

# Enhancing surface integrity by high-speed extrusion machining

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**Abstract** High-speed machining (HSM) is an advanced machining technology to form components. However, the poor surface integrity tends to appear due to chip flow instability in HSM. It is found that the surface integrity results from the competition of shear deformation instability between in primary shear zone (PSZ) and in separating shear zone (SSZ). To improve the surface integrity of machined components, the systematic high-speed extrusion machining (HSEM) experiments of magnesium alloy AZ31B with different constraint extrusion factors (CEFs) were carried out. The instability of shear deformation in PSZ is suppressed, and the microwaves on machined surface disappear when CEF is equal to or larger than a certain value. The measurements of the machined surface show that an improvement of surface integrity is achieved if CEF exceeds a certain value. The theoretical model for HSEM was established to elucidate the critical CEF. The underlying physics of surface integrity in HSEM is further revealed. The experimental results verify the validity of the theoretical model.

**Keywords** High-speed extrusion machining · Surface integrity · Characteristic instability time · Chip morphology transition

## 1 Introduction

Machining operation is a versatile manufacturing process in terms of its capability to obtain designed geometrical dimensions by removing unwanted materials from a workpiece [1]. High-speed machining (HSM) has become an important development area in advanced manufacturing technology due to the growing demand for enhanced manufacturing efficiency [2–4]. However, the continuous chip flow breaks down and serrated chips begin to form with the increasing cutting speed [5, 6]. The chip morphology transition from continuous to serrated chips leads to the intense cutting force fluctuation [7–10], which is generally believed harmful for the cutting tool and surface integrity [11–14]. Therefore, the serrated chips should be suppressed in order to improve the surface integrity of machined components during HSM.

The mechanism of serrated chip has been extensively studied in the past decades. For most ductile metallic materials, the occurrence of serrated chip flow is related to the thermo-plastic shear instability within primary shear zone (PSZ) [15, 16]. Considerable researches on the shear localization in PSZ have been carried out. Several classic investigations have been performed to study the onset of serrated chip flow. Recht first put forward that the serrated chips emerged in HSM if the strain hardening of materials was overtaken by the thermal softening effect within PSZ [17]. A similar approach, where the shear stress achieves a maximum in the shear stress-shear strain curve, was proposed to explain the transition from continuous to serrated chips [18]. Komanduri and Hou extended Recht's classical model to predict the onset of shear instability,

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where shear localization is imminent if the shear stress in shear band is less than or equal to the shear strength of bulk materials [19]. Semiatin and Rao first derived the quantitative critical speed for the transition from continuous to serrated chips [20]. Xie et al. showed the influence of cutting conditions on shear localization in HSM [21]. Considering the coupling system of tool-chip workpiece, Burns and Davies explained the emergence of serrated chips as a supercritical Hopf bifurcation phenomenon [22]. Aifantis et al. added the effect of strain gradient into the governing equation of PSZ and carried out the perturbation analysis of the governing equation to predict the onset of serrated chip flow [23]. Also, by using perturbation analysis, some other adiabatic shear instability critical conditions were built by considering some specific effects in HSM [24]. Recently, based on dimensional analysis and numerical simulations, Ye et al. derived an explicit expression of the critical cutting speed in terms of material properties, uncut chip thickness, and tool rake angle [25].

The fantastic pioneer works are concerned about the formation of serrated chips in HSM. The studies have demonstrated that the state of stress in PSZ has a significant effect on the chip formation in HSM. Actually, for low-speed machining (LSM), Chiffre put forward extrusion cutting to impose the extrusion stress in PSZ for controlling the chip formation process [26]. Chandrasekar and co-workers further devised a large-strain extrusion machining (LSEM) apparatus to fabricate ultrafine grain materials (UFGs) at a low cutting speed [27]. Recently, inspired by the works of Chiffre and Chandrasekar, Dai et al. developed a high-speed extrusion machining (HSEM) device to research the effect of constraint on the chip formation during HSM [28]. They stated that the chip morphology transforms from serrated to continuous chips once the constraint extrusion factor is equal to or greater than a certain value [29]. Previous work by the authors showed that constraint extrusion level affected the microstructure of chips during HSEM [30]; however, the research about the effect of extrusion on surface integrity in HSEM is vacant. In this paper, systematic HSEM experiments of magnesium alloy were carried out to explore the effect of extrusion on surface integrity. The experimental results show that an improvement of surface integrity is achieved when the constraint extrusion factor (CEF) is equal to or larger than a certain value. The theoretical model for HSEM is established to elucidate the critical CEF. The underlying physics of surface integrity in HSEM is clearly revealed by combining the experimental result with theoretical model.

## 2 Experimental procedure

The technique of HSEM has been elaborated in the authors' previous work [29]. The actual experimental setup is shown in Fig. 1, where the machining time is 4 ms. The schematic of



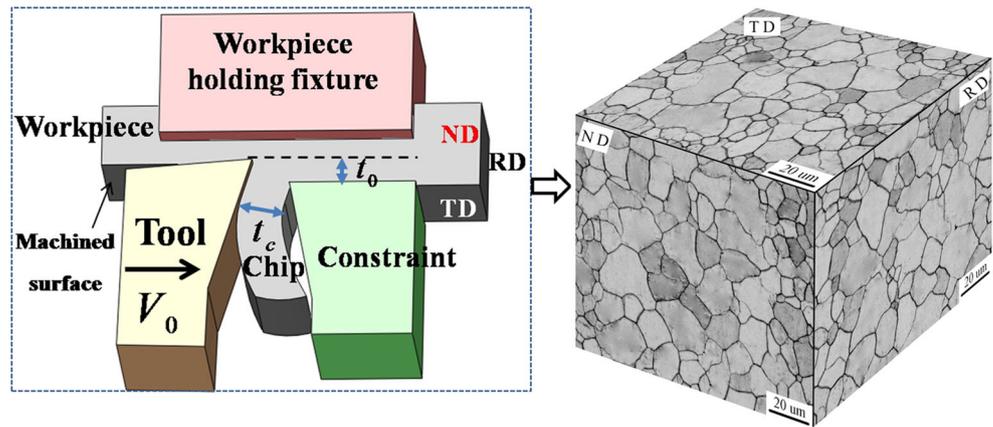
**Fig. 1** The actual experimental setup

HSEM is illustrated in Fig. 2, where an orthogonal machining process is taken into consideration. The sample material used in the experiments is magnesium alloy AZ31B with chemical composition specified in Table 1. The annealing temperature of AZ31B is 345 °C. The dimension of workpiece is 40 mm in length, 30 mm in width, and 2 mm in thickness. The microstructures of three section planes ND, RD, and TD before HSEM are shown in Fig. 2.

The process of HSEM is conducted on split Hopkinson pressure bar (SHPB), where an uncoated P10 carbide tool is used. The tool with a precut depth  $t_0$  is cutting the workpiece at the cutting speed  $V_0$ , and the chip thickness  $t_c$  is controlled by the constraint in HSEM. As for free machining (FM), where the constraint is useless, the chip thickness  $t_c^*$  is a material-dependent parameter [28]. The wedge-shaped tool with a rake angle  $\alpha$  is machining the cutting layer. Finally, the workpiece materials in the cutting layer flow out along the rake face in the form of a chip due to a process of shear in PSZ. The inclined angle  $\varphi$  of PSZ is named as shear angle.

Based on the definition of CEF  $\chi = (t_c^* - t_c) / t_c^*$  ( $\chi \in [0, 1]$ ) [29], the different constraint extrusion effects can be obtained by changing the position of constraint in the experiments. In order to explore the relationship between different CEFs and microtopographies of machined surface, the different cutting conditions for HSEM AZ31B are listed in Table 2 by adjusting the position of constraint. After cutting, chips were collected and embedded into clean resin. The lateral process was mechanically polished, and then, the polished surfaces were etched in a 5 g picric acid + 10 ml water + 10 ml acetic acid + 100 ml ethanol solution for about 10 s to reveal the deformed microstructure of AZ31B. These etched specimens and machined surfaces were observed with the optical microscope (Olympus BX51M) and the scanning electron microscope (SEM FEI Sirion400NC) to examine the morphologies. The

**Fig. 2** Schematic of high-speed extrusion machining (HSEM) and microstructures of three section planes ND, RD, and TD in the sample



machined surfaces were further characterized by means of a ContourGT-K 3D profiler.

### 3 Experimental observations

Figure 3 shows the microstructure of chips for different CEFs in HSEM AZ31B. The transition of chip morphology from serrated to continuous is observed with the increasing CEF. As for FM (Fig. 3a), the chips are serrated due to the absence of extrusion constraint and the shear bands are obviously observed between the saw-teeth like chips. However, in the condition of HSEM, the constraint has an effect on the chip morphology and the serrations are suppressed by the constraint (Fig. 3b). When CEF reaches or exceeds a critical value, i.e.,  $\chi=0.56$ , the thermo-plastic shear instability is totally suppressed, which leads to the disappearance of shear bands in chips (see Fig. 3c, d). In this case, homogeneous plastic deformation is realized in chips and the refined grain distributes in chips uniformly.

The occurrence of serrated chips leads to the cutting force fluctuation, decreased tool life, degradation of the surface finish, and less accuracy in machine parts during HSM. According to the experimental observations in Fig. 3, the technique of HSEM is successful to achieve the transition of chip morphology from serrated to continuous. The micro-topography of machined surface is further examined to research the effect of constraint level on the surface integrity in HSEM. As illustrated in

**Table 1** Chemical composition of the magnesium alloy AZ31B

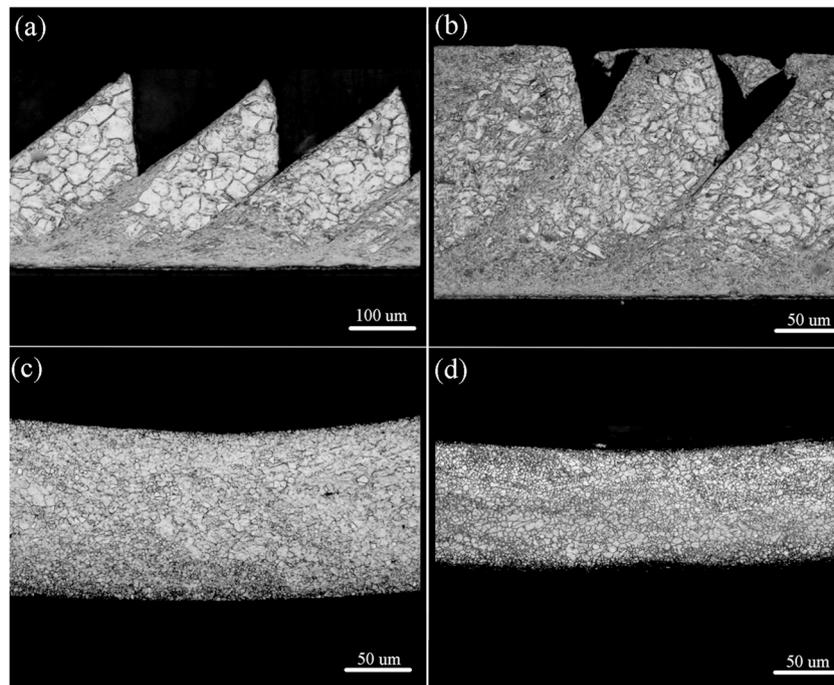
Elements	Mg	Al	Zn	Mn	Si	Cu	Ca	Others
Weight percent	97	2.5–3.5	0.6–1.4	0.2	0.1	0.05	0.04	≤0.01

Fig. 4a, the periodic microwaves distribute on the machined surface uniformly for FM, as numerically predicted by Mabrouki et al. [31]. For the small CEF in HSEM, i.e.,  $\chi=0.32$ , the periodic microwaves still emerge on the machined surface (Fig. 4b) because the serrated chips are not completely suppressed by constraint at the present constraint level (see Fig. 3b). When CEF is equal to or larger than a critical value, i.e.,  $\chi=0.56$ , there are no periodic microwaves on the machined surface (Fig. 4c, d).

The surface integrity was further analyzed by means of a ContourGT-K 3D profiler. The digitalized scanned surfaces are shown in Fig. 5. The profiles of the machined surfaces are presented in Fig. 6 via software making a cross section of digital scanned surfaces, parallel to the cutting direction. According to the profiles of the machined surfaces in Fig. 6, the CEF induces significant variations in terms of surface integrity. The grooves are shallower with the increasing CEF, which results in a better surface integrity in HSEM. The surface roughness  $R_a$  was measured by means of a Taylor Hobson Surtronic 25<sup>R</sup> portable roughness tester, which is shown in Fig. 6. With the increasing CEF in HSEM, the surface roughness is smaller and a better surface integrity is achieved (see Figs. 5 and 6).

**Table 2** Cutting condition in HSEM AZ31B

Cutting parameters	Notation	Value
Rake angle	$\alpha$	0°
Clearance angle	$\alpha_2$	5°
Tool edge radius	$r_T$	10 μm
Precut chip thickness	$t_0$	200 μm
Cutting speed	$V_0$	10 m/s
Controlled chip thickness	$t_c$	280, 190, 120, and 90 μm
Constraint extrusion factor	$\chi$	0, 0.32, 0.57, and 0.68



**Fig. 3** The microstructures of chips for different CEFs in HSEM AZ31B: **a** CEF = 0 (FM), **b** CEF = 0.32, **c** CEF = 0.57, and **d** CEF = 0.68

## 4 Theoretical modeling for HSEM

### 4.1 The governing equations

As shown in the experimental results, an improvement of surface integrity can be achieved if CEF is equal to or larger than a certain value in HSEM. The theoretical model for HSEM is established here to elucidate the critical CEF. Figure 7 shows a schematic of the HSEM, where the wedge-shaped tool with a rake angle  $\alpha$  is cutting the workpiece at the cutting speed  $V_0$ . The materials in the cutting layer are sheared in PSZ and then flow out along the rake face in the form of a chip. The materials in separating shear zone (SSZ) are separated from the workpiece by shear deformation within SSZ. The width of SSZ  $d$  is about  $t_0/10$  based on experimental observations [32]. The shear deformation in PSZ and that in SSZ occur simultaneously during HSEM, which leads to the following two characteristic instability times: the characteristic instability time of  $t_p$  in PSZ and that of  $t_s$  in SSZ. If  $t_p > t_s$ , the instability of shear deformation in SSZ is before that in PSZ. The separation of materials in SSZ is ahead of the serration in PSZ. If  $t_p < t_s$ , the instability of shear deformation in SSZ is after that in PSZ. The materials in SSZ are not separated from the workpiece when the serration forms in PSZ, which results in a poor machined surface.

As for the characteristic instability time  $t_p$  in PSZ, the theoretical model for  $t_p$  put forward by Cai and

Dai [29] is used here. The spectral equation controlling the shear deformation in PSZ is the following form [29]:

$$8\alpha_p^3 + 8S_1\alpha_p^2 + 2(S_1^2 - S_2)\alpha_p + S_1S_2 - S_3 = 0. \quad (1)$$

In Eq. (1),  $\alpha_p$  is the dimensionless growth rate, and the dimensionless polynomial coefficients are defined by

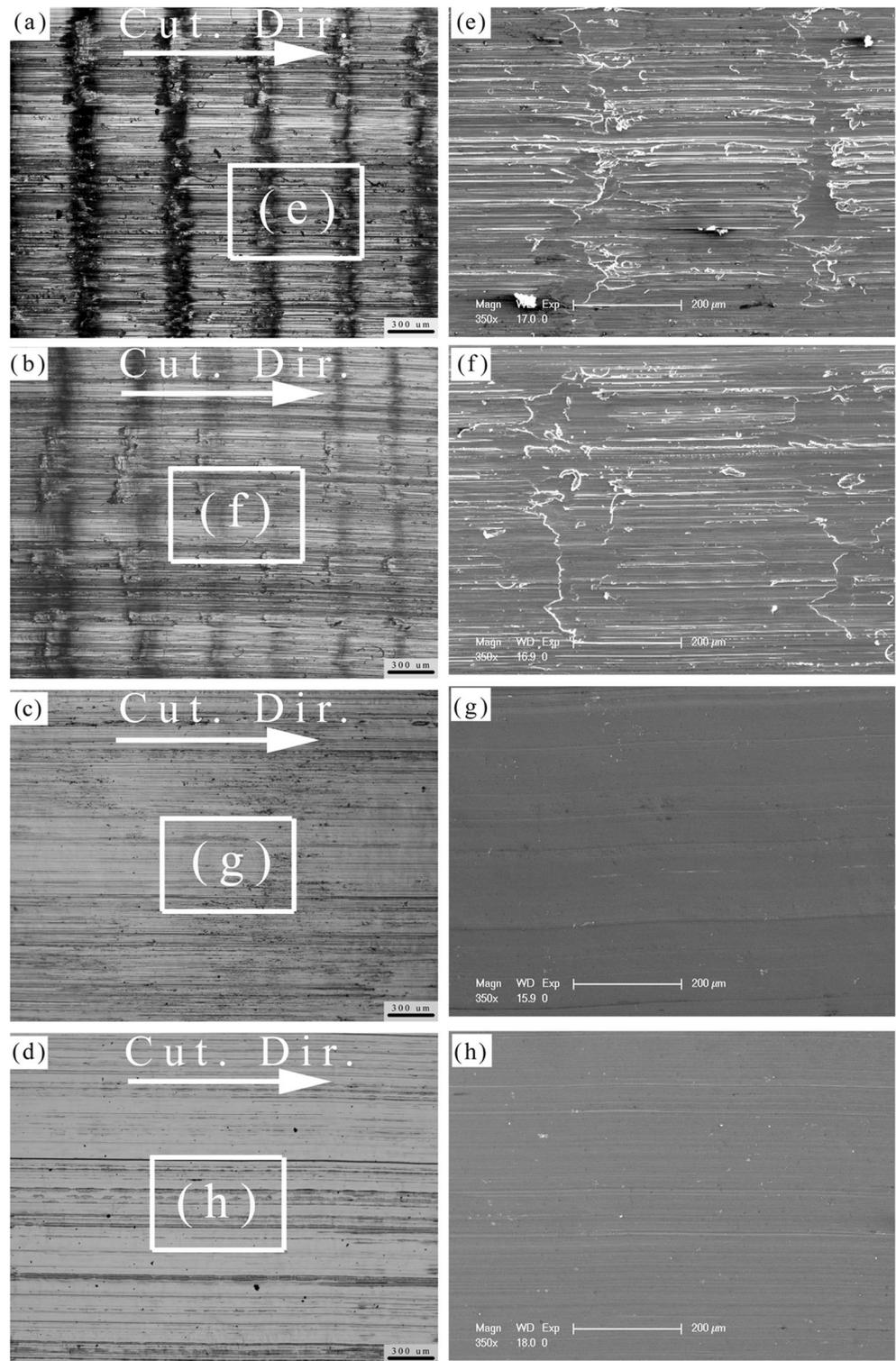
$$\begin{cases} S_1 = (1+A)k_p^2 + N + C \\ S_2 = Ak_p^4 + (1+N-B)k_p^2 + M + CN \\ S_3 = k_p^4 + Mk_p^2 + MC, \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where  $k_p$  is the dimensionless wave number and  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ ,  $M$ , and  $N$  are the dimensionless numbers which are illustrated in the work [29]. The maximum ( $\alpha_{pm}$ ) of  $\alpha_p$  can be obtained by solving Eqs. (1) and (2). Then, the characteristic instability time  $t_p$  in PSZ is given by  $t_p = 1/\alpha_{pm}$ .

In order to achieve the characteristic instability time  $t_s$  in SSZ, an Eulerian coordinate system ( $xoy$ ) is attached to the tool with  $x$  axis parallel to the direction of cutting speed and  $y$  axis normal to that direction, respectively (Fig. 7). The workpiece is considered to be thermo-viscoplastic material, and its constitutive equation is given by

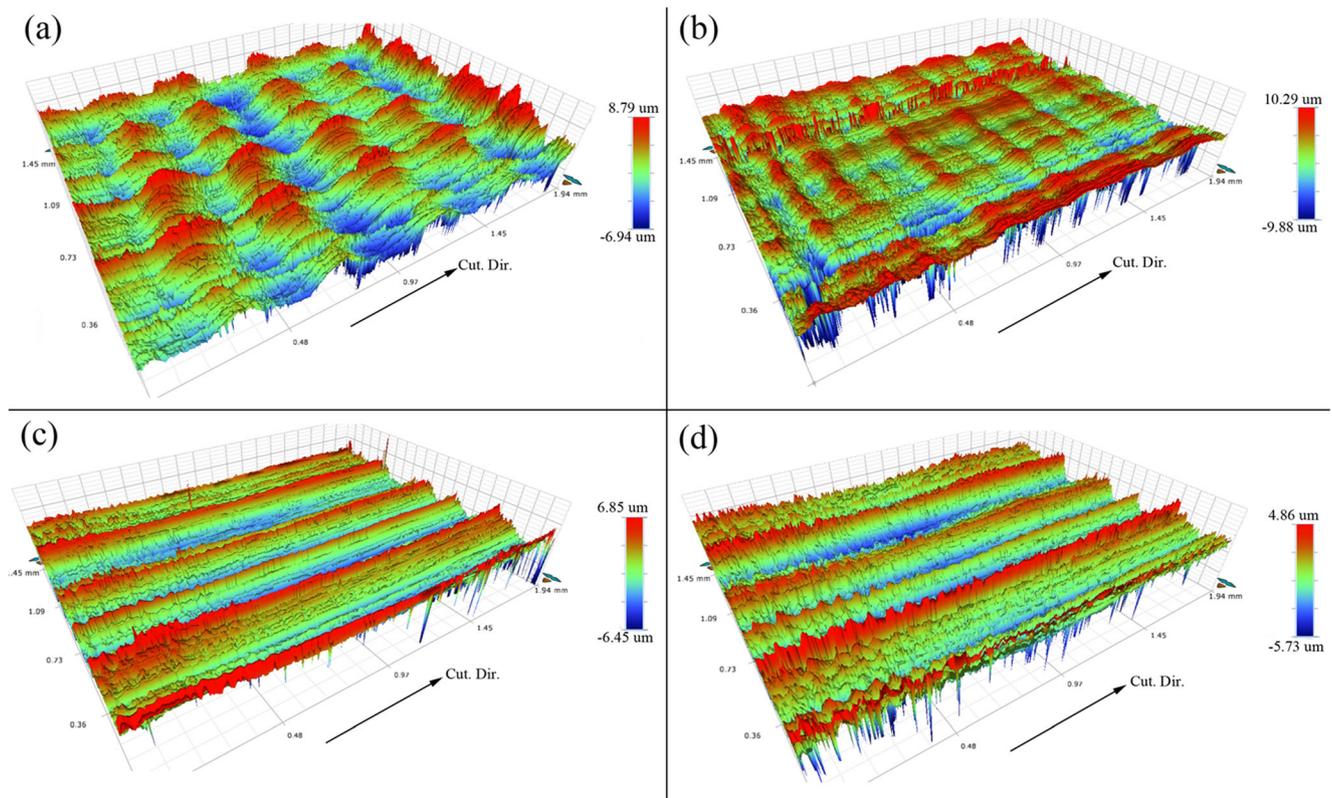
$$\tau = f(\gamma, \gamma', T), \quad (3)$$

**Fig. 4** The microtopographies of machined surface for different CEFs: **a** CEF = 0 (FM), **b** CEF = 0.32, **c** CEF = 0.57, and **d** CEF = 0.68. **e–h** The local magnifications of **a–d**, respectively



where  $\tau$  is the shear stress,  $\gamma$  is the shear strain,  $\gamma'$  is the shear strain rate, and  $T$  is the temperature. For later use, let us introduce the following notations as did by Bai [33]:  $Q = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma} > 0$  (strain-hardening coefficient),  $R = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma'} > 0$  (strain rate hardening coefficient), and  $P = -\frac{\partial f}{\partial T} > 0$  (thermal-softening coefficient).

In current analysis, the deformation can only occur in  $x$  direction but may have a gradient in  $y$  direction. Therefore, a further assumption is made for the deformation in machining; the deformation can be formulated in a one-dimensional framework, and the variables  $\tau$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\gamma'$ , and  $T$  depend solely on the coordinate  $y$  and the time  $t$ .



**Fig. 5** The digitalized scanned surfaces for different CEFs: **a** CEF = 0 (FM), **b** CEF = 0.32, **c** CEF = 0.57, and **d** CEF = 0.68

The momentum is conserved in SSZ, so the momentum equation is given by

$$\frac{\partial^2 \tau}{\partial y^2} = \rho \frac{\partial \gamma'}{\partial t}, \tag{4}$$

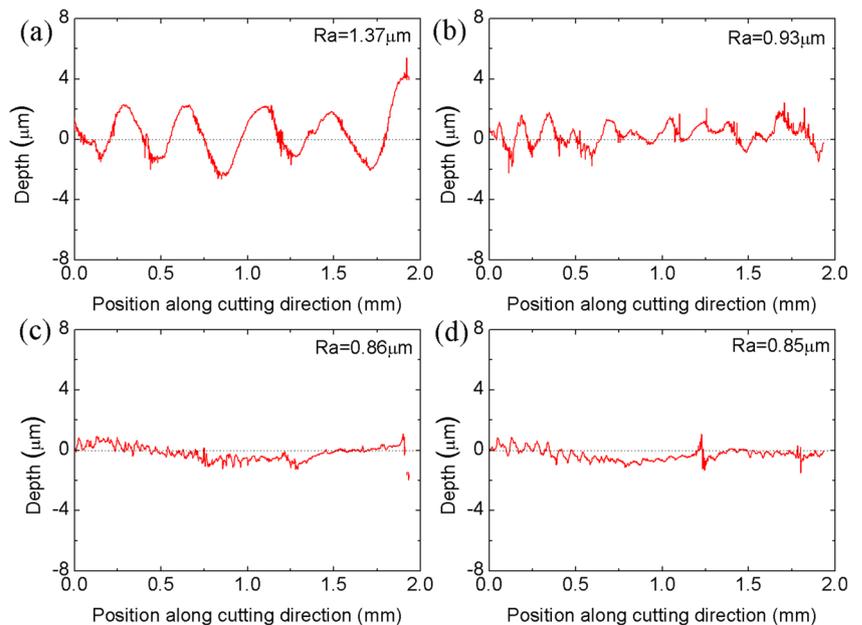
where  $\rho$  is the density of materials.

The conservation equation of energy in SSZ is written by

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{\beta \tau \gamma'}{\rho c} + \frac{k}{\rho c} \frac{T_h - T}{d^2}, \tag{5}$$

where  $T$  is the temperature in SSZ,  $T_h$  is the temperature around SSZ, and  $d$  is the thickness of SSZ. In

**Fig. 6** The profiles of the machined surfaces for different CEFs: **a** CEF = 0 (FM), **b** CEF = 0.32, **c** CEF = 0.57, and **d** CEF = 0.68



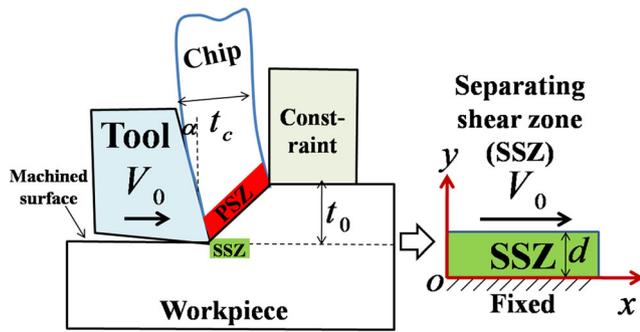


Fig. 7 The schematic of the HSEM model, where the deformation zones of PSZ and SSZ are included

Eq. (5),  $\beta$ ,  $k$ , and  $c$  are the Taylor-Quinney coefficient, thermal conductivity, and specific heat capacity, respectively. Equation (5) states that the following two physical processes control the temperature in SSZ: heat generation due to plastic working (the first term in the right side of the equation) and heat diffusion due to temperature gradient (the second term).

The chip temperature field can be estimated by finite element method (FEM) cutting simulation [34]. Recently, the temperature around SSZ  $T_h$  is calculated from the theoretical model [35]

$$T_h = \frac{(1-\Gamma)u_s}{\rho c} + T_a, \tag{6}$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{1}{4Y} \operatorname{erf}(\sqrt{Y}) + (1+Y) \operatorname{erfc}(\sqrt{Y}) - \frac{e^{-Y}}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left( \frac{1}{2\sqrt{Y}} + \sqrt{Y} \right), \tag{7}$$

$$Y = \frac{\rho c V_0 t_0 \cos \alpha}{4k(\lambda - \sin \alpha)}, \tag{8}$$

where  $\Gamma$  is the fraction of PSZ heat flowing into the workpiece,  $T_a$  is the initial workpiece temperature,  $\lambda$  is the chip thickness ratio ( $t_c/t_0$ ), and  $u_s$  is the energy per unit volume dissipated within PSZ. The work has shown that  $u_s$  increases from  $2.3 \times 10^8$  to  $4.3 \times 10^8$  J/m<sup>3</sup> when  $\lambda$  is decreased from 1.4 to 0.7 [35].

The relationship between  $\gamma'$  and  $\gamma$  is

$$\gamma' = \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial t}. \tag{9}$$

The initial condition (IC) and the boundary condition (BC) governing SSZ are given by

$$\text{IC} \begin{cases} \gamma(y, 0) = 0 \\ \gamma(\gamma', 0) = \frac{V_0}{d} \\ T(y, 0) = T_a \end{cases}, \tag{10}$$

and

$$\text{BC} \begin{cases} V(0, t) = 0 \\ V(d, t) = V_0 \end{cases}. \tag{11}$$

If the specific form of constitutive relation Eq. (3) is given, we can solve simultaneously the coupled governing Eqs. (4)–(11) for the shear stress, shear strain, shear strain rate, and temperature within SSZ.

### 4.2 Homogeneous deformation solution

According to the works [36], the shear deformation before instability can be approximately regarded as a highly localized homogeneous deformation. It is necessary to seek the homogeneous solutions by assuming that shear strain rate is uniformly distributed within SSZ,

$$\gamma' = \frac{V_0}{d}. \tag{12}$$

The workpiece material is assumed to be rigid perfectly plastic for simplicity, and the Johnson-Cook (J-C) law was chosen to be the constitutive law of the workpiece material, which can be represented by the following formula [37]:

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left[ A + B \left( \frac{\gamma}{\sqrt{3}} \right)^n \right] \left[ 1 + C \ln \left( \frac{\gamma'}{\sqrt{3}\epsilon_0} \right) \right] \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{T - T_a}{T_m - T_a} \right)^m \right], \tag{13}$$

where the J-C parameters of AZ31B are listed in Table 3 [38]. Substituting the mechanical parameters of AZ31B and the cutting parameters into Eqs. (4)–(13), the partial differential Eqs. (4)–(13) are solved by using finite difference method.

Figure 8 shows the relationship between shear stress and shear strain within SSZ. The shear deformations for all CEFs are unstable. The instability of shear deformation within SSZ becomes easier with the increasing CEF. For later use, we can calculate the parameters  $\tau_0$ ,  $\gamma_0$ ,  $\gamma'_0$ ,  $T_0$ ,  $Q_0$ ,  $R_0$ , and  $P_0$  through the stress-strain curve when the shear deformation begins to be unstable.

Table 3 Mechanical properties and parameters for AZ31B

Properties and parameters	Notation	Value
Density	$\rho$	1770 kg m <sup>-3</sup>
Elastic modulus	$E$	45 GPa
Thermal conductivity	$k$	96 Wm <sup>-1</sup> K <sup>-1</sup>
Specific heat capacity	$c$	1000 J kg <sup>-1</sup> K <sup>-1</sup>
Initial yield stress for J-C model	$A$	172 MPa
Hardening modulus for J-C model	$B$	360 MPa
Strain rate dependency coefficient for J-C model	$C$	0.092
Work-hardening exponent for J-C model	$n$	0.456
Thermal-softening exponent for J-C model	$m$	0.95
The reference strain rate for J-C model	$\epsilon_0$	$1 \times 10^{-3}$ s <sup>-1</sup>
Ambient temperature for J-C model	$T_a$	293 K
Melting temperature for J-C model	$T_m$	890 K

### 4.3 Characteristic instability time within SSZ

The physical shear localization can be related to the mathematical instability in the differential equations governing the deformation within SSZ. According to the dealing method [33], the stability analysis is simplified by seeking an inhomogeneous deformation solution with respect to small perturbations on the homogeneous solution. Such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \tau \\ \gamma \\ \gamma' \\ T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \tau_0 \\ \gamma_0 \\ \gamma'_0 \\ T_0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \tau^* \\ \gamma^* \\ \gamma'^* \\ T^* \end{bmatrix} \exp(pt + iqy), \tag{14}$$

where  $[\tau \ \gamma \ \gamma' \ T]$  are the inhomogeneous solutions of Eqs. (3)–(11),  $[\tau_0 \ \gamma_0 \ \gamma'_0 \ T_0]$  are the homogeneous solutions,  $[\tau^* \ \gamma^* \ \gamma'^* \ T^*]$  are the small constants characterizing the magnitude of the perturbation,  $q$  is the wave number, and  $p$  is the growth rate. Substituting Eq. (14) into Eqs. (3)–(5) and (9), considering terms of first order in the perturbation magnitude leads to the following spectral equation:

$$\begin{aligned} &\rho p^3 + \left( \frac{\beta P_0 \gamma'_0}{c} + \frac{k}{cd^2} + q^2 R_0 \right) p^2 \\ &+ \left( \frac{kR_0}{\rho cd^2} + Q_0 - \frac{\beta P_0 \tau_0}{\rho c} \right) q^2 p + \frac{kQ_0}{\rho cd^2} q^2 \\ &= 0. \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

The dimensionless variables are introduced here,

$$\left\{ \alpha_s = \frac{kp}{cQ_0}, k_s^2 = \frac{k^2 q^2}{\rho c^2 Q_0}, A = \frac{cR_0}{k}, B = \frac{\beta P_0 \tau_0}{\rho c Q_0}, C = \frac{\beta k P_0 \gamma'_0}{\rho c^2 Q_0}, D = \frac{k^2}{\rho c^2 d^2 Q_0} \right\}, \tag{16}$$

and then, Eq. (15) becomes the following form:

$$\alpha_s^3 + \left( Ak_s^2 + C + D \right) \alpha_s^2 + (1 + AD - B) k_s^2 \alpha_s + Dk_s^2 = 0. \tag{17}$$

The maximum ( $\alpha_{sm}$ ) of  $\alpha_s$  can be achieved by varying  $k_s^2$  from 0 to  $+\infty$  in Eq. (17), and then, the characteristic instability time within SSZ  $t_s$  is obtained by  $t_s = 1/\alpha_{sm}$ .

Deborah number was initially proposed by Reiner to describe the rheological behavior of materials [39]. Recently, Deborah number was also used for characterizing shear deformation instability of materials [40, 41]. Here, we define the effective Deborah number  $De$  as follows:

$$De = \frac{t_s}{t_p}. \tag{18}$$

It is obvious that this Deborah number can characterize the competition between SSZ and PSZ. If  $De < 1$ , the materials

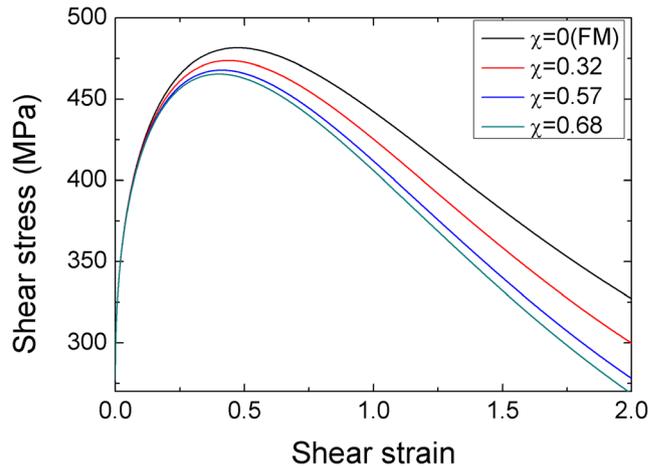


Fig. 8 The calculated stress-strain relations within SSZ for different CEFs

within SSZ tend to have fluid-like behavior; i.e., the shear deformation instability in SSZ is faster than that in PSZ. For  $De > 1$ , the materials within SSZ are prone to have solid-like behavior; i.e., the shear deformation instability in PSZ is faster than that in SSZ.

Using the homogeneous deformation solution in Fig. 8, the variation of  $De$  with CEF is illustrated in Fig. 9. The poor and good surface integrity are separated by a specific constraint extrusion factor 0.5. If CEF is smaller than 0.5,  $De$  is more than 1. Compared with the materials in PSZ, the materials within SSZ are more like solids. The instability of shear deformation in PSZ is before that in SSZ. The materials in SSZ are not separated completely from the workpiece during the formation of serration in PSZ, which results in a poor surface integrity. If CEF is larger than 0.5,  $De$  is less than 1. The instability of shear deformation in PSZ is after that in SSZ. The materials in SSZ are separated completely from the workpiece before the shear instability in PSZ, and an improvement of surface integrity is achieved. The deformation behaviors

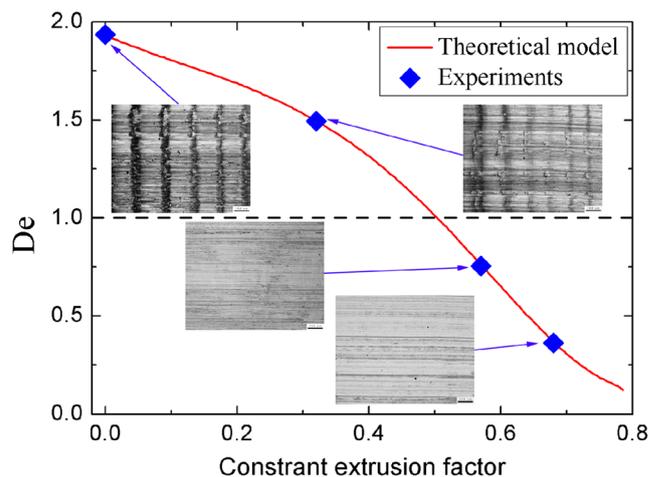
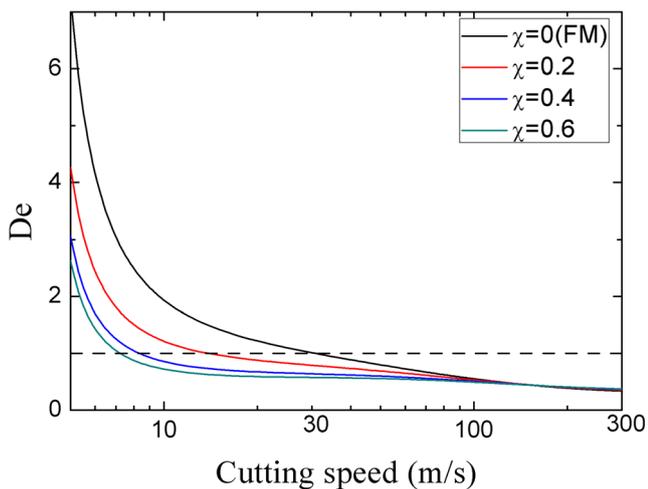


Fig. 9 Comparison of theoretical model with experimental observations for different CEFs



**Fig. 10** The relationship between Deborah number and cutting speed for different CEFs

predicted by the theoretical model are identical to the experimental results (Fig. 9). Therefore, the present model is valid to elucidate the critical CEF, which indicates the improvement of surface integrity.

In order to further reveal the effect of constraint on surface integrity, the relationships between Deborah number and cutting speed for different CEFs are calculated by substituting the characteristic instability times into Eq. (18), which are illustrated in Fig. 10. The Deborah number decreases with the increasing cutting speed, which means that the shear deformation within SSZ is more unstable. For a given CEF, Deborah number will be less than 1 when cutting speed exceeds a certain value. That is to say, the surface integrity can be improved at higher cutting speed. The trend is in accordance with the available experimental results [42]. For a given cutting speed, Deborah number decreases with the increasing CEF. It is revealed that the constraint can promote the instability of shear deformation within SSZ.

## 5 Concluding remarks

A HSEM technique was used for improving the surface integrity. The systematic HSEM experiments of magnesium alloy AZ31B were undertaken for different CEFs. The microscopic observations of chips reveal that the shear deformation in PSZ transforms from shear band type localized deformation to homogeneous deformation with increasing CEF. The periodic microwaves on the machined surface gradually disappear when CEF exceeds a certain value. The surface roughness is smaller and a better surface integrity is achieved with the increasing CEF. Based on the experimental observations, a theoretical model for SSZ is developed to elucidate the critical CEF, considering the competition between the characteristic instability time in PSZ and that in SSZ. The experimental

results verify the rationality of the theoretical model; therefore, the theoretical model is effective to determine the critical CEF in advance.

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