate (in³/min) Unit of average surface roughness = micro inches

Comparison of average surface roughness obtained corresponding to same cutting conditions using HSS tool and

Carbide tool.
4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is the basic vehicle by which the experimental program has been evaluated. This evaluation is necessary to determine if the complete analytical process of the total experiment results in a correct decision-making process. Our conclusions are based on the final analysis of the data with the help of a multivariate regression model, implemented through a software package, namely, Statistical Analysis for Engineers, a Computer-Based Approach (SAE).

4.8.1 MULTIVARIATE REGRESSION MODEL

Since a single independent variable is inadequate to describe the behavior of dependent variable, that is, surface roughness, a multivariate regression model has been chosen in which a dependent variable Y, surface roughness, has been described as a function of three independent variables, which are, feed, speed, and depth of cut. For this purpose Y , $X1$, $X2$, $X3$ is the notation for the above variables. It is our premise that variable Y can be predicted by means of polynomial estimation via the independent variables Xl, X2, X3. The multivariate regression model is sequential. Initially, polynomial estimates are utilized to obtain optimization points for each triad (X1, X2, X3). Finally, these optimization points are utilized to establish an optimization plane in which all three independent variables X1, X2, X3 contribute to the estimated Y, that is, surface roughness, which is being

Optimized. The initial phase of polynomial regression, done

\nseparately for each Xi, is based upon the model

\n
$$
Y = Bo + B1(X) + B2(X)^2 + B3(X)^3 + ---Bn(X)^n \qquad (a)
$$

\nwhere

Bo, B1, B2, ---- Bn are regression coefficients

To simplify the process we initially choose to limit the polynomial to a quadratic approximation. The polynomial may be expanded later on if the confidence levels of our estimation process are not adequate. The SAE program afore mentioned was used to perform regression analysis on a set of data consisting of 15 observations of 3 input variables, that is, Xi, $(Xi)^2$, and Y for $i = 1, 2, 3$

The quadratic model, in general form, can be expressed as $Y = BO + B1(X) + B2(X)^{2}$ (b)

In equation (b) differentiating Y with respect to X and then equating it to zero, we obtain

 $Y = B1 + 2(B2)X = 0$ (c)

 $X = -B1/2(B2)$ (d)

Now in equation c differentiating Y with respect to X, we obtain

 $y' = 2(B2)$ (e)

which shows that for maximum surface roughness B2 must be negative which then quarantees χ to be negative.

Hence

when B2 is negative, we observe maximum value of surface roughness; and when B2 is positive, we observe minimum

value. Now for each independent variable, equation (b) can be expressed as

where

 $Yi = Surface roughness, X1 = Speed, X2 = Feed$ $X3 = Depth of cut$

The values of the regression coefficients, [along with their respective confidence level(a confidence level is the probability of avoiding a type I error; a type I error occurs when we conclude that a particular estimation polynomial is valid when it is not) have been determined by repeated application of SAE to 54 sets of data. The values of the regression coefficients have then been utilized in equations f, q, and h, to generate 54 optimization points which are then divided into two sets of 27 points each for two types of tool materials, that is, experimental data associated with High Speed Steel in set 1; and experimental data associated with Carbide tool in set 2. Each set of 27 $points(X1, X2,$ $X3$, $Y)$ has been used to create an optimization plane. This plane serves as \mathbf{a} linear approximation(that is, first degree Taylor series) to the true optimization function. We then have as our conclusion equations which predict surface roughness critical two points, one for the High Speed Steel and the second for the Carbide tool.

4.8.2 THE MATHEMATICAL MODEL

Given a set of predictor variables X1, X2, -------, X_k , we may use classical regression analysis to estimate the dependent variable Y. A variety of approaches are possible. It is possible to estimate Y by a single predictor variable if all other predictors are held constant. Moreover, this estimation may be linear, quadratic, or a higher degree polynomial function.

Hence

 $Y = f(X1, ---X_k)$

may be estimated by $Y = f(X_i)$

if $X1$, --------, X_{i-1} , X_{i+1} , -----, X_k

are all held constant.

and in addition

 $Y = f(X_1) = Bo + B1(X_1) + B2(X_1)^2 + --- --- B_j(X_1)^j$ where our choice for $j = 1, 2, 3,$ -------is based upon prescribed confidence levels in conjunction with the available sample size for the predictor variable X_i . In this study, we are searching for critical points. A linear regression model would yield maximum and minimum values at the end points of the domain of X_i .

 $f(a)$ = minimum value of $f(X_i)$

 $f(b)$ = minimum value of $f(X_i)$

where

$$
f(X_i) = Y = Bo + B1(X_i)
$$

Since we seek critical points within the domain, we extend the estimate to a parabolic (quadratic function) model. Thus

 $f(X_i) = Bo + B1(X_i) + B2(X_i)^2$

and clearly the critical point is obtained by setting

$$
f'(X_{\mathbf{i}}) = 0
$$

Furthermore, maximum and minimum values may be distinguished by looking at the value of $f(x_i)$. We see that $f(X_i) = B1 + 2(B2) (X_i)$

$$
\tilde{f}(X_1) = 2(B2)
$$

and hence (X_i) critical = - B1/2(B2)

and $B2 > 0$ (minimum)

 $B2 < 0$ (maximum)

 $B2 = 0$ (quadratic regression is not a plausible approach for the available data set).

These quadratic regressions were performed for X1, X2, X3 separately using SAE to identify the values of the regression coefficients (Bo, B1, B2). In most cases, the confidence level associated with these quadratic curve-fits was quite adequate and hence higher order models (i.e., $j >$ 3) were not required.

By comparing the actual values of critical points

 (X_i) critical = $-B1/2(B2)$

and ascertaining that each of these was in the appropriate domain, 2 sets of critical points were generated consisting of 27 points for Carbide tool and 27 points for high speed steel tool as shown in table 55 and 56.

```
Y = BO + B1(X3) + B2(X3)^{2}Optimum Value of X3 = -B1/2(B2)X1 = 392.51. Bo = 11.45B1 = -140.548 X2 = 0.001B2 = 2854.440C.L = 91Y = 11.45 + (-140.548)X3 + 2854.44(X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.0246Optimum value = Y = 9.722. Bo = 10.321X1 = 392.5B1 = 160.831X2 = 0.0025B2 = -2251.405C.L = 98.1Y = 10.321 + (160.831)X3 + (-2251.405) (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.0357Optimum value = Y = 13.1933. \text{Bo} = 10.958X1 = 392.5B1 = 782.098X2 = 0.004B2 = -9598.492C.L = 99.99%Y = 10.958 + (782.098) X3 + (-9598.492) (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.0407Optimum value = Y = 26.894. Bo = 9.444X1 = 1570.8B1 = -3.989X2 = 0.001B2 = 888.468C.L = 88.46%Y = 9.444 + (-3.989)X3 + (888.468) (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.0022Optimum value = Y = 9.448X1 = 1570.85. Bo = 10.81B1 = 159.603X2 = 0.0025B2 = -2400.754C.L = 99.56Y = 10.81 + (159.603) X3 + (-2400.754) (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.033Optimum value = Y = 13.461
```
HIGH SPEED STEEL TOOL

```
pQ = 10.42<br>B1 = 652.836
                     X1 = 1570.8<br>X2 = 0.0046. Bo = 10.42B2 = -6317.593C.L = 99.99%Y = 10.42 + (652.836)X3 + (-6317.593) (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.05Optimum value = Y = 27.267. Bo = 10.414X1 = 2748.89B1 = 53.743X2 = 0.001B2 = -283.553C.L = 90.7%Y = 10.414 + (53.743)X3 + (-6317.593) (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.0947Optimum value = Y = 12.968. Bo = 9.937X1 = 2748.89B1 = 238.091X2 = 0.0025B2 = -2196.598C.L = 99.97%Y = 9.937 + (238.091)X3 + (-2196.598) (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.0542Optimum value = Y = 16.389. Bo = 10.519X1 = 2748.89B1 = 736.957X2 = 0.004B2 = -8260.879C.L = 99.99%Y = 10.519 + (736.957) X3 + (-8260.879) (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.0446
```

```
Optimum value = Y = 26.95
```

```
Y = BO + B1(X2) + B2(X2)^{2}Optimum Value of X2 = -B1/2(B2)10. Bo = 12.864X1 = 392.5B1 = -2182.242X3 = 0.002B2 = 4.9E+05C.L = 58.9%Y = 12.864 + (-2182.242)X2 + 4.9E+05(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0044Optimum value = Y = 12.7411. Bo = 11.96X1 = 392.5B1 = -4202.73X3 = 0.025B2 = 1.96E+06C.L = 99.99Y = 11.96 + (-4202.73)X2 + 1.96E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.001Optimum value = Y = 9.7212. Bo = 16.862X1 = 392.5B1 = -8204.528X3 = 0.048B2 = 2.62E+06C.L = 99.99%Y = 16.862 + (-8204.528) X2 + 2.62E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0031Optimum value = Y = 16.613. Bo = 7.709X1 = 1570.8B1 = 1975.566X3 = 0.002B2 = -2.44E+05C.L = 94.1Y = 7.709 + (1975.566) X2 - 2.44E+05(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.004Optimum value = Y = 11.714 \quad Bo = 11.018X1 = 1570.8B1 = -2471.609X2 = 0.025B2 = 1.35E+06C.L = 99.99%Y = 11.018 + (-2471.609) X2 + 1.35E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0009Optimum value = Y = 9.88
```
15. Bo = 17.218 $X1 = 1570.8$ $\overline{B1} = -8722.321$ $X3 = 0.048$ $B2 = 2.8E+06$ $C.L = 99.99$ $Y = 17.218 + (-8722.321) X2 + 2.8E+06(X2)^{2}$ Optimummum value = $X2 = 0.0015$ Optimummum value = $Y = 10.42$ $X1 = 2748.89$ 16. Bo = 11.462 $B1 = -1297.791$ $X2 = 0.002$ $B2 = 3.56E+05$ $C.L = 85.1%$ $Y = 11.462 + (-1297.791) X2 + 3.56E+05(X2)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X2 = 0.0018$ Optimum value = $Y = 10.28$ $17.$ Bo = 13.074 $X1 = 2748.89$ $B1 = -2884.517$ $X3 = 0.025$ $B2 = 1.39E+06$ $C.L = 99.99$ $Y = 13.074 (-2884.517) X2 + 1.39E+06(X2)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X2 = 0.001$ Optimum value = $Y = 11.58$ 18. Bo = 13.362 $X1 = 2748.89$ $B1 = -2497.861$ $X3 = 0.048$ $B2 = 1.48E+06$ $C.L = 99.99$ $Y = 13.362 (-2497.861) X2 + 1.48E+06 (X2)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X2 = 0.0008$

Optimum value = $Y = 12.31$

 $Y = BO + B1(X1) + B2(X1)^{2}$ Optimum Value of $X1 = -B1/2(B2)$ 19. Bo = 12.386 $X2 = 0.001$ $B1 = -0.003$ $X3 = 0.002$ $B2 = 1.02E+(-06)$ $C.L = 92.27$ $Y = 12.386 + (-0.003) X1 + 1.02E - 06(X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 1470.588$ Optimum value = $Y = 10.18$ 20. Bo = 9.993 $X2 = 0.001$ $B1 = -0.000908$ $X3 = 0.025$ $B2 = 5.40E+(-07)$ $C.L = 90.08$ $Y = 9.993 + (-0.000908) X1 + 5.40E-07(X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 840.74$ Optimum value = $Y = 9.606$ 21. Bo = 11.5 $X2 = 0.001$ $B1 = -7.04E+(-04)$ $X3 = 0.048$ $B2 = 3.67E+(-07)$ $C.L = 68.3%$ $Y = 11.5 + (-7.04E-04)X1 + 3.67E-07(X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 959.12$ Optimum value = $Y = 11.16$ 22. Bo = 10.036 $X2 = 0.0025$ $B1 = 0.001$ $X3 = 0.002$ $B2 = -4.6E+(-07)$ $C.L = 22.99%$ $Y = 10.036 + (0.001) X1 - 4.6E-07 (X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 1086.9$ Optimum value = $Y = 10.58$ 23. Bo = 14.231 $X2 = 0.0025$ $B1 = -0.002$ $X3 = 0.025$ $B2 = 6.02E+(-07)$ $C.L = 70.0$ $Y = 14.231 + (-0.002) X1 + 6.02E - 07 (X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 1661.11$ Optimum value = $Y = 12.57$

```
X2 = 0.002524. Bo = 13.384
   B1 = -0.002X3 = 0.048B2 = 1.15E+(-06)C.L = 99.9%Y = 13.384 + (-0.002) X1 + 1.15E-06 (X1)^{2}Optimum value = X1 = 869.56Optimum value = Y = 12.5125. Bo = 12.38X2 = 0.004X3 = 0.002B1 = -8.06E - 04B2 = 2.38E+(-07)C.L = 7.0%Y = 12.38 + (-8.06E - 04) X1 + 2.38E + (-07) (X1)^{2}Optimum value = X1 = 1861.34Optimum value = Y = 11.726. Bo = 28.63X2 = 0.004B1 = -8.006X3 = 0.025B2 = 1.62E+(-06)C.L = 99.27.08Y = 28.38 + (-8.006) X1 + 1.62E+(-06) (X1)^{2}Optimum value = X1 = 1851.85Optimum value = Y = 22.8227. Bo = 25.14X2 = 0.004B1 = 8.002X3 = 0.048B2 = -5.94E+(-07)C.L = 54.0%Y = 25.14 + (0.002) X1 - 5.94E+(-07) (X1)^{2}Optimum value = X1 = 1683.5Optimum value = y = 26.82
```

```
CARBIBE TOOL
Y = BO + B1(X3) + B2(X3)^{2}Optimum Value of X3 = -B1/2(B2)1. Bo = 5.562X1 = 392.5B1 = 50.168X2 = 0.001B2 = -96.408C.L = 89.7%Y = 5.562 + (50.168)X3 - 96.408(X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.26Optimum value = Y = 12.082. Bo = 6.998X1 = 392.5B1 = 38.372X2 = 0.0025B2 = -190.925C.L = 70.71%
   Y = 6.998 + (38.372) X3 - 190.925 (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.1Optimum value = Y = 8.923. \text{Bo} = 18.67X1 = 392.5B1 = -169.414X2 = 0.004B2 = 2657.844C.L = 99.5%Y = 18.67 + (-169.414)X3 + 2657.844 (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.0318Optimum value = Y = 15.974. Bo = 7.46X1 = 1570.8B1 = -15.59X2 = 0.001B2 = 190.926C.L = 7.0Y = 7.46 + (-15.59) X3 + 190.926 (X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.0408Optimum value = Y = 7.145. Bo = 7.952X1 = 1570.8B1 = 100.794X2 = 0.0025B2 = -2328.921C.L = 91.63Y = 7.952 + (100.794)X3 - 2328.921(X3)^{2}Optimum value = X3 = 0.0216Optimum value = Y = 9.04
```
- 6. Bo = 17.893
B1 = -75.752
 $X1 = 1570.8$
 $X2 = 0.004$ $B2 = 731.566$ $C.L = 92.52$ $Y = 17.893 + (-75.752)X3 + 731.566(X3)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X3 = 0.0517$ Optimum value = $Y = 15.93$
- $7. \text{Bo} = 9.041$ $X1 = 2748.89$ $B1 = -111.904$ $X2 = 0.001$ $B2 = 1291.114$ $C.L = 99.89%$ $Y = 9.041 + (-111.904)X3 + 1291.114(X3)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X3 = 0.0433$ Optimum value = $Y = 6.61$
- 8. Bo = 9.996 $X1 = 2748.89$ $B1 = -98.611$ $X2 = 0.0025$ $B2 = 1185.255$ $C.L = 98.35%$ $Y = 9.996 + (-98.611)X3 + 1185.255(X3)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X3 = 0.0416$ Optimum value = $Y = 7.94$
- 9. Bo = 18.52 $X1 = 2748.89$ $B1 = -172.499$ $X2 = 0.004$ $B2 = 2211.719$ $C.L = 99.9%$ $Y = 18.52 + (-172.499)X3 + 2211.719(X3)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X3 = 0.0389$ Optimum value = $Y = 15.15$

```
Y = BO + B1(X2) + B2(X2)^{2}Optimum Value of X2 = -B1/2(B2)10. Bo = 10.196X1 = 395.2B1 = -6724.538X3 = 0.002B2 = 2.19E+06C.L = 99.99%Y = 10.196 + (-6724.538) X2 + 2.19E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0015Optimum value = Y = 5.0311. Bo = 10.021X1 = 392.5X3 = 0.025B1 = -4860.053B2 = 1.59E+06C.L = 99.99Y = 10.021 + (-4860.053) X2 + 1.59E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0015Optimum value = Y = 6.3112. Bo = 11.541X1 = 392.5X3 = 0.048B1 = -5484.285B2 = 1.69E+06C. L = 99.99%Y = 11.541 + (-5484.285) X2 + 1.69E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0016Optimum value = Y = 7.0813. Bo = 11.891X1 = 1570.8B1 = -6435.414X3 = 0.002B2 = 1.97E+06C.L = 99.99%Y = 11.891 + (-6435.414) X2 + 1.97E+06 (X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0016Optimum value = Y = 6.6314. Bo = 9.092X1 = 1570.8B1 = -3149.154X3 = 0.025B2 = 1.25E+06C.L = 99.99Y = 9.092 + (-3149.154) X2 + 1.25E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0012Optimum value = Y = 7.11
```

```
15. Bo = 11.552X1 = 1570.8B1 = -6232.287X2 = 0.048B2 = 1.83E+06C.L = 99.99Y = 11.552 + (-6232.287) X2 + 1.83E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0017Optimum value = Y = 6.2416. Bo = 12.277X1 = 2748.89
```

```
B1 = -5099.371X3 = 0.002B2 = 1.64E+06C.L = 99.99Y = 12.277 + (-5099.371) X2 + 1.64E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0015Optimum value = Y = 8.32
```

```
17. Bo = 9.622X1 = 2748.89B1 = -3926.717X3 = 0.025B2 = 1.35E+06C.L = 99.99%Y = 9.622 + (-3926.717)X2 + 1.35E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0014Optimum value = Y = 6.77
```

```
18. Bo = 9.1X1 = 2748.89B1 = -3777.83X3 = 0.048B2 = 1.33E+06C.L = 99.99Y = 9.1 + (-3777.83) X2 + 1.33E+06(X2)^{2}Optimum value = X2 = 0.0014Optimum value = Y = 6.41
```
 $Y = BO + B1(X1) + B2(X1)^{2}$ Optimum Value of $X1 = -B1/2(B2)$ 19. Bo = 4.99 $X2 = 0.001$ $B1 = 0.002$ $X3 = 0.002$ $B2 = -1.35E+(-07)$ $C.L = 99.99%$ $Y = 4.99 + (0.002) X1 - 1.35E-07 (X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 7407.4$ Optimum value = $Y = 12.39$ 20. Bo = 6.484 $X2 = 0.001$ $B1 = 7.74E+-04$ $X3 = 0.025$ $B2 = -2.07E+(-07)$ $C.L = 17.5%$ $Y = 6.484 + (7.74E-04)X1 - 2.87E-07(X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 1869.56$ Optimum value = $Y = 6.93$ 21. Bo = 7.966 $X2 = 0.001$ $B1 = -5.68E+-04$ $X3 = 0.048$ $B2 = 3.17E+(-08)$ $C.L = 43.91%$ $Y = 7.966 + (-5.68E-04) X1 + 3.17E-08 (X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 8958.99$ Optimum value = $Y = 5.42$ 22. Bo = 6.849 $X2 = 0.0025$ $B1 = 4.91E + -04$ $x3 = 0.002$ $B2 = 2.13E+(-07)$ $C.L = 99.99$ $Y = 6.849 + (4.91E-04)X1 + 2.13E-07(X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 1152.58$ Optimum value = $Y = 6.56$ 23. Bo = 7.026 $X2 = 0.0025$ $X3 = 0.025$ $B1 = 0.002$ $B2 = -6.91E+(-07)$ $C.L = 62.33%$ $Y = 7.026 + (0.002) X1 - 6.91 E-07 (X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 1447.178$ Optimum value = $Y = 5.57$

24. Bo = 9.068 $X2 = 0.0025$ $B1 = -0.002$ $X3 = 0.048$ $B2 = 5.57E+(-07)$ $C.L = 49.58$ $Y = 9.068 + (-0.002)X1 + 5.57 E-07(X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 1795.33$ Optimum value = $Y = 7.27$

- 25. Bo = 18.772 $X2 = 0.004$ $B1 = -0.001$ $X3 = 0.002$ $B2 = 3.74E+(-07)$ $C.L = 22.68%$ $Y = 18.772 + (-0.001) X1 + 3.74E-07 (X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 1336.89$ Optimum value = $Y = 18.1$
- 26. Bo = 15.704 $X2 = 0.004$ $B1 = 0.001$ $X3 = 0.025$ $B2 = -4.42E+(-07)$ $C.L = 81.8%$ $Y = 15.704 + (0.001) X1 - 4.42E-07 (X1)^{2}$ Optimum value = $X1 = 2066.11$ Optimum value = $Y = 15.52$

```
27. Bo = 16.927X2 = 0.004B1 = -6.92E - 04X3 = 0.048B2 = 4.10E+(-08)C.L = 91.79Y = 16.927 + (-6.92E - 04) X1 + 4.1E - 08 (X1)^{2}Optimum value = X1 = 8439.0Optimum value = y = 14.0
```
4.9 A DISCUSSION OF OPTIMIZATION PLANES

Without separating the critical points into a set of maximum values of surface roughness and a set of minimum values as well, we proceed to a linear curve fit for the composite model, as shown

 $Y = f(X1, X2, X3) = Bo + B1(X1) + B2(X2) + B3(X3)$

A linear model was sufficient since its curve fitting process yielded a reasonably high confidence level value. Thus we obtained 2 optimization planes(one for Carbide tool and the other for High Speed Steel).

A further analysis was performed in which the nature of the critical point was of issue. This led us to produce separate maximization and minimization planes for both Carbide tool and for High Speed Steel tool. A similar linear regression was performed on the sorted data and the results follow in tables 57, 58, 59, and 60.

HIGH SPEED STEEL

TABLE 55 When B2 = Positive = + ; Surface roughness = Minimum When B2 = Negative = - ; Surface roughness = Maximum SET X1 X2 X3 Y B2 1 392.5 0.001 0.025 9.720 + 2 392.5 0.0025 0.036 13.193 - 3 392.5 0.0040 0.041 26.890 - 4 1570.8 0.0010 0.002 9.448 + 5 1570.8 0.0025 0.033 13.461 - 6 1570.8 0.0040 0.050 27.260 - 7 2748.89 0.0010 0.095 12.960 - 8 2748.89 0.0025 0.054 16.380 - 9 2748.89 0.004 0.045 26.950 -
10 392.5 0.004 0.002 12.740 + 10 392.5 0.004 0.002 12.740 + 11 392.5 0.001 0.025 9.720 + 12 392.5 0.003 0.048 16.600 + 13 1570.8 0.004 0.002 11.700 - 14 1579.8 0.0009 0.025 9.880 + 15 1570.8 0.002 0.048 10.420 + 16 2748.89 0.002 0.002 10.280 + 17 2748.89 0.001 0.025 11.580 + 18 2748.89 0.0008 0.048 12.310 + 19 1470.588 0.001 0.002 10.180 + 20 840.74 0.001 0.025 9.606 + 21 959.12 0.001 0.048 11.160 + 22 1086.90 0.0025 0.002 10.580 - 23 1661.11 0.0025 0.025 12.570 + 24 869.56 0.0025 0.048 12.510 + 25 1861.34 0.004 0.002 11.700 + 26 1851.85 0.004 0.025 22.820 + 27 1683.50 0.004 0.048 26.820 -

CARBIDE TOOL

4.9.1 RESULTING OPTIMIZATION PLANES

The optimization planes for Hss tool and carbide tool are: 4.9.2 High Speed Steel tool Ycritical = Bo + B1(X1) + B2(X2) + B3(X3) Ycritical = $1.811 + 0.000676$ (X1) + 3442.44 (X2) + 113.94 (X3) Confidence level = $99.99%$ for example, if we choose $X1 = 900$ $X2 = 0.0018$ $X3 = 0.03$ then we estimate that Ycritical = $1.811+0.000676(900)+3442.44(0.0018)+113.94(0.03)$ 4.9.3 Carbide tool Ycritical = Bo + B1(X1) + B2(X2) + B3(X3) Ycritical = $1.846 + 0.000253(X1) + 2818.823(X2) + 19.039(X3)$ $confidence level = 99.99%$ Note that Bo is almost the same for both planes. This means that for (X1, X2, X3) all very small, the surface roughness is about the same. A possible explanation for the close values of Bo is that an external effect (which constitutes a confounding variable) such as an initial vibration is present for both Carbide tool and High Speed Steel tool during the initial moment of tool operation. Also observe that B1 which is the proportionality constant

for X1(speed) is 2 and 1/2 times larger for High Speed Steel than for Carbide tool. In other words, speed has more impact on the optimization problem for High Speed Steel tool. We

expect to **get larger surface roughness values if a High Speed Steel tool is used under the same speed value. Also observe that, once again, the High Speed Steel tool optimization is more sensitive to X2, that is, feed. This is true because**

 $(B2)$ _{HSS} > $(B2)$ _{Carbide} tool.

Since

(B1)HSS > (B1)Carbide tool

 $(B2)$ _{HSS} > $(B2)$ _{Carbide} tool

 $(B3)$ HSS > $(B3)$ Carbide tool

We see that Carbide tool produces smaller values of surface roughness for the same input, except for very small values of(Xl, X2, X3).

4.10 MAXIMA AND MINIMA OPTIMIZATION PLANES

In section 4.9, We have defined the optimization plane to include any critical points of surface roughness. Let us now distinguish the many possible extrema. We separate the critical maximum values from critical minimum values as shown in tables 57 to 60.

B2 = positive Surface roughness = Minimum Number of points = 17

HIGH SPEED STEEL

Table 58

B2 = Negative Surface roughness = Maximum Number of points = 10

B2 = Positive Surface roughness = Minimum Number of points = 20

CARBIDE TOOL

TABLE 60

B2 = Negative Surface roughness = Maximum Number of points = 7

With the help of data in table 57, 58, 59, and 60, regression coefficients have been determined by utilizing the SAE program to calculate the equations of minimization plane and the maximization plane as defined before.

4.10.1 THE MINIMIZATION PLANE FOR HIGH SPEED STEEL

 $Ymin = 5.335 + 0.000706(X1) + 2059.573(X2) + 66.409(X3)$

Confidence level = $99.1%$

4.10.2 THE MINIMIZATION PLANE FOR CARBIDE TOOL

 $Ymin = 1.256 + 0.000678(X1) + 3187.1(X2) + 10.665(X3)$

Confidence level = 99.99

4.10.3 THE MAXIMIZATION PLANE FOR HIGH SPEED STEEL

 $Ymax = -9.898 - 0.000904 (X1) + 6945.452 (X2) + 208.864 (X3)$

Confidence level = $99.7%$

4.10.4 THE MAXIMIZATION PLANE FOR CARBIDE TOOL

 $Ymax = -1.759 + 0.002(X1) + 2824.155(X2) + 39.02(X3)$

Confidence level = 82% (due to small sample size)

4.11 PLANE REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS AND ASSOCIATED LEVEL OF CONFIDENCE

4.12 CLASSICAL NORMALIZATION OF INDEPENDENT

```
We wish 0 \leqslant X1 \leqslant 10 \leqslant \chi_2 \leqslant 10 \leqslant x_3 \leqslant 1Thus
  X1 = (X1 - 392.5)/2748.89X2 = (X2 - 0.001)/0.004X_3 = (X3 - 0.002)/0.048From above expressions
  X1 = (2748.89X1 + 392.5)X2 = (0.004X2 + 0.001)X3 = (0.048X3 + 0.002)Hence
HSS
Y^*G.Min = 5.335+0.000706(2748.89X1+392.5)
           +2059.573(0.004\overline{x_2}+0.001)+66.409(0.048\overline{x_3}+0.002)Y^*G.Min = 7.804 + 1.941X1 + 8.2383X2 + 3.1876X3Carbide tool
Y^*G.Min = 1.256 + 0.000678(2748.89X1+392.5)+3187.1(0.004X2+0.001) + 10.665(0.048X3+0.002)Y^*G.Min = 4.7305 + 1.86375X1 + 12.7484X2 + 0.51192X3Similarly for maximum values of surface roughness
HSS
Y^*G.Max = -9.8980.000904(2748.89X1+392.5)+6945.452(0.004X2+0.001) + 208.864(0.048X3+0.002)Y^*G.Max = -2.8896 - 2.484996X1 + 27.7818X2 + 10.025X3
```
Carbide tool

 $Y^*G.Max = -1.759+0.002(2748.89X1+392.5)$ $+2824.155(0.004X2+0.001)+39.02(0.048X3+0.002)$ Y^* G.Max = 1.928 + 5.49778X1 + 11.2966X2 + 1.87296X3

4.13 COMPARISON

4.13.1 Conclusion 1

For minimum planes

HSS process is more sensitive to small inputs, speed, and depth of cut than Carbide tool in terms of minimizing surface roughness.

Carbide tool is more sensitive to feed than HSS in terms of minimizing surface roughness.

4.13.2 Conclusion 2

For maximum planes

HSS process is more sensitive to feed and depth of cut in terms of maximizing surface roughness. Carbide tool is more sensitive to very small inputs and

speed in terms of maximizing surface roughness.

4.13.3 Conclusion 3

We recall that the following reasonable domains apply for (X1, X2, X3) for both HSS and Carbide tool.

> $392.5 \leqslant X1 \leqslant 2748.89$ $0.001 \leqslant X2 \leqslant 0.004$ $0.002 \leq X3 \leq 0.048$

This allows us to calculate global values for minimum and maximum surface roughness for both HSS and Carbide tool. Hence

 $(X1min, X2min, X3min) = (392.5, 0.001, 0.002)$ for both HSS and Carbide tool.

Hence

The global values of minimum surface roughness are

HSS

 $Y_{G, Min} = 5.335+0.000706(392.5)+2059.573(0.001)+66.409(0.002)$

 $Y_{G, Min}$ = 7.8045 micro inches

Also

For Carbide tool

 $Y_{G,Mip} = 1.256 + 0.000678(392.5) + 3187.1(0.001) + 10.665(0.002)$

 $Y_{G, Min}$ = 4.7305 micro inches

Also since (X1max, X2max, X3max) = $(2748.89, 0.004, 0.048)$ for both HSS and Carbide tool, the global values of maximum surface roughness are

HSS

 $Y_{G, Max} = -9.898 - 0.000904(2748.89) + 6945.452(0.004)$

 $+208.864(0.048)$

 $Y_{G, \text{Max}} = 25.4243$ micro inches

For Carbide tool

 $Y_{G, Max} = -1.759+0.002(2748.89)+2824.155(0.004)+39.02(0.048)$

 Y_G . Max = 16.9084 micro inches

In tabular form, a global ststement is presented below

4.14 NORMALIZATION BASED UPON AVERAGING

We recognize that we can rewrite our optimization plane equations as follows.

 Y_{min} = Bo + B1(C1)(X1/C1) + B2(C2)(X2/C2) + B3(C3)(X3/C3) $Y_{\text{min}} = B_0 + B_1(C_1)(X_1) + B_2(C_2)(X_2) + B_3(C_3)(X_3)$ Where $X1/C1 = \widetilde{X1}$ $X2/C2 = \widetilde{X2}$ $X3/C3 = \tilde{X3}$, and $C1 = (392.5 + 2748.89)/2 = 1570.695$ $C2 = (0.001 + 0.004)/2 = 0.0025$ $C3 = (0.002 + 0.048)/2 = 0.025$ Hence **HSS** $Y_{G.Min} = 5.335+0.000706(1570.695)(\overline{X1})+2059.573(0.0025)(\overline{X2})$
+66.409(0.025)($\overline{X3}$) $Y_{G, Min} = 5.335 + 1.1089(\widetilde{X1}) + 5.1489(\widetilde{X2}) + 1.66(\widetilde{X3})$

For Carbide tool

 $Y_{G.Min} = 1.256+0.000678(1570.695)(\widetilde{X1})+3187.1(0.0025)(\widetilde{X2})$
+10.665($\widetilde{X3}$) $Y_{G.Min}$ = 1.256 + 1.0649($\widetilde{X1}$) + 7.967($\widetilde{X2}$) + 0.266($\widetilde{X3}$) **HSS** $Y_G.Max = -9.898 - 0.000904(1570.695)(X1) + 6945.452(0.0025)(X2)$
+208.864(X3) $Y_{G, \text{Max}} = -9.898 - 1.419(\tilde{X1}) + 17.36(\tilde{X2}) + 5.22(\tilde{X3})$ For Carbide tool

 $Y_G.Max = 1.759+0.002(1570.695)(\tilde{X}1)+2824.155(0.0025)(\tilde{X}2)+39.02(0.025)(\tilde{X}3)$ $Y_{G, \text{Max}} = 1.759 + 3.14(\overline{X1}) + 7.06(\overline{X2}) + 0.9755(\overline{X3})$

4.14.1 RELEVANT DOMAINS

The relevant domains are as follows

 $392.5 \leq X1 \leq 2748.89$ 392.5/C1 \leq X1 = X1/C1 \leq 2748.89/C1 $392.5/1570.695 \leq \overline{X1} = X1/C1 \leq 2748.89/1570.695$ $0.2498 \le \widetilde{X1} \le 1.75$ $0.001 \leq X2 \leq 0.004$ $0.001/C1 \leq \widetilde{X2} = X2/C2 \leq 0.004/C1$ $0.001/0.0025 \leq \widetilde{X2} = X2/C2 \leq 0.004/0.0025$ $0.4 \leq \widetilde{X2} \leq 1.6$ $0.002 \leq X3 \leq 0.048$ $0.002/C3 \leqslant \overline{X3} = X3/C3 \leqslant 0.048/C3$ $0.002/0.025 \leq \overline{X3} = X3/C3 \leq 0.048/0.025$ $0.08 \leqslant \overline{X3} \leqslant 1.92$

APPENDIX A

HIGH SPEED STEEL TOOL

Table 1

 $X1 = speed = constant$; $X2 = feed = variable$ $X3 = depth of cut = constant; Y = surface roughness$ # **(X1) (X2) (X3) (X2)2 Y** 1 392.5 0.001 0.002 0.000001 11.8

APPENDIX B

CARBIDE TOOL

X1 = speed = constant ; X2 = **feed = variable** $X3 = depth of cut = constant; Y = surface roughness$ # **(X1) (X2)** (X3) **(X2)2** Y 1 392.5 0.001 0.002 0.000001 5.33 2 392.5 0.001 0.002 0.000001 5.60 3 392.5 0.001 0.002 0.000001 6.16 4 392.5 0.001 0.002 0.000001 5.46 0.000001 5.76
0.00000625 7.12 6 392.5 0.0025 0.002 0.00000625 7.12

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