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Comparative Study of Robotic And Manual Welding In A Low Volume-High Mix Manufacturing Environment: Case Study Of Tail Gate

Aditya Suggula Minnesota State University, Mankato

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Comparative Study of Robotic And Manual Welding In A Low Volume-High Mix Manufacturing Environment: Case Study Of Tail Gate

By

Aditya Suggula

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Science

In

Manufacturing Engineering Technology

Minnesota State University, Mankato

Mankato, Minnesota

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Comparative study of robotic and manual welding in a low volume-high mix manufacturing

environment: Case study of Tail Gate

Aditya Suggula

This Thesis has been examined and approved by the following members of the student's committee.

Advisor

Committee Member

Committee Member

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Contents

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Disclaimer

This thesis paper represents the collaborative efforts of five students, Aditya Suggula, Mayank Srinivasa Murthy, Niloufer Sarah, Poorna Pragna Mysore and Sai Sasank Pothamsetti, each investigating different segments of the subject matter. While the theoretical framework and foundational concepts may appear identical, underscoring our unified approach and understanding, specific portions of our work, notably the MTM1 analysis and MOST analysis, were undertaken as joint efforts. These sections were collaboratively developed to leverage our collective expertise, ensuring a rigorous and comprehensive examination. Beyond these shared analyses, the calculations and subsequent analyses within our individual papers are distinct, reflecting the unique contributions and insights of each student. This dual approach—combining collaborative and individual efforts—ensures a cohesive theoretical foundation while embracing diversity in analytical perspectives and conclusions across our varied parts.

ABSTRACT

Our study rigorously compared the efficacy of Methods-Time Measurement (MTM 1) and Maynard Operation Sequence Technique (MOST) against actual production times to identify the most accurate and efficient time management frameworks for manufacturing processes. We aimed to discern which method better predicts job completion times in a real-world setting, using a case study that included both manual and robotic welding in the assembly of a truck body part, the tipper tailgate. We discovered notable discrepancies between the predetermined time systems and actual observations, particularly in manual welding tasks. These differences highlighted the complexity of manual tasks, which involve intricate movements not fully accounted for by the predetermined systems. MOST emerged as more effective than MTM 1 in providing a detailed understanding of task execution times, especially in tasks that involve complex positioning. The study also delved into the comparison between the performance of skilled human welders and automated robotic systems. Our findings revealed that while robots can significantly enhance efficiency for simpler, repetitive tasks, the complex assembly work still requires the dexterity and expertise of skilled human welders. Surprisingly, in certain cases, human welders outperformed robots, underscoring the unique strengths and weaknesses of both. The analysis further demonstrated that robotic welding offers superior time efficiency and cost-effectiveness compared to manual welding, particularly as production volume increases. This efficiency translates into significant cost savings and increased production rates, making the case for integrating robotic technology into manufacturing processes compelling. Crucially, the coexistence of skilled welders with collaborative robots (cobots) brings immense benefits, merging human expertise with robotic precision and efficiency. This synergy not only optimizes production quality and speed but also mitigates the impact of skilled labor shortages. By embracing a hybrid approach to welding, manufacturers can achieve a balance between the adaptability

and problem-solving skills of human welders and the consistency and productivity of robotic systems, leading to enhanced operational excellence and competitive advantage in the manufacturing sector.

Introduction:

In the manufacturing sector, several components go through labor-intensive fabrication procedures like welding, stamping, and machining, particularly in businesses like TBEI that specialize in truck bodies and equipment. These parts are essential to heavy-duty vehicle tailgate assemblies because they provide secure and effective cargo handling. The manual welding method for tailgate assembly, especially in smaller firms catering to diverse standards and designs, mainly relies on skilled human labor, even with the developments in automation in manufacturing processes.

The goal of this study is to close the automation gap in the tailgate assembly process by thoroughly analyzing the time-motion of skilled welders. The specifics of hand welding in tailgate fabrication will be the main focus of the investigation of potential automation or robotization in low-volume, high-mix production scenarios. Using the tailgate assembly as the primary research target, this study attempts to identify challenges, opportunities, and viable strategies for enhancing productivity and precision using automated technology.

This research examines the interconnected bond between robots and human employees in the factory setting, acknowledging the opportunity for teamwork and cohabitation to improve manufacturing processes. Its goal is to explore how automation can enhance human welders' abilities and knowledge, aiming to facilitate the seamless incorporation of robotics alongside skilled labor. This integration is intended to optimize productivity and quality in tailgate assembly and other areas.

Welding

Welding involves the joining of materials and can be classified into three main groups: fusion welding, pressure welding, and brazing/soldering. Each group includes different welding methods, selected according to factors such as the materials being joined and the intended functionality of the product. (Giachino, (1973).)

Types of Welding.

Types of Welding:

1. Fusion Welding:

Fusion welding involves melting the base materials or combining them with a welding rod. This category includes methods like arc welding, electron beam, gas, and laser welding. These methods use different energy sources, such as electrical, chemical, or light, to create the necessary heat for melting and joining.

2. Brazing/Soldering:

In brazing/soldering, a filler material (brazing paste) is applied to the joining sections. This category includes induction heating brazing, torch brazing (flame brazing), light beam, and laser brazing. The energy sources for these methods can be electrical, chemical, or light.

Fusion Welding:

Fusion welding, a term frequently used but not universally understood, entails heating two or more objects and joining them without external pressure. (Giachino, (1973).) Depending on the job requirements, filler materials may be incorporated during fusion welding. This distinguishes fusion welding from non-fusion welding, which utilizes lower heat levels, ensuring the base metal does not melt. Examples of non-fusion welding include soldering, pressure welding, and brazing.

Before delving into fusion welding, it is essential to understand welding as a manufacturing process (KEYENCE America, n.d.). Recent research by the American Welding Society highlights the substantial impact of welding, which contributes to 50% of the gross domestic product in the United States. Welding involves utilizing heat to attach two or more similar or non-identical items, with the use of a filler optional based on the nature of the work.

Types of Fusion Welding. Fusion welding, by definition, involves joining heat to connect two edges of either the same or different materials. The heated portions melt and, upon cooling, fuse. In cases of a significant gap between the two pieces, filler material may be employed. The heating process introduces a heat-affected zone within the materials, subjecting the base material to various stages.

Fusion welding occurs when the molten components of the base material mix with the molten filler. This process employs heat to produce an exterior junction at the weld point or melt the material in the joining zone. The FC-120 Gasless Flux Cored Wire Inverter Welding Machine is recognized as a top tool for executing various forms of fusion welding.

Fusion welding is Categorized based on the heat source. Common fusion welding styles include ACR welding and various forms of fusion arc welding (Shielded Metal Arc Welding, Tungsten Inert Gas Welding, Metal Gas Arc Welding, Submerged Arc Welding, Plasma Arc Welding, and Flux Cored Arc Welding). Gas welding, high-energy welding (Electron Beam Welding and Laser Welding), resistance welding (for seams and spot resistance welding), and friction welding (rotary, spot, linear, and stir friction welding) are also prevalent.

Arc Welding.

• Overview: Arc welding stands out as the most popular and widely used type of fusion welding. It relies on an electric arc to join two or more objects of the same or similar materials.

- Process: The electric arc generated in arc welding can reach temperatures of up to 6,000 degrees Fahrenheit, making it capable of melting even the toughest metals. This process involves creating a molten pool at the welding point, allowing the objects to fuse seamlessly.
- Special Features: Arc welding is not confined to conventional settings; it can be performed underwater, making it particularly advantageous for offshore welding projects where traditional welding methods might face challenges.

Laser Welding.

- Laser welding is a technique that employs a lens to focus light with high directivity and convergence, creating a high-energy density beam utilized as the primary heat source.
- By manipulating the laser beam output, penetration welding with a narrow width compared to the depth becomes feasible. Additionally, brazing and soldering can be achieved by melting and joining an alloy with a lower melting point than the base material.
- Notable advancements in laser output efficiency underscore the significance of laser welding in the future of manufacturing. This segment provides an overview of the common technologies employed in laser welding.

Principles of laser welding*.*

- Modulating the intensity and spot size of the laser beam emitted by a laser processing machine facilitates the welding and engraving of letters and patterns on the surface of base materials and cutting operations.
- In laser welding, a significantly stronger laser beam than those used in other processes is the heat source for melting and joining base materials. Employing a high-power output laser necessitates precise control over the beam convergence properties, including wavelength and energy density, and laser beam qualities, such as intensity and beam mode. Despite these requirements, laser welding proves versatile, accommodating delicate applications while excelling in joining both thick and thin plates.

Induction Welding.

- Overview: Induction welding distinguishes itself by relying on a unique principle that does not involve direct contact between an object's surface and the heat source.
- Process: Instead of direct contact, a wrapped coil is employed to create a magnetic field, which, in turn, induces heat in the metal. The magnetic field rapidly heats the metal surfaces, causing them to melt and fuse.
- Advantages: Induction welding offers rapid heating and minimal distortion, making it suitable for specific applications with critical precision and efficiency.

Oxyfuel Welding.

• Overview: Oxyfuel welding is a chemical-based fusion welding process that utilizes a flame to heat and join surfaces, with oxygen as the primary fuel source.

- Process: The fundamental principle is the reliance on oxygen to fuel the fire, creating a hot flame exceeding 4,500 degrees Fahrenheit. This intense heat is applied to the surfaces, allowing them to reach the molten state and fuse.
- Versatility: Oxyfuel welding is versatile and finds application in various industries, particularly where a portable and easily controllable heat source is required.

Solid Reactant Welding.

- Overview: Solid reactant welding is a fusion welding type that leverages chemical reactions with specific materials to achieve the joining process.
- Process: Certain compounds can generate heat when mixed. Solid reactant welding utilizes this principle, initiating chemical reactions that produce the required heat to join two or more objects.
- Applications: This type of fusion welding is applied in scenarios where chemical reactions can be harnessed for welding purposes, offering a unique approach to joining materials.

Non-Consumable (Non-Fusible) Electrode Type.

TIG Welding (Tungsten Inert Gas Welding). TIG welding, also known as Gas Tungsten Arc Welding (GTAW), falls under the non-consumable electrode category. TIG (Tungsten Inert Gas) welding employs an inert gas in the welding process. This particular arc welding method is characterized by its spark-free nature and is suitable for welding various metals, including stainless steel, aluminum, and iron. Non-consumable tungsten is the discharge electrode, while an inert gas such as argon or helium acts as the shielding gas. The process initiates an arc within the inert gas, utilizing the generated arc heat to melt and weld the base material. Despite the use of filler material, instances of spatter are minimal due to the inert gas's comprehensive coverage of the weld area, ensuring a stable arc.

Figure 1:

TIG welding (Messler, 1999)

A semi-automatic TIG welding machine comprises essential components, including the welding power supply, welding torch, and a gas cylinder with a gas flow controller. Additional instruments may be incorporated, especially when using a water-cooled torch or filler material in wire form.

The choice of electric current polarity (positive or negative) depends on the base material, necessitating a controller in the welding power supply to select the appropriate polarity accordingly. (Messler, 1999)

The welding process in TIG welding involves various classifications based on factors such as AC or DC power usage, the application of pulse or non-pulse current, and whether a filler wire is utilized.

The choice of AC or DC is contingent upon the base material being used. Additionally, the option of pulse or non-pulse current is available. Pulse TIG welding, for instance, involves the alternating change of welding current at a constant frequency between pulse current and base current. This results in periodic melting of the base material during the pulse current and subsequent cooling during the base current, creating weld spots resembling a string of beads. Furthermore, TIG welding can be categorized into two types based on a filler wire: cold and hot. Cold wire welding utilizes a standard filler wire, while hot wire welding preheats the wire by passing a current through it. Hotwire welding offers the advantage of increasing the deposition rate per unit time, allowing for quicker completion of the welding process. This addresses the time-consuming aspect of TIG welding, where highquality welds are achieved but may take longer due to the gradual melting of the required filler material.

Table 1

Key Features of TIG Welding include:

- Precision Welding: TIG welding allows for precise and intricate welds, making it suitable for applications where accuracy is crucial.
- Clean Welds: Using inert gas prevents atmospheric contamination, producing clean and high-quality welds.
- Versatility: TIG welding applies to various materials, including exotic metals and thin sheets.

Plasma Welding.

- Plasma welding is another non-consumable electrode type that shares similarities with TIG welding but utilizes a more focused plasma arc. Characteristics of plasma welding include:
- Increased Energy Density: The focused plasma arc increases energy density, allowing deeper penetration into the material.
- Enhanced Welding Speed: Plasma welding is known for its increased welding speed, contributing to efficiency in various applications.
- Narrower Heat-Affected Zone: The concentrated heat minimizes the size of the heat-affected zone, reducing potential distortions.

Consumable (Fusible) Electrode Type.

Shielded Metal Arc Welding (SMAW). Shielded Metal Arc Welding, commonly known as stick welding, is a consumable electrode type where a coated electrode is used. Shielded metal arc welding (SMAW) illustrates consumable (fusible) electrode-type arc welding. It employs a metal rod (known as a shielded metal arc welding rod) crafted from the same material as the base material, serving as the electrode. The arc between the electrode's core wire and the base material functions as the heat source.

The resulting molten metal is enveloped by the gas and glass-like slag produced from the shield of the core wire. This process boasts the advantage of being less susceptible to interference from wind or other external disturbances at the worksite due to the shielding provided by the gas and slag. Additionally, a shielding tube forms at the tip of the welding rod. SMAW has a rich history. It is often performed manually and earned the moniker manual arc welding. While its prevalence has diminished with the proliferation of automatic or semiautomatic MAG welding machines utilizing carbon dioxide (CO2), SMAW continues to find

applications owing to its merits of facilitating quick and straightforward welding indoors and outdoors, coupled with relatively inexpensive equipment. (Messler, 1999)

Figure 2

Shielded Metal Arc Welding (SMAW) (Messler, 1999)

Features of SMAW include:

- Versatility: SMAW is versatile and can be applied to various materials and joint configurations.
- Portability: It is suitable for outdoor and remote applications, offering portability and ease of use.
- Cost-Effective: SMAW equipment is generally more affordable, making it a cost-effective choice for specific applications.

MAG Welding (Metal Active Gas Welding). Metal Active Gas Welding, or MAG

welding, is a consumable electrode type that employs a continuously fed wire and a shielding gas with active components. MAG (Metal Active Gas) welding, or CO2 arc welding or CO2 welding, is a form of arc welding that employs an active gas, typically carbon dioxide (CO2)

or a gas mixture of argon and CO2. Primarily utilized for automatic or semi-automatic welding of ferrous metals, MAG welding is unsuitable for nonferrous metals like aluminum due to the chemical reactions involving CO2.

In automatic or semi-automatic MAG welding, a coiled welding wire is an electrode, replacing the welding rod used in manual shielded metal arc welding. The coiled wire is connected to the wire feed unit and automatically directed to the torch tip by a feed roller driven by an electric motor. Upon passing through the contact tip, the wire is energized.

The welding process involves striking an arc between the wire and the base material. This simultaneous melting of the wire and base material creates a weld. Throughout this process, shielding gas is introduced through a nozzle into the weld area and its surroundings, forming a protective shield around the arc and weld pool, preventing exposure to the atmosphere. CO2 gas, a gas mix of argon and CO2, or a mix of argon with a small percentage of oxygen can be used as the shielding gas. Compared to shielded metal arc welding, MAG welding boasts a faster deposition rate, where the electrode transforms into weld metal. This results in increased work efficiency, which is attributed to deep penetration into the base material. Other notable advantages include high-quality weld metal and the ability to achieve automatic welding by installing the welding torch on a robot.

A semi-automatic MAG welding machine mainly consists of the following:

- Welding power supply
- Wire feed unit
- Welding torch
- Gas cylinder

The feed unit must feed the wire at a constant speed. Consequently, a constant-voltage characteristic power supply is generally used for the welding power supply. The wire feed unit is a continuous speed feeding type.

Figure 3

Flow chart on the different MAG welding techniques.

Key attributes include:

- High Productivity: MAG welding offers high deposition rates, making it suitable for rapid welding applications.
- Automated Processes: MAG welding is commonly used in automated systems, enhancing efficiency and precision.
- Adaptability: It is suitable for various materials and thicknesses, providing versatility in welding processes.

MIG Welding (Metal Inert Gas Welding). MIG welding, or Gas Metal Arc Welding (GMAW), is similar to MAG welding but typically uses inert gases for shielding. MIG (Metal Inert Gas) welding is another arc welding method. Similar to TIG welding, it utilizes an inert gas as a shielding gas. MIG welding belongs to the consumable electrode type,

involving a discharge electrode that melts during welding. (Understanding the Fusion Welding Process - Arc Machines, n.d.)

This welding technique is commonly employed for joining stainless steel or aluminum alloy workpieces, and the choice of shielding gas depends on the specific metal to be welded. The electrode in MIG welding is a coiled welding wire, connected to the wire feed unit, which automatically moves to the torch tip through a feed roller powered by an electric motor. The wire is energized upon passing through the contact tip, initiating an arc between the wire and the base material. Simultaneously melting the wire and base material, this process forms the weld. Throughout the operation, shielding gas is delivered through a nozzle into the weld area and its surroundings to create a protective shield around the arc and weld pool, preventing exposure to the atmosphere.

Figure 4

MIG Welding. (Messler, 1999)

Table 2

Classification of MIG Welding

Notable features of MIG welding include

- Ease of Use: MIG welding is known for its user-friendly nature, making it suitable for beginners and manual applications.
- High Productivity: The continuous wire feeding mechanism contributes to high productivity in various welding processes.
- Reduced Cleanup: MIG welding minimizes spatter and fumes, reducing the need for extensive post-weld cleanup.

Electro gas Arc Welding (EGW). Electro-gas Arc Welding is a consumable electrode type that involves welding in a vertical position with a continuously fed consumable electrode and a gas shield. The Electro gas arc welding (EGW)technique was developed to facilitate efficient vertical position welding of thick plates with stable penetration. The primary shielding gas employed in EGW is commonly CO2, although variations using argon gas, gas mixes of argon and CO2, oxygen, or helium are also prevalent. Flux-cored wires, which generate slag to form a clean bead, are predominantly utilized for welding wire, although solid wires find application in specific cases. The welding power supply is typically a DC constant-voltage or constant-current (drooping) characteristic power supply.

During the process, the weld pool is enclosed by the end of the base material, a copper shoe, and a fire-resistant backing. Vertical position welding is executed upwards, preventing the dripping of molten metal and enabling the welding of a thick plate in a single pass (one operation). Noteworthy advantages include a rapid deposition rate facilitated by a large current, high efficiency, and a relatively substantial margin for groove accuracy due to minimal angular distortion.

EGW finds application in welding vertical butt joints of various products, including ship's shell plates, bridges, storage tanks, and pressure vessels.

Characteristics of EGW include:

- Vertical Welding: EGW is particularly effective for vertical welding of thick plates, providing high-quality welds.
- High Deposition Rates: The process allows for high deposition rates, improving efficiency in specific applications.
- Reduced Distortion: Electro-gas arc welding reduces distortion due to its vertical welding orientation.

Applications of Fusion Welding:

Fusion welding finds extensive applications in constructing significant structures like airplanes, bridges, ships, pressure tanks, and welded pipes. Its versatility allows the merging of various materials, regardless of thickness, owing to the substantial heat levels generated during the process.

Fusion Welding in Different Materials:

- Metal Joining: Fusion welding involves intense heat to unite two or more metal pieces. Unlike soldering, fusion welding melts the base metal and may require a filler material to create a junction. As the molten components cool, they come together to produce a weld bead, resulting in a final product more durable than the starting material.
- Plastics Joining: Fusion welding is applicable in joining polymers, whereas solvent welding employs adhesives. The process involves washing and drying surfaces, applying pressure and heat to the molten component, and finally cooling the molten components to solidify the link between the two polymers.
- Wood Materials Joining: Fusion welding for wood components requires heat production through mechanical friction. This involves subjecting materials to high pressure, followed by linear friction, generating heat to fuse two wooden components. The process is simple,

eliminating the need for nails or adhesive, and results in a more robust finished product while preserving the original design.

Pros and Cons of Fusion Welding.

Pros:

- Use of Filler Material: Fusion welding allows the use of filler material when joining two wide sections.
- No External Pressure: The absence of external pressure preserves the initial shape of the welded components.
- Minimal Edge Design and Preparation: Fusion welding does not necessarily require intricate edge design and preparation, simplifying the process.
- Durable Welded Joints: Fusion welding produces robust joints between parent materials.
- Suitable for Industrial Processes: Fusion welding's speed and simplicity make it well-suited for various industrial applications.

Cons:

- Challenges with Dissimilar Materials: Joining two materials with different melting points can be challenging.
- Stress and Damage: Fusion welding may induce stress and damage on the welded component due to the need for fusion and solidification.
- Alteration of Parent Material: The original structure of the parent material changes the heating process.

• Heat-Affected Zone Weakness: The linked parts create a heat-affected zone, generally considered the weakest point in the entire structure.

Other Unique forms of welding.

- Electron Beam (light beam) Welding:
- Pressure Welding
- Friction welding

Electron Beam Welding. Electron beam (EB) welding relies on the emission of electrons in a vacuum tube or Braun tube. This welding method is primarily executed in a vacuum, known as high-vacuum welding. It stands out for its ability to minimize distortion across various applications, accommodating thick to thin plates and intricate welding requirements. In recent advancements, electron beam welding machines have been designed to operate effectively without a perfect vacuum (low-vacuum welding machines) or by incorporating a moving electron gun (moving electron gun welding machines), broadening the scope of potential applications.

Applications for electron beam welding include ship's shell plates, bridges, storage tanks, aircraft parts, and electronic components. In the realm of electronic components, a process known as electron beam sealing is employed to seal crystal oscillators that require joining in a vacuum. This involves vacuum brazing sealing, achieved by melting the filler material between a metal lid and a ceramic package through heat conduction induced by the electron beam. (Sterkenburg, 2021)

Pressure Welding: Pressure welding is a fundamental technique in metal joining processes. Unlike fusion welding, where heat is the primary agent, pressure welding requires force to create a solid and durable bond between materials. This process is extensively used in various industries due to its efficiency, precision, and versatility.

Types of Pressure Welding:

- Cold Welding
	- 1. Cold welding occurs at or near room temperature without applying external heat. This technique is particularly suitable for materials with high ductility.
	- 2. Commonly used in joining similar metals, cold welding relies on clean surfaces and high pressure to create a strong bond.
- Explosion Welding
	- 1. Explosion welding utilizes explosive forces to create a high-velocity collision between two materials, leading to their metallurgical bonding.
	- 2. This technique is effective for joining dissimilar metals, offering advantages in terms of versatility and compatibility.
- Ultrasonic Welding
	- 1. Ultrasonic welding employs high-frequency ultrasonic vibrations to generate localized heat and pressure, facilitating welding.
	- 2. Ultrasonic welding offers rapid and precise bonding, commonly used to assemble plastics and non-ferrous metals.

Friction Welding:

- Friction welding involves rotating one component against another, generating heat through friction. Once the materials reach a plastic state, pressure is applied to achieve a solid weld.
- This technique is versatile, applicable to similar and dissimilar materials, and particularly effective in joining cylindrical components.
- This technique induces high-speed friction between the base materials, be it metal or resin, causing them to soften through the generated heat. Subsequently, pressure is applied to facilitate their joining.
- Notably considered an environmentally friendly joining method, it eliminates the need for an external heat source beyond friction heat. Additionally, it removes the necessity for welding rods or flux, and unlike arc welding or gas welding, it produces no spatter or gas.
- Friction welding can be precisely controlled based on friction thrust (pushing force), rotation speed, and time. With these parameters numerically controlled, friction welding can be automated without human intervention, making it widely utilized in factory automation (FA).
- A notable variant of friction welding is Friction Stir Welding (FSW), which has garnered significant attention. In this process, a cylindrical tool with a probe (protrusion) rotates at high speed, and the tool is moved so that the probe digs along the joining section with high pressure.
- The tool's rotational motion softens the base materials, stirring the area around the weld to induce plastic deformation and atomic bonding between the materials.

Brazing/Soldering Welding (Messler, 1999)*:*

Brazing. Brazing, a welding method utilizing filler materials with high melting points, encompasses various techniques. Torch brazing utilizes a conventional gas welding torch for heat, while induction heating brazing employs high-frequency induction heating. Controlled atmosphere brazing inside a vacuum furnace without flux involves heating and cooling the base and filler materials. These methods find applications in the non-oxidizing brazing of stainless steel and the automated joining of titanium and ceramic workpieces.

In recent times, laser brazing has emerged as a noteworthy brazing technique. Laser brazing utilizes light energy (laser) to melt a wire-shaped filler material supplied between base materials for joining. This process minimizes the melting of the base materials, resulting in reduced thermal deformation. Consequently, lightweight, and highly rigid joining can be achieved without compromising product design.

Resistance spot welding was traditionally employed for joining automobile roofs, side panels, and trunk lids. This involved additional processes like creating a groove for resistance spot welding and covering the part with molding to conceal the groove and weld spots. Laser brazing, on the other hand, preserves the appearance of the base material, eliminating the need for processes such as working the groove and preparing molding. Moreover, laser brazing significantly enhances joint strength and joining speed compared to resistance spot welding, making it a preferred choice in the automotive and other industries, particularly in Europe and Japan.

Soldering. In brazing and soldering, soldering is a joining method employing filler materials with low melting points. In contrast to brazing, soldering harnesses a light beam as its heat source. This section delves into the intricacies of soldering, a technique frequently employed for detailed joining work. Traditional soldering relies on heat generated by an electric current, often facilitated by a soldering iron. Variants of soldering methods encompass dip and reflow soldering, where components are united by immersing them in molten solder.

Light beam soldering has gained prominence in recent years, particularly in producing electronic components within the realm of factory automation. In this process, light emanating from a high-power source is collected by a reflector and precisely focused on the welding point. Soldering is then executed utilizing the energy derived from the light. Leveraging solders with low melting temperatures (soft filler materials) and enabling the utilization of robots for meticulous joining proves invaluable for assembly automation and the mass production of heat-sensitive electronic components.

Welding Automation:

The realm of welding has undergone a transformative shift, propelled by the widespread adoption and decreasing costs of factory automation (FA) equipment due to advancements in digital technology. This evolution has seen welding methods progress from manual to semi-automatic to fully automatic welding. Simultaneously, the integration of robot welding has witnessed substantial growth, particularly in industries like automotive, where it has become an indispensable component for optimizing welding processes. This surge in robot usage is bolstered by cutting-edge instruments such as sensors, displacement meters, controllers, and programmable logic controllers (PLCs), which enable swift, precise detection, and feedback control. The incorporation of robots into welding procedures is on a steady rise.

Robotic Welding:

Robotic welding entails employing a robotic arm to grasp and maneuver the welding torch, with the robot programmed to execute a specific torch movement pattern to achieve the desired weld. Equipped with sensors, the robot continually monitors the welding process, making adjustments as required (Chen, 2014) (Wang, 2020) (Zheng, 2022) (Pedersen, 2016) (Lopes, 2017).

Controlled by a specialized computer program tailored for welding, the robot receives torch movement and manipulation instructions. It also integrates feedback from monitoring sensors to adapt during the welding process. A typical robotic welding system comprises various essential components harmonizing to automate welding tasks:

• Robot: This is primarily responsible for physically executing the welding, typically realized through a multi-axis robotic arm under computer control.

- Welding Equipment: Encompasses the welding power source, torch, and additional equipment like wire feeders, gas supplies, and control panels.
- Control System: This involves the computer orchestrating robot movements, the power supply for welding equipment, and other peripherals such as sensors and cameras.
- Programming: This involves utilizing specialized software that enables users to define robot movements, power supply parameters, and other necessary settings for the welding process.

The operation of the robotic welding system:

1. The robot is instructed to follow a specific pattern tailored to the shape of the workpiece.

2. Activating the welding equipment, the welding torch is brought into contact with the workpiece.

3. Utilizing feedback from sensors, cameras, or other peripherals, the robot's control system adjusts its position and movement to ensure a consistent weld along the workpiece edges.

4. The robot progresses along the programmed path, executing the welding process as it advances.

5. Upon completion of welding, the robot and welding equipment are deactivated, and the workpiece is removed.

Notably, the robotic welding system can incorporate advanced technologies such as machine vision, sensor-based feedback control, and artificial intelligence to enhance its performance, precision, and flexibility.

List of sensors & systems necessary for the robots to function:

Systems:

- Control Systems
- Programming
- Machine Vision
- 2D machine vision
- Open CV

Sensors:

- Camera-based sensors
- Force Based Sensors
- Position Sensors
- Temperature Sensors
- Current Sensors
- Gas Sensors
- Proximity Sensors

Features of the robot for welding purposes. Several essential characteristics are necessary for a robot to engage in welding which includes (Lei, 2020) (Pires J. N., 2006) (Xu, 2017):

1. Substantial payload capacity: Welding robots need to support the weight of welding equipment and execute welding tasks effectively.

2. Precise and consistent performance: Achieving consistent, high-quality welds demands robots with precise movements and repeatability.

3. Sturdy construction: Maintaining rigidity and stiffness is crucial for welding robots to ensure accurate welding.

4. Swift motion and acceleration: Efficient welding requires robots capable of swift movement and rapid acceleration.

5. Resistance to high temperatures: Welding robots should endure high temperatures and harsh conditions inherent in welding processes.

6. Management of welding torch: Robots must manage the welding torch adeptly, maintaining a steady distance and angle relative to the workpiece.

7. Versatility in welding processes: Welding robots must accommodate various welding techniques such as MIG, TIG, and Stick welding.

8. Incorporation of safety measures: Robots should include safety features like emergency stop buttons, light curtains, and fire suppression systems to safeguard operators from welding hazards.

9. Adaptability: Flexibility is essential for welding robots to operate effectively across diverse environments and tasks.

Robots for welding:

Various types of robots are commonly employed for welding purposes (Herath, 2022) (Siciliano, 2016) (Kurfess, 2018) (Tsai, 1999):

1. Articulated Robots: Equipped with multiple rotary joints allowing movement in various directions, articulated robots are capable of handling heavy loads and performing precise tasks, making them well-suited for welding. Their flexibility and adaptability in welding applications have been extensively studied (Yoshikawa, 1985) (Tomei, 1990).

2. SCARA Robots: With two parallel rotary joints enabling movement in the X-Y plane, SCARA robots are known for their precision and repeatability, making them a suitable option for welding tasks (de Luca, 2005) (Pires J. N., 2007).

3. Delta Robots: Featuring three parallel rotary joints for movement in the X-Y-Z plane, delta robots offer high precision and repeatability, particularly beneficial for welding tasks that require high speed and acceleration (Isla, 2013) (Craig, 2018).

4. Cartesian Robots: Equipped with three linear joints allowing movement in the X-Y-Z plane, Cartesian robots demonstrate high precision and repeatability, making them well-suited for welding tasks that demand utmost accuracy and precision (Tomei, 1990) (de Luca, 2005).

5. Collaborative Robots (Co-bots): Designed for safe interaction with humans, collaborative robots are useful in welding applications. Lightweight and easy to use, they can be programmed for a wide range of tasks. (Groover, 2008) (Dhillon, 2002).

Table 3:

Types of robots used in welding.

Co-bots – Collaborative Robots in Welding:

Co-bots, or collaborative robots, represent a robotic system engineered to collaborate with humans within a shared workspace. They typically possess smaller frames and greater flexibility compared to traditional industrial robots, incorporating sensors and safety features to ensure safe operation in close proximity to humans. Co-bots find various applications in robotic welding in reconfigurable systems. One key advantage is their flexibility and adaptability. Due to their compact size and flexibility, co-bots can seamlessly integrate into reconfigurable systems and transition between workstations as required.

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Another benefit of employing co-bots for robotic welding within reconfigurable systems is their capacity to operate safely alongside humans. This fosters a more efficient and flexible workflow, with co-bots assuming tasks deemed hazardous or monotonous for human workers. Furthermore, co-bots can be outfitted with machine vision systems, enabling realtime monitoring of the welding process to identify defects or deviations from desired weld specifications. This capability facilitates prompt adjustments to enhance weld precision and quality. Moreover, co-bots often have sensors and safety features to detect and respond to environmental changes or obstacles. This capability proves invaluable in reconfigurable systems where co-bots must adapt to varying workstations and tasks.

In summary, leveraging co-bots for robotic welding in reconfigurable systems offers numerous advantages, including enhanced flexibility, adaptability, safety, and superior quality control. Their ease of integration and mobility between workstations are particularly beneficial in environments where system layouts and functions undergo constant modifications.

Examples of Co-bots. Numerous instances exist where co-bots are employed for welding tasks within low-volume production settings. Some illustrations encompass:

- The Universal Robots UR10 co-bot is frequently utilized for arc welding, resistance welding, and spot welding in low-volume production scenarios. Renowned for its ease of programming and adaptability, it seamlessly integrates with diverse welding tools like torch holders, wire feeders, and fume extractors.
- The Fanuc CR-35iA co-bot is explicitly engineered for MIG welding in low-volume production environments. Its compact design and substantial payload capacity make it suitable for various welding applications.
- The KUKA LBR iiwa co-bot, characterized by its lightweight and compact structure, ideally suited for effortless integration into low-volume production settings. It commonly undertakes spot welding, tack welding, and other precision welding duties.
- The ABB IRB 1200 co-bot is tailored for spot, seam, and precision welding tasks. Compact and adaptable, it seamlessly integrates into low-volume production environments.
- The Yaskawa Motoman MH50 co-bot is a versatile option capable of undertaking MIG welding, TIG welding, and other welding assignments. It is specifically designed for lowvolume production settings and interfaces with a variety of welding tools.

These examples underscore just a fraction of the co-bots utilized for welding within lowvolume production environments. Optimal co-bot selection hinges on factors such as the specific welding techniques employed, the layout and dimensions of the production area, and the precise demands of the task at hand.

Time and motion study:

Time and motion analysis is a systematic strategy for analyzing labor procedures, identifying inefficiencies, and increasing efficiency in industrial settings. This methodology is built on various time study methodologies, each with its own advantages and uses. It is used to minimize unnecessary work, organize the remaining work in the best possible sequence, standardize suitable work procedures, and define precise time standards for the task. In Time and motion study, fundamental motions or sets of motions that are challenging to assess using traditional stopwatch time study procedures accurately are assigned primary motion times, synthetic timings, or predefined times. Instead, timing devices like motion picture cameras or videotape machines can measure extremely short parts, and these times are calculated by analyzing a large sample of diverse actions. The synthetic results combine logical groupings of basic motions (therbligs) and are predefined to forecast standard times for newly created activities arising from modifications to the methods.

History of time study:

Industrial engineering and management methods have developed around time and motion analysis to improve productivity and efficiency at work. This method examines and quantifies the amount of time and fundamental movements required to complete activities to determine standard labor durations. The development of time and motion studies over a century ago is reflected in its history, significantly impacting contemporary engineering and management techniques.

The Genesis: Frederick W. Taylors scientific management. In the late 19th century, Frederick W. Taylor, who is frequently hailed as the father of scientific management, laid the groundwork for the study of time and motion. Through his groundbreaking research, Taylor (1911) popularized the idea of breaking down tasks into their fundamental motions and

timing these to determine the most productive ways to do a task. His groundbreaking book "The Principles of Scientific Management," which promoted a scientific method of examining work processes, set the foundation for later research (Taylor, 1911).

The Gilbreths innovations. Frank B. and Lillian M. Gilbreth developed the methodology by adding the notion of therbligs, or the fundamental movements needed to do work, building on Taylor's concepts. Motion picture cameras were a breakthrough that the Gilbreths used to examine workers' movements. This allowed for extensive motion analysis and the creation of better work procedures (Gilbreth & Gilbreth, 1917).

Mid-20th-century development. Time and motion studies became widely accepted in various sectors during the 1920s and 1940s. Under the influence of Gilbreths and others, the approaches changed to consider worker weariness and ergonomics (Barnes, 1980). In order to swiftly and precisely calculate work rates following World War II, there was a trend toward the use of fundamental motion times and preset time systems, such as Work Factor, Methods-Time Measurement (MTM), and the Maynard Operation Sequence Technique (MOST) (Maynard, 1948).

Modern Applications. Modern time and motion studies have incorporated cuttingedge technologies since the late 20th century. Computer simulations, software, and recording technologies have expedited the process, making it suitable for a variety of industries outside of traditional manufacturing, such as healthcare and services. The goal is to balance ergonomics, worker satisfaction, and production (Sullivan, 2002).

Predetermined time systems: MTM and MOST. Methods-Time Measurement (MTM) and the Maynard Operation Sequence Technique (MOST) are notable developments in time and motion studies approaches. MTM, created in the 1940s, offers a methodical way to examine jobs and establish time requirements using predetermined motion timings. This

method is further improved by MOST, a derivation of MTM, which provides effective methods for determining work rates (Maynard, 1948) (Zandin, 2001).

Figure 5:

Types of Time and Motion study methodologies:

The techniques that supported time and motion studies changed dramatically as technology advanced. These studies were initially mainly manual in nature, requiring each move to be meticulously recorded and examined by hand. Although efficient, this method required much time and was prone to human mistakes. The development of electronic technology as we entered the digital era completely changed how time and motion investigations are carried out. These contemporary approaches use computing capacity to group motions together according to their similarities, improving analytical accuracy and efficiency. This change improved productivity and operational performance by streamlining the process and enabling a more sophisticated and nuanced understanding of workflows. The many time and motion study types are listed below.

MTM-1(Methods - Time Measurement-1). By providing time values for the seven basic motions—reach, move, turn, grip, position, disengage, and release—MTM-1 establishes the foundation. Its methodology involves examining motion picture videos frame by frame across a variety of work areas, then rating and tabulating the results to ascertain how different attributes, like weight and distance, affect the motion times. With the introduction of MTM-1, manual operations were systematically broken down into their component motions, and time criteria were assigned in advance that considered the specifics of each motion. This system is the foundation for further MTM tiers and specialized systems that concentrate on intricate and particular motion analysis.

MTM-2(Methods - Time Measurement-2). Designed to extend the application of MTM to places where the level of information in MTM-1 could be too costly, MTM-2 breaks down data into less complex, synthesized groups that are appropriate for most motion sequences. The major focus of MTM analysis is still on single and combined fundamental motions, but it is expanded to cover a broader range of tasks. MTM-2 offers a compromise between detail and practicality, and it excels in tasks where the manual phase of the work cycle requires fewer intricate or simultaneous hand movements.

MTM-3(Methods - Time Measurement-3). MTM-3 is a further simplification that aims to reduce time at the expense of some accuracy. It is most appropriate for activities where the main goal is to achieve moderately accurate and relatively quick time standards. MTM-3 simplifies analysis for tasks that do not require the fine detail of MTM-1 or MTM-2 by narrowing the system down to only four categories of manual motions. This is a practical option where speed is of the essence.

Specialized Systems: MTM-V, MTM-C, and MTM-M. Beyond the general-

purpose systems of MTM-1, MTM-2, and MTM-3, the MTM family includes specialized systems tailored to specific industry needs. MTM-V addresses the unique requirements of metal-cutting operations, which are particularly beneficial in short-run machine shops. MTM-C caters to the banking and insurance industries, providing standards for clerical-related tasks. Lastly, MTM-M offers a solution for evaluating operator work in microminiature manufacturing, a growing field where traditional time study methods fall short.

MOST (Maynard Operation Sequence Technique). The MOST system originated from the MTM system and was created to meet the demand for faster analysis without compromising accuracy. Maxi-MOST, Mini-MOST, and Basic-MOST are the three stages of analysis that make up the structured approach, each of which is designed to accommodate varying operation lengths and frequencies. These vary from very short and frequent jobs that are best studied by Mini-MOST to long, uncommon operations that are best analyzed by Maxi-MOST. For operations of moderate length and frequency, Basic-MOST acts as an intermediary.

The time study analysis of the welding processes in this work was conducted using the MTM-1 and MOST methodologies. MTM-1 provides a comprehensive and detailed version of the time and motion study, while MOST is the most recent and extensively utilized technique among all time and motion studies. We aimed to determine which of the two approaches worked better for a comparable procedure.

Applications of Time and Motion Study.

1. Improving Work Methods:

Time and motion studies are utilized to evaluate current work practices and pinpoint opportunities for improvement. By dissecting tasks into their individual acts, inefficiencies or pointless motions can be removed, resulting in more productive and efficient work processes.

2. Labor Cost Reduction:

Streamlining operations can shorten task completion times. Because workers can accomplish more activities in the same period, this time reduction can result in significant labor cost reductions.

3. Productivity Enhancement:

Time and motion studies can result in notable increases in productivity by carefully analyzing and optimizing each motion and step in a process. To do this, duties are streamlined, unnecessary effort is decreased, and elimination unnecessary steps.

4. Ergonomic Improvements:

Time and motion studies also examine employees' physical movements to create workflows that lessen fatigue and injury risk. This may promote a better work environment and lower the risk of musculoskeletal problems at work.

5. Quality Improvement:

Standardizing the most effective work practices identified by time and motion studies can minimize variability in task execution. As procedures become more standardized, quality may increase.

6. Workforce Allocation and Capacity Planning:

These studies assist firms in comprehending the amount of time needed for various jobs and procedures, which is essential for capacity planning. Comprehending the actual duration of jobs aids in more precise workload estimation and efficient workforce distribution.

7. Performance Measurement and Benchmarking:

Time and motion studies offer a benchmark for measuring performance by creating standards based on the most productive work practices. These benchmarks can compare employee performance and pinpoint areas needing development.

Methods - Time Measurement (MTM-1):

A foundational method in the time and motion study field, the Methods-Time Measurement (MTM) system, specifically MTM-1, is designed to optimize productivity through the analysis of manual work processes. MTM-1 is distinguished by its precise and methodical approach, which deconstructs manual tasks into basic motions that are each given a preset time standard. This section explores MTM-1's operational mechanics and offers information on its methodology and use in industrial engineering.

Core Ideas of MTM-1. The core concept of MTM-1 is that every manual labor can be broken down into a set of fundamental movements. These movements include, but are not limited to, reach, move, turn, grasp, position, disengage, and release. The process is based on a thorough analysis of tasks to identify these constituent motions and the application of specified time values to each based on empirical data collecting and considerable research.

The MTM-1 Methodology *(Maynard, 1948)***.**

• Manual Operation Analysis:

The first stage in the MTM-1 process involves thoroughly examining the manual operation under study. This means breaking down the operation into its individual movements. For this kind of study, it's frequently necessary to record and analyze the motions involved in the work using high-speed motion picture cameras or video analysis.

Finding the Basic Motions:

After the operation has been recorded, the following stage is to find the basic motions that the task requires. The MTM system's standardized collection of fundamental motions is the foundation for this identification procedure. Depending on the type of task being carried out, each of these motions—known as therbligs—is categorized (e.g., reaching for an object, moving an object, rotating an object).

• Time Value Assignment:

Each recognized basic motion is assigned a preset time value. Time measurement units, or TMUs, are used to express these time values. One TMU is equal to 0.036 seconds. The time values are obtained by thoroughly examining the motion's characteristics and the environment in which it is performed, accounting for variables including distance traveled, object weight, and motion complexity.

• Calculation and Evaluation:

Several parameters that affect the duration of each motion are taken into consideration while rating and tabulating the motion picture analysis data. This involves examining motion properties, like reach and item weight, when moving an object. Precise time standards calculation is aided by comprehensive tables and charts that offer time values for many scenarios.

• Calculation of Standard Times:

The overall time required for a task can be determined by adding up the times for each of the fundamental motions involved. The total indicates how long a worker would typically need to complete the assignment under typical working circumstances.

• Allowance Incorporation:

The tabulated numbers only take fundamental motions' direct times into consideration. To create a thorough time standard for the activity, extra time must be allotted for personal needs, exhaustion, and inevitable delays on top of the basic time.

Figure 6:

Normal Time Values for MTM Motion Element- Reach (Freivalds, 2014)

Figure 7:

Normal Time Values for MTM motion element - Grasp (G) (Freivalds, 2014)

Figure 9:

Normal Time Values for MTM motion element - Position (P) (Freivalds, 2014)

Figure 10:

Normal Time Values for MTM motion element - Release (R) (Freivalds, 2014)

Figure 11:

Normal Time Values for MTM motion element - Apply Pressure (AP) (Freivalds, 2014)

Figure 12:

MOST (Maynard Operation Sequence Technique):

The Maynard Operation Sequence Technique (MOST) is a highly structured, predetermined time measurement system designed to streamline the establishment of time standards for manual work tasks. Developed by Zandin in 1980 and initially applied at Saab-Scania in Sweden in 1967, MOST is an evolution of the Methods-Time Measurement (MTM) system, engineered to offer a faster yet equally precise alternative for time analysis. This methodology significantly reduces the time required to establish standards, performing analyses at least five times faster than MTM-1 without a notable sacrifice in accuracy. MOST is distinguished by its applicability across a wide spectrum of operations. It is categorized

into three hierarchical levels based on the task's frequency and duration: Maxi-MOST, Basic-MOST, and Mini-MOST. (NIEBEL, 1988) (Freivalds, 2014).

MOST Structure. MOST is organized into three levels to accommodate various operation lengths and frequencies:

- Maxi-MOST: This level is tailored for long, infrequent operations ranging from 2 minutes to several hours that occur less than 150 times per week. It offers rapid analysis with a trade-off in precision, suitable for tasks with high variability.
- Basic-MOST: This is the intermediate level, optimized for tasks lasting 0.5 to 3 minutes. It is also the most commonly applied level, designed for operations that do not fit the criteria for Maxi-MOST or Mini-MOST.
- Mini-MOST: Applies to very short, highly repetitive tasks under 1.6 minutes in length, repeated more than 1500 times a week. Mini-MOST is characterized by its detailed and precise analysis, catering to operations with minimal variability.

MOST Sequence Models. MOST methodology revolves around three basic sequence models, each targeting specific types of movements or tool interactions. These are:

- 1. General Move: Focuses on the free spatial movement of an object through the air.
- 2. Controlled Move: Pertains to movements where the object either remains in contact with a surface or stays attached to another object.
- 3. Tool and Equipment Use: Deals with common hand tools and equipment.

Operational Phases and Sub activities. In MOST, tasks are analyzed through a sequence of operational phases and sub-activities:

- Get: Involves reaching for an object, possibly with body motion or steps, and gaining manual control. This phase uses sub-activities like Action Distance (A), Body Motion (B), and Gain Control (G).
- Put: Entails moving the object to a new location, potentially with body motion, and placing it at a specified location, utilizing sub-activities such as Placement (P).
- Return: Describes the action of returning to the workstation, mainly involving the Action Distance (A) sub-activity.

Each sub-activity is defined by index values correlating to the relative difficulty, which are subsequently converted into time values in TMUs by scaling.

Analysis and Application. In applying MOST, tasks are broken down into their constituent actions, identified with the appropriate sequence model, and analyzed using the defined sub-activities and index values. This breakdown enables the precise calculation of time standards for manual operations, incorporating considerations for body movements, control levels, and tool use.

For example, a task involving picking up an object, placing it elsewhere, and returning to the original position would be analyzed by breaking down the movements into A, B, G, A, B, P, and A sequences, assigning index values to each sub-activity, and calculating the total time in TMUs.

Advantages and Implementation. MOST's structured approach allows for rapid and accurate time standard establishment across a broad range of manual tasks. Its hierarchical system—spanning MaxiMOST, BasicMOST, and Mini-MOST—enables tailored analysis suited to the specific characteristics of each operation. Furthermore, the methodology's division into general move, controlled move, and tool use sequences ensures comprehensive coverage of manual work types. In practice, MOST facilitates the efficient design and optimization of work processes, contributing to productivity improvement and effective labor planning. Its capability for rapid analysis with minimal accuracy compromise makes it a preferred method for industrial engineers.

Figure 13:

MOST Time Values for General Move (Freivalds, 2014)

Figure 14:

MOST Time Values for Controlled Move (Freivalds, 2014)

Figure 15:

Figure 16:

MOST Time Values for Tool Use (Cut, Surface Treat, and Measure) (Freivalds, 2014)

	A B C Get Tool A B P Tool Action Aside Tool Return Tool Use G									P Tool Placement				
	c Cut			S Surface Treat			M Measure		Tool	Index	Tool	Index		
	Cutoff	Secure	Cut	Slice	Air-Clean	Brush-Clean	Wipe	Measure	Index	Hammon	0(1)	Measuring Tool	1	
10	Pliers		Scissors	Knife	Nozzie	Brush	Cloth	Measuring Tool	x 10					
	Wire		Cuts	Slices	$59.$ ft. (0.1 m ²⁾	$59.$ ft ₂)	$(0.1 \, \text{m}^2)$			Fingers or Hand	1(3)(6)	Screwdriver		
		Grip	1	\sim	\sim	\sim	\sim		1					
	Soft		$\overline{2}$	٠	\sim	\sim	1/2		$\overline{3}$	Piers	1(3)	Ratchet		
6	Medium	Twist Form Loop	4	\sim	1 Spot Cavity		α		6					
10	Hard		,	3	\sim	\sim	1	Profile Gauge	10	Scissors	1(3)	T-Wrench		
16		Secure Cotter Pin	11	4	3	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{2}$	Fixed Scale Caliper < 12 in. (30 cm)	16	Knife	1(3)	Wrench		
24			15	6	4	3	\sim	Feeler Gauge	24					
32			20	$\overline{9}$		5	5	Steel Tape 51 ft. (2 m) Depth Micrometer	32		1 CONTRACTOR	Power Tool	$\overline{3}$	
$\overline{42}$			27	11	10	$\overline{ }$	$\overline{7}$	OD-Micrometer < 4 in. (10 cm)	42	Surface Treating Tool				
54			33					ID-Micrometer ≤ 4 in. (10 cm)	54			Adjustable Wrench	6(3)	

Figure 17:

MOST Time Values for Tool Use (Record and Think) (Freivalds, 2014)

$\frac{B}{C_{eff}}$	G A_{N} Tool Tool Action Aside Tool Return Tool Use R									P Tool Placement		
			Record		Think					Tool	Index	
ndex		Write		Mark Marker	Inspect Eyes/Fingers		Read Eyes		Index x 10	Writing Tool		
10		Penal/Pen										
	Digits	Words	Copy ×	Digits	Points	Digits, Single Words	Text of Words	Compare				
1		\sim	\sim	Check Mark					1			
3	$\,$	\sim		Scribe Line			Gauge	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{3}$	Keyboard/Electric Typewriter		
6	\ddot{a}		3	$\,2$	Feel for Heat	6	15 Scale Value Date or Time	4	6			
	$\ddot{\rm s}$	\sim	5	3	Feel for Defect		12 Vernier Scale 24	8	10			
$\frac{10}{16}$	9	$\overline{2}$ Signature or Date	8	5	14		38 Table Value	13	16	Keypad		
	13	3	10	$\overline{ }$	19		54		24			
$\frac{24}{32}$	18	4	14	10	26		72		32			
42	23	5	18	13	34		94		42	Letter/Paper Handling		
54	29	ż	22	16	42		119	-	54			

Figure 18:

MOST Time Values for Equipment Use (Freivalds, 2014)

Time Study Analysis:

This study examined a tipper truck tailgate with multiple essential parts. These consist of the sturdy outer shell body, which offers structural integrity, and the crucial hinges, which enable effortless opening and shutting movements. The tailgate also has a strong latch mechanism, guaranteeing stable closure during transport and dumping.

Figure 19 : Tipper Tailgate

Figure 20:

Tipper Tailgate Robotic Setup

Figure 21: Robotic Weld Finished piece.

We take several criteria into account when comparing the time efficiency of robotic and manual welding for these components:

- Complexity of the welds: The decision between robotic and manual welding may depend on the accessibility and intricacy of the welds needed to form tailgate assembly. Robotic welding may be more effective for simple, repeatable welds, but manual welding may be better for intricate, variable, or difficult-to-reach welds.
- Material Specifications: Welding parameters are affected by the materials specified for these components. Robotic welding systems can precisely maintain consistent welding settings for materials that need precision heat control.
- Considering the tolerances (. $XX \pm .06$ or 1/16", $XXX \pm .031$ or 1/32") and finish requirements, robotic welding may provide better consistency and quality control, particularly for components where surface finish or aesthetics are essential after welding.
- Production Volume: Due to its quicker changeover times and faster welding speeds, robotic welding can decrease cycle times and significantly boost throughput in high-volume production.

Figure 22:

Welding of Specialized Workpiece

Manual Welding Analysis for the part:

MTM-1 Analysis (Maynard, H. B., & Stegemerten, M):

The MTM-1 system was chosen for the manual welding operation analysis because it is the first and most comprehensive predetermined time system for time and motion studies. It is particularly well-suited for the in-depth analysis of labor-intensive manual occupations such as welding due to its comprehensive method of measuring human motions. The depth of MTM-1's analysis of fundamental motions allows for a sophisticated comprehension of the operation's time requirements, guaranteeing accurate temporal element measurement and analysis of the welding process. This decision demonstrates a dedication to using a strict process that accurately and carefully depicts the intricacy of manual welding.

A thorough observational study was used to document the intricate details of the process during a Methods-Time Measurement (MTM) analysis of a hand welding process. The welding process was recorded on camera, creating a visual dataset for more in-depth analysis afterward. This recorded footage was carefully examined using a stopwatch, allowing the welding procedure to be divided into distinct steps. To help with the

measurement of time values for standardized motions, each identified step was then crossreferenced against established normal time value tables. This approach is an essential part of the MTM methodology. The actual time spent on the welding operations was precisely recorded because of the unique nature of welding operations and the absence of specified time values within the standard MTM tables for the welding process itself. This real-time measurement was essential since standard MTM time value tables do not address the welding process's particular needs and time requirements. To ensure compliance with the MTM framework, the actual welding time was converted into Time Measurement Units (TMU), a standardized unit of measure in MTM analysis.

A total MTM time value for the whole welding operation was created by combining these TMU-converted welding timings with the MTM values obtained from the standardized motions. This complete TMU value provided a comprehensive time profile of the manual welding process by summing the distinctive welding times and the standardized motion timings.

After calculating these MTM values, the welding processes' actual observed times were compared. The comparative examination showed that the values produced from the MTM Analysis were about 35% less than the real observed times due to the complexity of the tailgate assembly and its idiosyncrasies.

MOST Analysis (Niebel, B. W., & Freivalds, A):

We chose the Maynard Operation Sequence Technique (MOST) as our other technique for time and motion study analysis of a manual welding operation. This choice was made because MOST is one of the most advanced and effective work process analysis approaches available in industrial engineering. In this case, we applied the Basic MOST analysis option, which was thought to be most suitable considering the welding job took—roughly thirty-eight minutes per part.

MOST is well known for its effectiveness, providing a far quicker analytical procedure than the conventional MTM-1 system. This efficiency gain—which is projected to be around five times larger—is especially beneficial in situations where quick assessments and iterative process adjustments are essential. In addition, the simplified methodology of Basic MOST, which is distinguished by a smaller count of motion types, makes the analysis more straightforward to understand and less complicated. This simplicity is beneficial when doing tasks involving basic movements, like manual welding procedures.

Our analysis used index values for motions taken from the MOST data card to calculate Time Measurement Units (TMU). Using this card as a guide, the measurement of motion times may be standardized, and every step of the welding process can be assessed in relation to a reliable and consistent standard. The accurate and objective measurement of work aspects made possible using index values and the MOST data card structure enhances our time study's accuracy and dependability.

Robotic Welding analysis for the part:

Robotic welding at TBEI utilizes cutting-edge automation with the VECTIS Automation UR10E Co-bot. It combines human experience with robotic precision to enhance welding efficiency and quality and improve worker safety. The workflow must be meticulously structured to integrate human and robotic capabilities seamlessly.

Figure 23 :

Welding Cobot in action.

Robotic welding process.

The process begins with a comprehensive evaluation of a part to determine its suitability for robotic welding. Subsequently, if necessary, the design and fabrication of fixtures and jigs are redesigned with precision to facilitate optimal positioning of the workpiece for both manual and co-bot welding ease.

Upon completion of the fixture preparation, if required, human operators perform initial welding tasks such as tack welds, particularly for intricate components beyond the cobot's current capabilities and to make a basic tailgate assembly shape. Once these steps are done, the workpiece is prepared for robotic welding.

The next crucial stage involves mapping and coding the welding path into the cobot's system. This is achieved through point-by-point instructions by moving the cobot's welding arm through the start point of the weld multiple times between tracking points and the finishing point. A mock run is conducted to ascertain the coding accuracy and the anticipated welds' quality.

Figure 25:

Robotic Welding.

Should discrepancies arise during the mock run, the mapping and coding process is redone to revalidate, ensuring the precise execution of welding tasks. Only upon successful revalidation does the welding process start.

This systematic approach is replicated for subsequent welds, ensuring consistent quality throughout manufacturing.

MOST Analysis for Robotic Welding

We used both MTM and MOST predetermined time systems to calculate the theoretical time taken to weld the Tailgate. We wanted to compare the predetermined time system to see which was closest to the time to weld the part. It was determined that MOST was closer than MTM.

Figure 26:

Robotic Fixture.

Cost Analysis:

Cost plays a major role in every industry, and in this scenario, it does, too. Including cobots in the manufacturing process reduces the dependence on highly skilled operators; hence, the cost to employ a highly experienced operator can be optimized.

A few factors were considered while doing the cost analysis, such as the welding cost for both manual and robotic welding, fixture cost (if needed), design and material cost (if needed), and coding costs for the cobots.

The cost analysis was done in the following steps:

- Calculating the average times:
	- o Using time study, we are calculating the average times for the tailgate's manual and robotic welding processes.
- Considering welding costs:
	- o We are assuming \$60/hr as a standard welding rate for our calculations.
- Establish price per part:
	- o Divide the welding cost by the number of parts per hour.
- Optimization of robotic welding times:
	- o Assume an improvement of robotic welding times by 5% &10% and calculate new costs.
- Creation of a price table:
	- o Develop a table using the above calculations for quantities until we reach the breakeven point.
- Adding upfront costs of robot purchase design and programming:
	- o Add the robot, fixtures, and coding costs to the equation to finally get the perpart price.

In the case of tailgate, we are using the same worktable for robotic and manual welding. So, we eliminate the need for extra fixtures, saving on jig/fixture costs. Additionally, we need to consider the cost of programming the cobot, which we assume is \$100 per hour.

Conclusion:

Time Study Results:

We executed three critical analyses with significant implications for manufacturing efficiency and labor dynamics during our study. First, we conducted a detailed comparative analysis between MTM 1 (Methods-Time Measurement) and MOST (Maynard Operation Sequence Technique). We aimed to understand these time management frameworks' relative advantages and application contexts in streamlining manufacturing processes. This comparison was essential for identifying the most effective technique for enhancing operational throughput.

To validate the accuracy of predetermined time standards against real-world times, these methods' reliability can be assessed in predicting job completion times in a live production environment by applying predetermined time study techniques and actual time tracking on a single part across three samples.

We also explored the performance differential between a professional human welder and an automated robotic unit, and their coexistence utilizing the above-mentioned time study methods.

Time Study Comparison (Manual)

Graph 2:

Time Study Comparison (Robotic)

From the predetermined time studies and time and motion studies of both manual and robotic welding, we can see that for manual welding, there is a significant difference in time between the predetermined time systems and normal time study. For manual welding, the MTM time is 35% lower than the actual time taken, and MOST is 28% lower than the actual; when it comes to robotic welding, the difference between the predetermined time and the actual time is 29% apart.

This is because when analyzing predetermined time studies of manual welding, there are many precise, intricate movements made by humans to get the part, prep it, and weld it. The predetermined time systems don't accurately measure the time taken for the action to be completed.

In MTM 1, they use very specific actions, while MOST techniques look at things more broadly. Regarding positioning, which is a big part of the time spent, MTM 1 only considers one way of doing it. Even if you take the longest time for positioning in MTM 1, it doesn't cover all the variations. But with MOST techniques, you can see how long it takes to get into position because they look at things in more detail.

The similarity in timings between manual and robotic welding can be attributed to the complexity of assembling the tailgate. This complexity arises from the numerous parts that require precise positioning and tack welding by humans to create the basic shape of the tailgate. While robots are utilized for welding long beads without human intervention, the intricate assembly process remains primarily reliant on human skill and judgment. Therefore, the overall time required for the assembly process ultimately depends on the skill and speed at which humans work.

Graph 3:

Top Plate - Manual VS Robotic

An intriguing finding surfaced when comparing three trials centered on welding the top plate, where the robot was employed. In one instance, the human completed the straight, long welding task for the top plate faster than the robot. This indicates that humans and robots each have their strengths and weaknesses. However, it's essential to note that while humans have idiosyncrasies and may experience fatigue, robots can be optimized to become faster and more efficient over time. Their coexistence in the welding process enhances efficiency, speed, and safety and allows for continual optimization and improvement.

Cost analysis results:

The extensive investigation conducted for this study has yielded significant insights into the comparison between robotic and manual welding processes. Firstly, robotic welding consistently demonstrates superior time efficiency compared to manual welding across various scenarios. The shorter average time required for robotic welding increases production rates, throughput, and subsequent cost savings. For instance, robotic welding averages 535
seconds per task, whereas manual welding averages 546 seconds. Even if the hourly welding cost remains the same for both methods, robotic welding proves advantageous due to its faster task completion, effectively managing costs. Additionally, robotic welding optimizes labor resource efficiency by reducing overall labor expenses per item produced, even when considering fixed labor costs.

Furthermore, robotic welding shows better cost-effectiveness than hand welding when comparing welding cost per part. Robotic welding's cost per part drops as optimization levels rise, underscoring the system's financial benefits even more. For example, robotic welding reaches a cost per component as low as \$8.03 at optimization levels of 10%, while the most significant cost per part for manual welding is \$9.10. The thorough research concludes by highlighting the economic advantages of robotic welding over manual welding. Investing in robotic welding technology significantly reduces costs and increases productivity and throughput. Therefore, coexistence of robotic welding & manual welding is a wise financial and strategic move for companies looking to streamline their welding procedures and increase cost-effectiveness.

To calculate the breakeven points between robotic and manual welding procedures, we now need to find the point at which the total cost of each approach equals one. This happens when the total cost of employing robotic welding and manual welding adds up to the same amount. By scrutinizing the gathered data, we evaluated the breakeven points for varying quantities of manufactured parts.

Breakeven Analysis:

Graph 4:

Breakeven Robotic

When a cost analysis is run, it is seen that robotic welding will break even with manual welding at 556 parts, at which point robotic welding will cost \$5059.52 and manual welding will cost \$5059.6.

Graph 5:

If the robotic welding is optimized by 10%, it will break even with the manual welding cost at 94 parts, at which the robotic welding will cost \$854.82, and the manual welding will cost \$855.4.

Graph 6:

5% Optimization of Robotic

If the robotic welding is optimized at 5%, it will break even with the manual welding cost at 159 parts, at which the robotic welding will cost \$1446.73, and the manual will cost \$1446.9.

Based on the break-even analysis, manual welding is more economical for lower quantities of parts. However, the advantages of robotic welding become increasingly apparent as the volume of parts rises, resulting in overall cost reduction. In our LVHM (Low Volume High Mix) scenario, employing robots alongside human workers accelerates task completion and efficiency. This integration addresses shortages in skilled labor and enhances production pace. Moreover, the efficiency and optimization offered by robotic welding play pivotal roles in achieving the desired quality of the final product, even without relying heavily on highly skilled labor.

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Appendix

