

BROACHES AND BROACHING

The Broaching Process.—The broaching process may be applied in machining holes or other internal surfaces and also to many flat or other external surfaces. Internal broaching is applied in forming either symmetrical or irregular holes, grooves, or slots in machine parts, especially when the size or shape of the opening, or its length in proportion to diameter or width, make other machining processes impracticable. Broaching originally was utilized for such work as cutting keyways, machining round holes into square, hexagonal, or other shapes, forming splined holes, and for a large variety of other internal operations. The development of broaching machines and broaches finally resulted in extensive application of the process to external, flat, and other surfaces. Most external or surface broaching is done on machines of vertical design, but horizontal machines are also used for some classes of work. The broaching process is very rapid, accurate, and it leaves a finish of good quality. It is employed extensively in automotive and other plants where duplicate parts must be produced in large quantities and frequently to given dimensions within small tolerances.

Types of Broaches.—A number of typical broaches and the operations for which they are intended are shown by the diagrams, Fig. 1. Broach *A* produces a round-cornered, square hole. Prior to broaching square holes, it is usually the practice to drill a round hole having a diameter d somewhat larger than the width of the square. Hence, the sides are not completely finished, but this unfinished part is not objectionable in most cases. In fact, this clearance space is an advantage during the broaching operation in that it serves as a channel for the broaching lubricant; moreover, the broach has less metal to remove. Broach *B* is for finishing round holes. Broaching is superior to reaming for some classes of work, because the broach will hold its size for a much longer period, thus insuring greater accuracy. Broaches *C* and *D* are for cutting single and double keyways, respectively. Broach *C* is of rectangular section and, when in use, slides through a guiding bushing which is inserted in the hole. Broach *E* is for forming four integral splines in a hub. The broach at *F* is for producing hexagonal holes. Rectangular holes are finished by broach *G*. The teeth on the sides of this broach are inclined in opposite directions, which has the following advantages: The broach is stronger than it would be if the teeth were opposite and parallel to each other; thin work cannot drop between the inclined teeth, as it tends to do when the teeth are at right angles, because at least two teeth are always cutting; the inclination in opposite directions neutralizes the lateral thrust. The teeth on the edges are staggered, the teeth on one side being midway between the teeth on the other edge, as shown by the dotted line. A double cut broach is shown at *H*. This type is for finishing, simultaneously, both sides f of a slot, and for similar work. Broach *I* is the style used for forming the teeth in internal gears. It is practically a series of gear-shaped cutters, the outside diameters of which gradually increase toward the finishing end of the broach. Broach *J* is for round holes but differs from style *B* in that it has a continuous helical cutting edge. Some prefer this form because it gives a shearing cut. Broach *K* is for cutting a series of helical grooves in a hub or bushing. In helical broaching, either the work or the broach is rotated to form the helical grooves as the broach is pulled through.

In addition to the typical broaches shown in Fig. 1, many special designs are now in use for performing more complex operations. Two surfaces on opposite sides of a casting or forging are sometimes machined simultaneously by twin broaches and, in other cases, three or four broaches are drawn through a part at the same time, for finishing as many duplicate holes or surfaces. Notable developments have been made in the design of broaches for external or "surface" broaching.

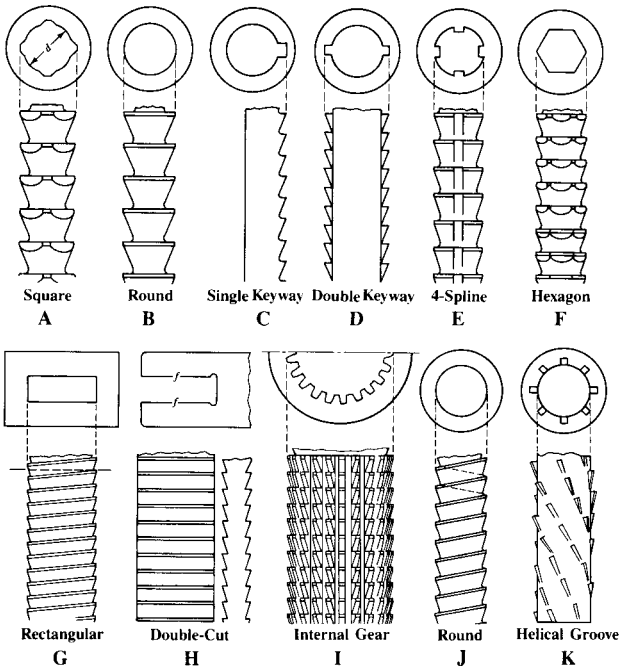


Fig. 1. Types of Broaches

Pitch of Broach Teeth.—The pitch of broach teeth depends upon the depth of cut or chip thickness, length of cut, the cutting force required and power of the broaching machine. In the pitch formulas which follow

L = length, in inches, of layer to be removed by broaching

d = depth of cut per tooth as shown by Table 1 (For internal broaches, d = depth of cut as measured on one side of broach or one-half difference in diameters of successive teeth in case of a round broach)

F = a factor. (For brittle types of material, $F = 3$ or 4 for roughing teeth, and 6 for finishing teeth. For ductile types of material, $F = 4$ to 7 for roughing teeth and 8 for finishing teeth.)

b = width of inches, of layer to be removed by broaching

P = pressure required in tons per square inch, of an area equal to depth of cut times width of cut, in inches (Table 2)

T = usable capacity, in tons, of broaching machine = 70 per cent of maximum tonnage

Table 1. Designing Data for Surface Broaches

Material to be Broached	Depth of Cut per Tooth, Inch		Face Angle or Rake, Degrees	Clearance Angle, Degrees	
	Roughing ^a	Finishing		Roughing	Finishing
Steel, High Tensile Strength	0.0015–0.002	0.0005	10–12	1.5–3	0.5–1
Steel, Medium Tensile Strength	0.0025–0.005	0.0005	14–18	1.5–3	0.5–1
Cast Steel	0.0025–0.005	0.0005	10	1.53	0.5
Malleable Iron	0.0025–0.005	0.0005	7	1.5–3	0.5
Cast Iron, Soft	0.006 –0.010	0.0005	10–15	1.5–3	0.5
Cast Iron, Hard	0.003 –0.005	0.0005	5	1.5–3	0.5
Zinc Die Castings	0.005 –0.010	0.0010	12 ^b	5	2
Cast Bronze	0.010 –0.025	0.0005	8	0	0
Wrought Aluminum					
Alloys	0.005 –0.010	0.0010	15 ^b	3	1
Cast Aluminum Alloys	0.005 –0.010	0.0010	12 ^b	3	1
Magnesium Die Castings	0.010 –0.015	0.0010	20 ^b	3	1

^a The lower depth-of-cut values for roughing are recommended when work is not very rigid, the tolerance is small, a good finish is required, or length of cut is comparatively short.

^b In broaching these materials, smooth surfaces for tooth and chip spaces are especially recommended.

Table 2. Broaching Pressure P for Use in Pitch Formula (2)

Material to be Broached	Depth d of Cut per Tooth, Inch					Pressure P , Side-cutting Broaches
	0.024	0.010	0.004	0.002	0.001	
	Pressure P in Tons per Square Inch					
Steel, High Ten. Strength	250	312	200-.004" cut
Steel, Med. Ten. Strength	158	185	243	143-.006" cut
Cast Steel	128	158	...	115-.006" cut
Malleable Iron	108	128	...	100-.006" cut
Cast Iron	...	115	115	143	...	115-.020" cut
Cast Brass	...	50	50
Brass, Hot Pressed	...	85	85
Zinc Die Castings	...	70	70
Cast Bronze	35	35
Wrought Aluminum	...	70	70
Cast Aluminum	...	85	85
Magnesium Alloy	35	35

The minimum pitch shown by Formula (1) is based upon the receiving capacity of the chip space. The minimum, however, should not be less than 0.2 inch unless a smaller pitch is required for exceptionally short cuts to provide at least two teeth in contact simultaneously, with the part being broached. A reduction below 0.2 inch is seldom required in surface broaching but it may be necessary in connection with internal broaching.

$$\text{Minimum pitch} = 3\sqrt{LdF} \quad (1)$$

Whether the minimum pitch may be used or not depends upon the power of the available machine. The factor F in the formula provides for the increase in volume as the material is broached into chips. If a broach has adjustable inserts for the finishing teeth, the pitch of the finishing teeth may be smaller than the pitch of the roughing teeth because of the smaller depth d of the cut. The higher value of F for finishing teeth prevents the pitch from becoming too small, so that the spirally curled chips will not be crowded into too small a space.

The pitch of the roughing and finishing teeth should be equal for broaches without separate inserts (notwithstanding the different values of d and F) so that some of the finishing teeth may be ground into roughing teeth after wear makes this necessary.

$$\text{Allowable pitch} = \frac{dLbP}{T} \quad (2)$$

If the pitch obtained by Formula (2) is larger than the minimum obtained by Formula (1), this larger value should be used because it is based upon the usable power of the machine. As the notation indicates, 70 per cent of the maximum tonnage T is taken as the usable capacity. The 30 per cent reduction is to provide a margin for the increase in broaching load resulting from the gradual dulling of the cutting edges. The procedure in calculating both minimum and allowable pitches will be illustrated by an example.

Example: Determine pitch of broach for cast iron when $L = 9$ inches; $d = 0.004$; and $F = 4$.

$$\text{Minimum pitch} = 3\sqrt{9 \times 0.004 \times 4} = 1.14$$

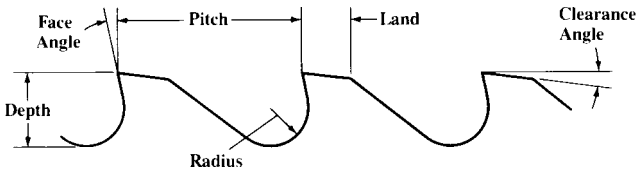
Next, apply Formula (2). Assume that $b = 3$ and $T = 10$; for cast iron and depth d of 0.004, $P = 115$ (Table 2). Then,

$$\text{Allowable pitch} = \frac{0.004 \times 9 \times 3 \times 115}{10} = 1.24$$

This pitch is safely above the minimum. If in this case the usable tonnage of an available machine were, say, 8 tons instead of 10 tons, the pitch as shown by Formula (2) might be increased to about 1.5 inches, thus reducing the number of teeth cutting simultaneously and, consequently, the load on the machine; or the cut per tooth might be reduced instead of increasing the pitch, especially if only a few teeth are in cutting contact, as might be the case with a short length of cut. If the usable tonnage in the preceding example were, say, 15, then a pitch of 0.84 would be obtained by Formula (2); hence the pitch in this case should not be less than the minimum of approximately 1.14 inches.

Depth of Cut per Tooth.—The term “depth of cut” as applied to surface or external broaches means the difference in the heights of successive teeth. This term, as applied to internal broaches for round, hexagonal or other holes, may indicate the total increase in the diameter of successive teeth; however, to avoid confusion, the term as here used means in all cases and regardless of the type of broach, the depth of cut as measured on one side.

In broaching free cutting steel, the Broaching Tool Institute recommends 0.003 to 0.006 inch depth of cut for surface broaching; 0.002 to 0.003 inch for multispline broaching; and 0.0007 to 0.0015 inch for round hole broaching. The accompanying table contains data from a German source and applies specifically to surface broaches. All data relating to depth of cut are intended as a general guide only. While depth of cut is based primarily upon the machinability of the material, some reduction from the depth thus established may be required particularly when the work supporting fixture in surface broaching is not sufficiently rigid to resist the thrust from the broaching operation. In some cases, the pitch and cutting length may be increased to reduce the thrust force. Another possible remedy in surface broaching certain classes of work is to use a side-cutting broach instead of the ordinary depth cutting type. A broach designed for side cutting takes relatively deep narrow cuts which extend nearly to the full depth required. The side cutting section is followed by teeth arranged for depth cutting to obtain the required size and surface finish on the work. In general, small tolerances in surface broaching require a reduced cut per tooth to minimize work deflection resulting from the pressure of the cut. See *Cutting Speed for Broaching* starting on page 1043 for broaching speeds.



Terms Commonly Used in Broach Design

Face Angle or Rake.—The face angle (see diagram) of broach teeth affects the chip flow and varies considerably for different materials. While there are some variations in practice, even for the same material, the angles given in the accompanying table are believed to represent commonly used values. Some broach designers increase the rake angle for finishing teeth in order to improve the finish on the work.

Clearance Angle.—The clearance angle (see illustration) for roughing steel varies from 1.5 to 3 degrees and for finishing steel from 0.5 to 1 degree. Some recommend the same clearance angles for cast iron and others, larger clearance angles varying from 2 to 4 or 5 degrees. Additional data will be found in Table 1.

Land Width.—The width of the land usually is about $0.25 \times$ pitch. It varies, however, from about one-fourth to one-third of the pitch. The land width is selected so as to obtain the proper balance between tooth strength and chip space.

Depth of Broach Teeth.—The tooth depth as established experimentally and on the basis of experience, usually varies from about 0.37 to 0.40 of the pitch. This depth is measured radially from the cutting edge to the bottom of the tooth fillet.

Radius of Tooth Fillet.—The “gullet” or bottom of the chip space between the teeth should have a rounded fillet to strengthen the broach, facilitate curling of the chips, and safeguard against cracking in connection with the hardening operation. One rule is to make the radius equal to one-fourth the pitch. Another is to make it equal 0.4 to 0.6 the tooth depth. A third method preferred by some broach designers is to make the radius equal one-third of the sum obtained by adding together the land width, one-half the tooth depth, and one-fourth of the pitch.

Total Length of Broach.—After the depth of cut per tooth has been determined, the total amount of material to be removed by a broach is divided by this decimal to ascertain the number of cutting teeth required. This number of teeth multiplied by the pitch gives the length of the active portion of the broach. By adding to this dimension the distance over three or four straight teeth, the length of a pilot to be provided at the finishing end of the broach, and the length of a shank which must project through the work and the faceplate of the machine to the draw-head, the overall length of the broach is found. This calculated length is often greater than the stroke of the machine, or greater than is practical for a broach of the diameter required. In such cases, a set of broaches must be used.

Chip Breakers.—The teeth of broaches frequently have rounded chip-breaking grooves located at intervals along the cutting edges. These grooves break up wide curling chips and prevent them from clogging the chip spaces, thus reducing the cutting pressure and strain on the broach. These chip-breaking grooves are on the roughing teeth only. They are staggered and applied to both round and flat or surface broaches. The grooves are formed by a round edged grinding wheel and usually vary in width from about $\frac{1}{32}$ to $\frac{3}{32}$ inch depending upon the size of broach. The more ductile the material, the wider the chip breaker grooves should be and the smaller the distance between them. Narrow slotting broaches may have the right- and left-hand corners of alternate teeth beveled to obtain chip-breaking action.

Shear Angle.—The teeth of surface broaches ordinarily are inclined so they are not at right angles to the broaching movement. The object of this inclination is to obtain a shearing cut which results in smoother cutting action and an improvement in surface finish. The shearing cut also tends to eliminate troublesome vibration. Shear angles for surface broaches are not suitable for broaching slots or any profiles that resist the outward movement of the chips. When the teeth are inclined, the fixture should be designed to resist the resulting thrusts unless it is practicable to incline the teeth of right- and left-hand sections in opposite directions to neutralize the thrust. The shear angle usually varies from 10 to 25 degrees.

Types of Broaching Machines.—Broaching machines may be divided into horizontal and vertical designs, and they may be classified further according to the method of operation, as, for example, whether a broach in a vertical machine is pulled up or pulled down in forcing it through the work. Horizontal machines usually pull the broach through the work in internal broaching but short rigid broaches may be pushed through. External surface broaching is also done on some machines of horizontal design, but usually vertical machines are employed for flat or other external broaching. Although parts usually are broached by traversing the broach itself, some machines are designed to hold the broach or broaches stationary during the actual broaching operation. This principle has been applied both to internal and surface broaching.

Vertical Duplex Type: The vertical duplex type of surface broaching machine has two slides or rams which move in opposite directions and operate alternately. While the broach connected to one slide is moving downward on the cutting stroke, the other broach and slide is returning to the starting position, and this returning time is utilized for reloading the fixture on that side; consequently, the broaching operation is practically continuous. Each ram or slide may be equipped to perform a separate operation on the same part when two operations are required.

Pull-up Type: Vertical hydraulically operated machines which pull the broach or broaches up through the work are used for internal broaching of holes of various shapes, for broaching bushings, splined holes, small internal gears, etc. A typical machine of this kind is so designed that all broach handling is done automatically.

Pull-down Type: The various movements in the operating cycle of a hydraulic pull-down type of machine equipped with an automatic broach-handling slide, are the reverse of the pull-up type. The broaches for a pull-down type of machine have shanks on each end, there being an upper one for the broach-handling slide and a lower one for pulling through the work.

Hydraulic Operation: Modern broaching machines, as a general rule, are operated hydraulically rather than by mechanical means. Hydraulic operation is efficient, flexible in the matter of speed adjustments, low in maintenance cost, and the "smooth" action required for fine precision finishing may be obtained. The hydraulic pressures required, which frequently are 800 to 1000 pounds per square inch, are obtained from a motor-driven pump forming part of the machine. The cutting speeds of broaching machines frequently are between 20 and 30 feet per minute, and the return speeds often are double the cutting speed, or higher, to reduce the idle period.

Broaching Difficulties.—The accompanying table has been compiled from information supplied by the National Broach and Machine Co. and presents some of the common broaching difficulties, their causes and means of correction.

Causes of Broaching Difficulties

Broaching Difficulty	Possible Causes
Stuck broach	<p>Insufficient machine capacity; dulled teeth; clogged chip gullets; failure of power during cutting stroke.</p> <p>To remove a stuck broach, workpiece and broach are removed from the machine as a unit; never try to back out broach by reversing machine. If broach does not loosen by tapping workpiece lightly and trying to slide it off its starting end, mount workpiece and broach in a lathe and turn down workpiece to the tool surface. Workpiece may be sawed longitudinally into several sections in order to free the broach.</p> <p>Check broach design, perhaps tooth relief (back off) angle is too small or depth of cut per tooth is too great.</p>
Galling and pickup	<p>Lack of homogeneity of material being broached—uneven hardness, porosity; improper or insufficient coolant; poor broach design, mutilated broach; dull broach; improperly sharpened broach; improperly designed or outworn fixtures.</p> <p>Good broach design will do away with possible chip build-up on tooth faces and excessive heating. Grinding of teeth should be accurate so that the correct gullet contour is maintained. Contour should be fair and smooth.</p>
Broach breakage	<p>Overloading; broach dullness; improper sharpening; interrupted cutting stroke; backing up broach with workpiece in fixture; allowing broach to pass entirely through guide hole; ill fitting and/or sharp edged key; crooked holes; untrue locating surface; excessive hardness of workpiece; insufficient clearance angle; sharp corners on pull end of broach.</p> <p>When grinding bevels on pull end of broach use wheel that is not too pointed.</p>
Chatter	<p>Too few teeth in cutting contact simultaneously; excessive hardness of material being broached; loose or poorly constructed tooling; surging of ram due to load variations.</p> <p>Chatter can be alleviated by changing the broaching speed, by using shear cutting teeth instead of right angle teeth, and by changing the coolant and the face and relief angles of the teeth.</p>
Drifting or misalignment of tool during cutting stroke	<p>Lack of proper alignment when broach is sharpened in grinding machine, which may be caused by dirt in the female center of the broach; inadequate support of broach during the cutting stroke, on a horizontal machine especially; body diameter too small; cutting resistance variable around I.D. of hole due to lack of symmetry of surfaces to be cut; variations in hardness around I.D. of hole; too few teeth in cutting contact.</p>
Streaks in broached surface	<p>Lands too wide; presence of forging, casting or annealing scale; metal pickup; presence of grinding burrs and grinding and cleaning abrasives.</p>
Rings in the broached hole	<p>Due to surging resulting from uniform pitch of teeth; presence of sharpening burrs on broach; tooth clearance angle too large; locating face not smooth or square; broach not supported for all cutting teeth passing through the work. The use of differential tooth spacing or shear cutting teeth helps in preventing surging. Sharpening burrs on a broach may be removed with a wood block.</p>