

TECHNICAL NOTES

Automated Analysis of 3-D Polyhedral Assemblies: Assembly Directions and Sequences

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Abstract

Some issues concerning the automated analysis of three-dimensional (3-D) assemblies consisting of polyhedral components (that is, components with plane faces) are studied. The product is assumed to have been modeled in a boundary representation environment. An algorithm for mating surface identification is first developed. Noting that previously published work on the automated determination of assembly directions has largely been confined to the 2-D domain, a new approach to the automated determination of the feasible range of assembly directions in the 3-D domain is proposed. This consists of the concept of principal disassembly directions (PDD) that lie on the boundary of the region defining all feasible assembly directions. Finally, an algorithm for determining the translational freedom of components during assembly is presented. These two algorithms enable a rapid construction of the disassembly tree that forms the basis for the automated generation of assembly sequences in the 3-D domain.

Introduction

Current practices concerning the design-manufacture cycle in industry are iterative, wherein the designs move back and forth between designers and manufacturing engineers. This is because designers cannot always foresee problems that might occur downstream in the manufacturing phase. This iterative process results in a significant loss of time. One approach to alleviating this problem is to develop computerized tools for speeding up the design-manufacture cycle. Designers typically use CAD systems that merely make the design process more convenient while leaving unaddressed the evaluation of the design for manufacturing (DFM) lead times and costs. There is a need for DFM that concentrates on the integration of manufacturing criteria into the product design process. With the availability of robust DFM tools, product and process design could take place as parallel activities, thus facilitating concurrent engineering.

Most products are unions of individually manufactured components that go through an assembly process. A major aspect of DFM, therefore, is concerned with design for assembly (DFA), whose primary aim is to ensure that the product is easy to assemble.

Many systems have been proposed in recent years to enable systematic product analysis from the point of view of DFA (Miles 1982, Miyakawa and Toshirjo 1987, Sturges 1989, Boothroyd and Dewhurst 1983). Among these, the

UMass system of Boothroyd and Dewhurst seems to be the most widely used. Current applications of the UMass system (and indeed of any DFA system) are either totally manual or computer assisted. It would be highly useful to a designer if the processes involved in DFA could be performed automatically. This would facilitate a faster assimilation of systematic DFA methods into industrial practice and form a step toward concurrent engineering. This paper describes part of a larger project at the City Polytechnic of Hong Kong to automate at least the geometric aspects of the UMass system for DFA. The broad structure of this project is illustrated in *Figure 1*. The system aims to determine the "design efficiency" of the given product. The product itself is modeled using boundary representation (BR) because information on faces (for example, mating faces) is required in DFA and such information is explicitly available when BR is adopted. This paper focuses on the modules related to "assembly preprocessing."

Although the problem of assembly direction and sequencing has been studied extensively in recent years (DeFazio and Whitney 1987, Ko and Lee 1987, Woo 1987, Dini and Santochi 1992, Laperriere and ElMaraghy 1992), only Woo has explicitly addressed the issues concerning their automated determination. Woo has developed the concept of visible region (VR) that defines the range of geometrically feasible assembly directions between a pair of mating components. Further he has developed an elegant procedure for generating the assembly tree that forms the basis for assembly sequence generation. Woo's work was confined to assemblies with polyhedral components in the 2-D domain. This paper aims to extend these concepts to the 3-D domain with particular reference to problems concerning mating surface identification, the visible region, and translational freedom of components. As with Woo, this work is confined to the analysis of assemblies made up of polyhedral components.

Identification of Mating Faces and Liaisons

It is assumed that the product is modeled in the assembled form with respect to a global coordinate system (XYZ). The geometric information concerning each face of each component is stored as a normalized plane coefficient set (a, b, c, d) corresponding to the equation $ax + by + cz = d$

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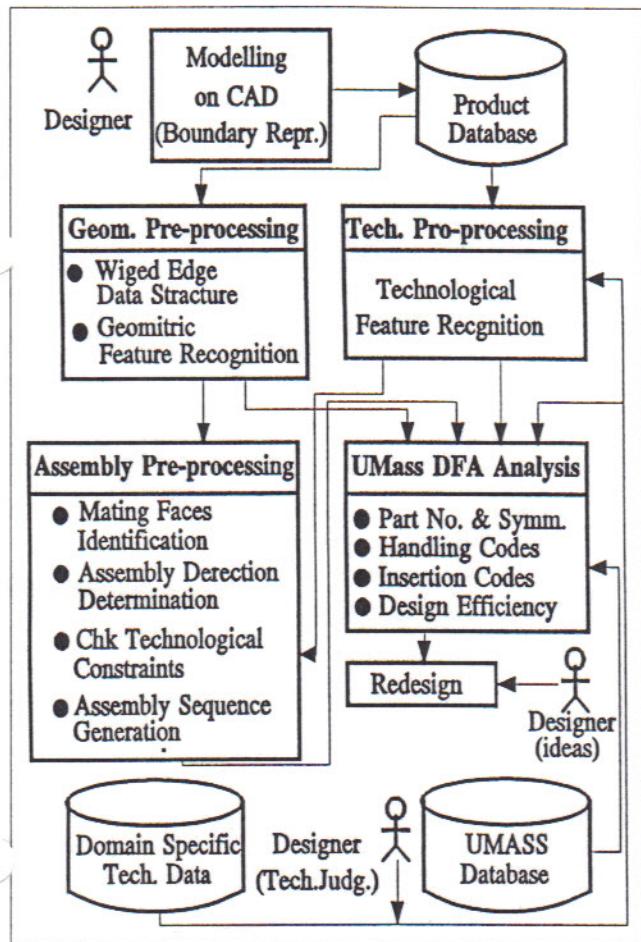


Figure 1
Strategy for Automating UMass Design for Assembly

of the plane of the face. Because the present work has utilized a boundary representation during modeling, such data are easily derivable from the coordinates of any three vertices belonging to the face. If the modeling had used a CSG (constructive solid geometry) representation, it would have been necessary to derive the coefficient set using appropriate boundary evaluation algorithms. Next, the coefficients of the unit normal vector to each face are derived from the equation of the plane. Here, the positive direction of the unit normal vector is taken in the direction pointing into the component. Clearly, this direction is a candidate disassembly direction for the part.

DeFazio and Whitney (1987) have characterized an assembly as a graph wherein the nodes represent components and the arcs represent certain user-defined liaisons.

For the present purpose, a liaison is said to exist between a pair of components if there is physical contact between the pair (that is, the components mate). The mating could occur over one or more faces that may or may not be adjacent. Thus each face of each component needs to be checked for the possibility of mating with every face of every other component.

A candidate pair of faces may be identified as mating if they satisfy the following two criteria:

- The faces are coplanar and their unit normal vectors point in opposite directions; this is checked by matching the normalized plane coefficient sets and comparing the normal vectors.
- The faces overlap.

Three possible cases need to be considered in checking for the second criterion above. First, the faces could be fully overlapping; this is easily checked by matching the vertices of one face with those of the other (see *Figure 2*, view *a*). Second, the faces could be partially overlapping; this is checked through the existence or otherwise of intersections between the edges of the two faces (see *Figure 2*, view *b*). If the points of intersection lie within any edge of either face, then the faces must be overlapping. The third case is that one of the candidate faces is entirely covered by the other face so that there would be no intersections within any edge of either face. It can be verified that the following procedure will simply and effectively detect such a case (see *Figure 2*, view *c*):

- Label one of the pair of candidate faces as the first face and the other as the second face.
- Draw a semi-infinite line from any one of the vertices of the first face, parallel to the face, such that it intersects at least one of the edges of the second face. Count the number of intersections, N_1 , of this line with the boundary of the second face.
- Likewise, draw a semi-infinite line from any one of the vertices of the second face, parallel to the face, such that it intersects at least one of the edges of the first face. Count the number of intersections, N_2 , of this line with the boundary of the first face.
- If either N_1 or N_2 is odd, then one of the faces is completely covered by the other face (see *Figure 2*, view *d*, which illustrates the observation that when the two faces are disjoint, both N_1 and N_2 will be even).

To simplify calculations, however, the two faces may be projected onto a convenient principal plane (a plane containing any two of the global coordinate axes), and the test line is taken along one of the principal axes in the principal plane. The following algorithm implements this strategy.

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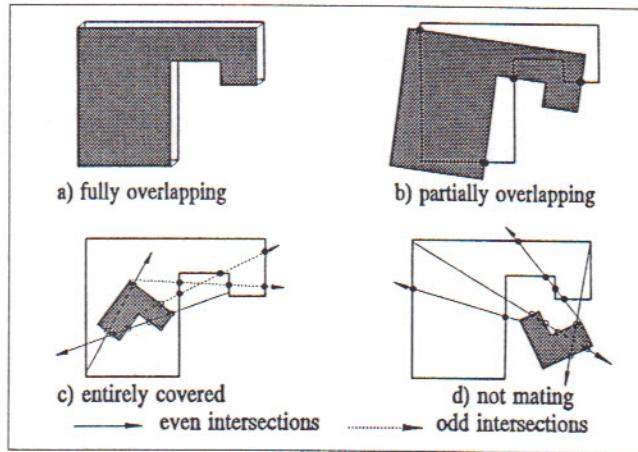


Figure 2
Three Cases of Mating Faces

Algorithm CheckMating (f_1, f_2)

Input: Face plane coefficients, vertices, and edges of faces f_1 and f_2

Output: Mating/not mating

1. If f_1 and f_2 are not coplanar (that is, the face plane coefficient sets of f_1 and f_2 are not identical or the normals to f_1 and f_2 have positive dot product) then return "not mating" and stop.
2. Select a global coordinate axis (X , Y , or Z) that is not parallel to either f_1 or f_2 .
3. Project f_1 and f_2 on a plane perpendicular to the selected axis. Let f_{1pr} and f_{2pr} be the projected faces.
4. If
 - Any three noncollinear vertices of f_{1pr} have identical vertices in f_{2pr} , or
 - Any edge of f_{1pr} intersects any edge of f_{2pr} within the boundaries of the edges, or
 - A semi-infinite line drawn from an arbitrary vertex of f_{1pr} intersects the edges of f_{2pr} an odd number of times, or
 - A semi-infinite line drawn from an arbitrary vertex of f_{2pr} intersects the edges of f_{1pr} an odd number of times,

then return "mating", else return "not mating".

Feasible Assembly Directions Between a Pair of Mating Components

Woo (1987) has addressed the problem of determining the geometrically feasible assembly directions between a pair of mating components. We now extend his 2-D

approach to the 3-D domain for assemblies made up of polyhedral components. Further, as with Woo, we will restrict our discussion to linear assembly (that is, when two potentially mating components are brought into contact by a single linear motion of one of the parts).

In his 2-D analysis, Woo included several propositions and definitions. We will now reproduce those that are equally valid in 3-D and modify the others appropriately. Next we will present a new method for determining the feasible assembly directions in 3-D.

Clearly the following two propositions and one definition from Woo are equally valid in the 3-D domain:

Proposition 1

Disassembly provides more structure than assembly—it is easier to disassemble than assemble.

Proposition 2

If the components are rigid, then disassembly is reversible. Thus, it is more convenient to determine the disassembly directions and sequences first and then reverse them to obtain the assembly directions and sequences respectively.

Definition 1

A component, c , is said to be linearly disassemblable (or just disassemblable, for short) from a subassembly, S , in direction d if, for all points x in c , a ray (x, d) , which is a semi-infinite line from x in direction d , does not intersect S .

The following discussion concerning the 3-D domain contains appropriate modifications of one further definition and a lemma from Woo (1987). For brevity, the proofs for the 3-D domain, which generally follow those given by Woo for the 2-D domain, are not described below.

The range of directions can be determined from the "mating faces", the sequence of faces shared by c in S . If a viewer can see [in the opposite direction of ray (x, d)] all points x on the mating faces without having to go through S then c is removable. We may use the notion of a region in which the viewer should reside:

Definition 2

A visible region $VR(\{f_i\})$ into a sequence of faces $\{f_i\}$ is the intersection of half spaces $HS(f_i)$ induced by face f_i in the direction away from c .

Lemma 1

A component, c , is disassemblable from a subassembly, S , if the visible region $VR(\{f_i\}, c)$ is unbounded.

We now propose a method for determining the boundaries of VR for a given sequence of mating faces in the case of 3-D polyhedral components.

It is clear that when mating (between c and S) occurs along a single face, the VR is the half space (generated by

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the mating face) that includes the normal vector, \mathbf{n} , into c . Clearly, any disassembly direction \mathbf{d} is feasible if its component along \mathbf{n} does not oppose \mathbf{n} [that is, $\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{n} \geq 0$ (*: scalar product)].

Consider now the situation when there are multiple mating faces whose planes intersect. To determine the VR, we need to intersect a multiple number of half spaces. As an alternative, we propose the notion of principal disassembly direction set (PDDS), which is characterized by the following:

- A principal disassembly direction (PDD) is a unit direction vector representing a feasible disassembly direction lying on the boundary of VR.
- A linear (positive) addition of one or more PDDs is a feasible disassembly direction.
- A principal disassembly direction set (PDDS) is a set of PDDs that completely defines the VR; the “wire frame” formed by the PDDS is the VR.

For conceptual clarity, we will present an intuitive explanation of the proposed approach followed by a more rigorous statement of the resulting algorithms.

Consider Figure 3, view *a*, that illustrates a case with two intersecting mating planes (1 and 2) between c and S . \mathbf{n}_1 and \mathbf{n}_2 are the unit normal vectors (pointing toward the interior of c) of planes 1 and 2, respectively. Clearly any linear additive (positive) combination of \mathbf{n}_1 and \mathbf{n}_2 is a feasible disassembly direction. The feasibility of a given direction \mathbf{d} can be tested by checking if $\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{n}_1 \geq 0$ and $\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{n}_2 \geq 0$. The union of all possible feasible assembly directions is the VR, but there are an infinite number such directions. We need a simpler way of characterizing the VR.

Figure 3, views *a* and *b*, show a simple way of characterizing the VR in two such cases in terms of a set of four unit vectors ($\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$). \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{D} are directed parallel to the line of intersection between mating planes 1 and 2,

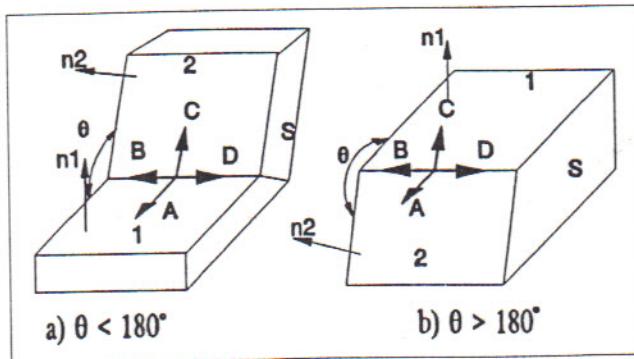


Figure 3
Case of Two Mating Faces

but in mutually opposite directions. Clearly, disassembly is possible along \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{D} , and they lie on the boundary of the VR. The other two direction vectors, \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{C} , are chosen parallel to planes 1 and 2, respectively, while (1) both are perpendicular to the line of intersection of the mating planes and (2) a motion along either of them does not have a component opposing \mathbf{n}_1 or \mathbf{n}_2 . Condition (2) is necessary to distinguish between the scenarios depicted in Figure 3, views *a* and *b*. In view *a*, the angle between planes 1 and 2 when measured inside c is less than 180° , whereas in view *b* it is greater than 180° . The directions of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{C} should be taken such that $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{n}_2$ and $\mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{n}_1$ are both positive. It is intuitively evident that the “wire frame” formed by the PDD set $\{ \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D} \}$ can completely represent the VR in this case. Further, each of these PDDs as well as any linear (positive) addition of one or more of these PDDs is a feasible disassembly direction. Hence, at this stage, the PDDS has only four PDDs ($\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$).

Consider now the case when a third mating plane (plane 3) is included in the analysis shown in Figure 4. Now we have two additional pairs (1/3 and 2/3) of intersecting mating planes to consider. The addition of pair (1/3) demands the consideration of four new directions ($\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{H}$) as potential PDDs. Likewise, the addition of pair (2/3) demands the consideration of four further directions ($\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{J}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{L}$). It is necessary now to ensure that the potential PDDs collected so far remain to be feasible disassembly directions despite the addition of plane 3. This may be effected by checking that each of the scalar products of each of the PDDs ($\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \dots, \mathbf{L}$) with \mathbf{n}_1 , \mathbf{n}_2 , and $\mathbf{n}_3 \geq 0$. However, it may be noted that it is only necessary to check ($\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$) against \mathbf{n}_3 , ($\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{H}$) against \mathbf{n}_2 , and ($\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{J}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{L}$) against \mathbf{n}_1 as a consequence of the way the PDDs have been defined. On this basis we note that \mathbf{B} , \mathbf{F} , and \mathbf{J} violate the feasibility

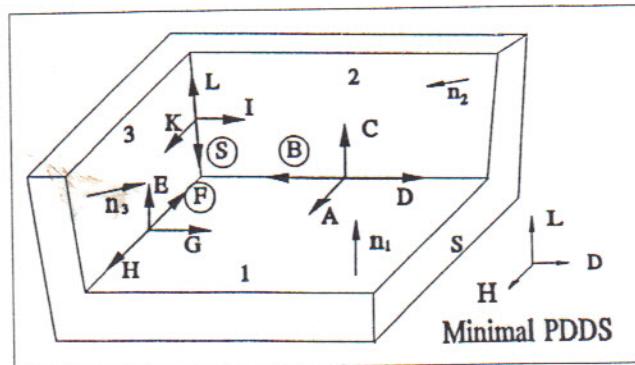


Figure 4
Case of Three Mating Faces
(All $\theta_s < 180^\circ$)

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condition. We thus reject **B**, **F**, and **J** so that the updated PDDS now is { **A,C,D,E,G,H,I,K,L** }. The PDDS may be compressed by deleting identically directed elements. Further, because the final PDDS is intended to provide a "wire frame" representation of the VR, we may delete the PDDs that are coplanar with and take up an intermediate position between two other PDDs that are not collinear. Checking for coplanarity merely involves checking the scalar product of each PDD with each mating-plane normal-vector. Likewise, checking for intermediate position only involves comparing the dot products between pairs of PDDs. The final PDDS thus obtained represents the minimal PDDS (MPDDS) because it contains the minimum number of PDDs required to completely specify the VR. Further, any linear positive addition of the PDDs is a feasible disassembly direction. At this stage, it is also useful to define a central disassembly direction (CDD) of the VR. The CDD may be determined by vectorially adding all the PDDs in the MPDDS and normalizing the resulting vector.

The algorithm for generating the MPDDS for a pair of mating polyhedral components with N mating faces (when $N > 1$) is described below.

Algorithm GenerateMPDDS (c, S)

Input: Number of mating faces, N , between c and S ; unit normal vector, \mathbf{n}_i , of each mating face i : 1 to N .

Output: MPDDS with the direction cosines of each PDD specified.

1. Form the normal vector set consisting of the N unit normal vectors.
2. Compress normal vector set: delete greater than one instance of identical normal vector, \mathbf{n} . Number of intersecting mating planes $N' = N$ -number of normal vectors deleted.
3. For each pair (i/j) of intersecting mating planes identify the four associated PDDs ($\mathbf{d}_1, \mathbf{d}_2, \mathbf{d}_3, \mathbf{d}_4$ —all unit direction vectors) and add them to the initial PDDS:

Let $\mathbf{d}_1, \mathbf{d}_2, \mathbf{d}_3$, and \mathbf{d}_4 be the four initial PDDs resulting from (i/j).

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{d}_1 &= \mathbf{n}_i \times \mathbf{n}_j \text{ (normalized),} \\ \mathbf{d}_2 &= -\mathbf{n}_i \times \mathbf{n}_j \text{ (normalized),} \\ \mathbf{d}_3 &= \mathbf{n}_j \times (\mathbf{d}_1 \text{ or } \mathbf{d}_2) \text{ (normalized) such that} \\ &\quad \mathbf{d}_3 \cdot \mathbf{n}_i \geq 0, \text{ and} \\ \mathbf{d}_4 &= \mathbf{n}_i \times (\mathbf{d}_1 \text{ or } \mathbf{d}_2) \text{ (normalized) such that} \\ &\quad \mathbf{d}_4 \cdot \mathbf{n}_j \geq 0.\end{aligned}$$

(\times : vector product, \cdot : scalar product)

4. Compress the initial PDDS to yield MPDDS:
 - Delete more than one instance of identical PDD,

- Delete any PDD that is coplanar with two other noncollinear PDDs and takes up an intermediate position between them:

If $\mathbf{d}_i = -\mathbf{d}_j$, then \mathbf{d}_i and \mathbf{d}_j are collinear;

If $\mathbf{d}_i \times \mathbf{d}_j$ (normalized) = $\mathbf{d}_i \times \mathbf{d}_k$ (normalized), then $\mathbf{d}_i, \mathbf{d}_j$, and \mathbf{d}_k are coplanar;

If $\arccos(\mathbf{d}_i \cdot \mathbf{d}_j) < \arccos(\mathbf{d}_i \cdot \mathbf{d}_k)$, then \mathbf{d}_j is intermediate between \mathbf{d}_i and \mathbf{d}_k .

5. The MPDDS may be graphically displayed adjacent to the product assembly display as an aid to the assembly planner. It may be noted that an increase in the number of mating faces results in a proportional increase in the size of the initial PDDs; however, we can expect in general that this will also be accompanied by an increase in the orientational diversity of the mating faces so that many of the initial PDDs will have to be rejected because they violate the feasibility condition. This will, almost always, lead to an MPDDS of limited size.

Assembly Sequence, Assembly Tree, and Criteria for Disassemblability

DeFazio and Whitney (1987) have examined the problem of assembly sequence and, like Woo (1987), have noted that, in general, there are many possible assembly sequences and that an assembly sequence can be taken as the reverse of the corresponding disassembly sequence. Further, the array of possible assembly sequences is determined by precedence relationships that require repeated answers to two questions: "What liaisons must be done prior to doing the i th liaison?" and "What liaisons must be left to be done after doing liaison i ?" In DeFazio and Whitney, the answers to both these questions were expected to be provided by the user in an interactive mode; however, it turns out that in most situations the answers to these questions are mainly dependent on geometric constraints. Woo has developed an elegant method for developing the disassembly tree (which, in a way, encodes the geometric precedence relationships) for problems in the 2-D domain. This method is found to be equally applicable to the 3-D domain. We therefore briefly describe Woo's method as follows (with minor modifications to suit the 3-D domain).

Woo's Method—Slightly Modified

Classify the faces on each component as boundary faces or mating faces; boundary faces only mate with the back-

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ground B (that is, they do not mate with other components). Create a mating graph of the assembly with the nodes representing components and the arcs representing mating; include the background B as a node. Begin constructing the assembly tree by taking the assembly as the root node. Next determine which components with boundary faces can be disassembled. Include these as the leaf nodes in the second level of the tree. Continue expanding the tree by retrieving the mates of each leaf node and testing the mates for disassemblability. From the mating graph, retrieve only the nonbackground mates for each of the new leaves. If a mate occurs elsewhere in the tree, discard it from further consideration. [See Woo (1987) for a detailed explanation of this algorithm and evidence of its effectiveness.]

A requirement of the above algorithm is that we need to have robust criteria for deciding when a component is disassemblable. The first criterion in this regard is that the VR of the component with respect to the subassembly (at the particular instant in constructing the disassembly tree) is unbounded. This is easily established in the case of 3-D polyhedral assemblies using the concept of MPDDS described in the previous section. If the MPDDS is empty, then the VR is bounded and the component is not disassemblable in any direction; however, the existence of an unbounded VR is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for disassemblability. As an illustration consider the assembly (in 2-D, for simplicity) in *Figure 5*. We note that the VRs of components *q* and *r* are bounded. Hence they are not disassemblable in any direction at this stage. Components *s*, *t*, and *B* have unbounded VRs, but this does not mean that all of them are necessarily disassemblable. For instance, *t* mates with the background *B* and has a nonempty MPDDS consisting of direction *x*, but *t* is not disassemblable along *x* from the rest of the assembly because a motion along *x*

will be obstructed by *p*. Hence it is necessary to test the translational freedom of each component with unbounded VR before we can establish its disassemblability.

Another problem to be addressed is that the test for translational freedom needs to be carried out with respect to every possible direction within the VR. This is clearly not practical. Fortunately, Dini and Santochi (1992) have recently observed that, for problems in the 3-D domain, it is enough to check for translational freedom in three mutually orthogonal directions. If there is translational freedom in any one of the chosen three directions, then the component is disassemblable. This observation vastly simplifies the problem by limiting the number of checks on translational freedom to three test directions; however, this is not clearly true if the three test directions are arbitrarily chosen. For instance, component *s* in *Figure 5* has no translational freedom in direction other than *-x*. Hence the set of test directions must include *-x*. It is therefore proposed that the test direction set include the central disassembly direction (CDD) of the VR and two other mutually orthogonal directions in a plane perpendicular to the CDD. Of course, if the MPDDS consists of only one PDD, it is adequate to use this PDD as the only test direction.

Having chosen a test direction, *d*, it is now necessary to examine the criteria for translational freedom in that direction. Dini and Santochi (1992) use CAD simulations for this purpose. Ko and Lee (1987) have used a similar approach using swept volumes. It is not clear, however, whether this was done automatically or through manual intervention. In the following, we describe an algorithm for automatically testing the disassemblability with regard to translational freedom in a given test direction *d* when the components are defined using boundary representation. The algorithm tries to identify which, if any, faces of component *c* and subassembly *S* are likely to collide when the former is translated along direction *d*. The approach is designed to minimize the number of faces to be tested for collision.

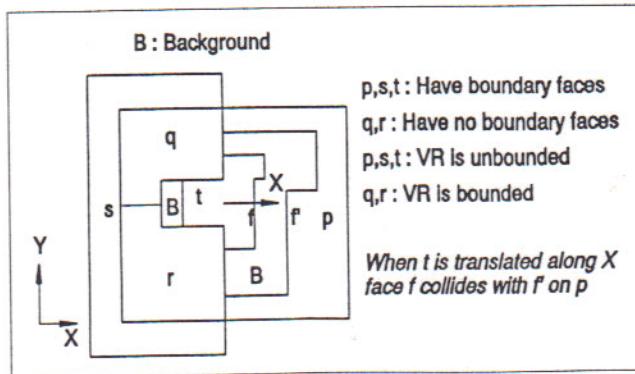


Figure 5
Need for Checking Translational Freedom

Algorithm CheckDisassemblability (*c,S,d*)

c: component, *S*: subassembly, *d*: unit vector along test direction

Input: Face plane coefficient sets, vertices, and edges of *c* and *S*; direction cosines of *d*.

Output: Disassemblable/not disassemblable

1. Locate an infinite line *L* parallel to *d*.

- Locate the point of intersection *P_i* of *L* with each face plane *i* of *c*.
- Locate the point of intersection *P_j* of *L* with each face *j* of subassembly *S*.

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- For each pair of points (P_i, P_j) , compute the displacement D_{ij} from P_i to P_j in the direction of \mathbf{d} .
- Flag the faces from S that have negative D_{ij} with any face i of c and discard them from further consideration.
- If $\min(D_{ij}) = 0$, then return "not disassemblable" and stop.

2. Identify faces f_i and f_j with minimum D_{ij} .
3. Project f_i and f_j on a plane perpendicular to \mathbf{d} : let $f_{i,pr}$ and $f_{j,pr}$ be the projected faces.
4. Call algorithm $\text{CheckMating}(f_{i,pr}, f_{j,pr})$. If result is "mating", then return "not disassemblable" and stop.
5. Flag faces f_i and f_j and prevent them from further consideration.
6. If no more face pairs (f_i, f_j) are left for consideration, return "disassemblable" and stop.
7. Go to the third step.

Conclusion

Several algorithms have been proposed to address the problem of automatically determining the assembly sequences in assemblies composed of 3-D polyhedral components that are modeled using boundary representation. These include identifying the mating faces and examining the visible region and translational freedom. A new concept called principal disassembly directions is proposed to facilitate the definition of VR in the 3-D domain. Much of the computational work required by the algorithms is related to simple geometrical calculations and vector algebra. The algorithms are so structured as to disable consideration of entities (such as PDDs and faces) as soon as it is deemed that they have no bearing on further computations. These features facilitate rapid processing.

The broad strategy adopted is similar to that used in many previous works where disassembly directions and sequences are first computed, and these are reversed to determine the assembly directions and sequences. A consequence of this is that the approach is applicable only when all components are rigid and only linear assembly is considered. Further, while the algorithms include geometric considerations, the technological constraints impinging on the problem have been left unaddressed; however, it is heartening to note that several recent works (Dini and Santochi 1992, Laperriere and ElMaraghy 1992) have

attempted to address the technological constraints. It is hoped that the algorithms developed in the present work would be found useful in such "larger" systems in the phases devoted to the consideration of geometric constraints. Lastly, most engineering assemblies involve components with at least polyhedral and cylindrical features; however, extending the present work to include cylindrical features is believed to be not a major problem in view of the inherent symmetry of cylindrical features.

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